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Non-Native Speakers of English at the General English Secondary/ Business English Tertiary Interface

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Abstract: At the Faculty of Economics in Ljubljana there is no organized foreign language instruction for first-year students, so business English students-to-be spend a year or two not using general English prior to the start of lectures in business English in their second year. Discontinuity in foreign language teaching/learning at this crucial general English secondary/business English tertiary interface is deemed to be particularly detrimental to the economics students as it gives rise to general English attrition processes and exerts a negative impact on the students' proficiency potential. At the same time, it is known that a solid structure of prior general English is of paramount importance for subsequent business English teaching/learning. The outcomes of the quantitative research on the different methods to battle foreign language attrition demonstrate that the introduction of grammar instruction for business purposes as a part of form-focused instruction (FFI) approach, i.e., a combination of meaningful uses of foreign language and FFI, in the first year at the faculty could be a means to bridge any gap in foreign language teaching/learning.

Key words: foreign language teaching/learning; discontinuity; language attrition; grammar instruction; form-focused instruction.

1. INTRODUCTION

An individual's advancement through a school setting inevitably involves encountering the educational gaps in certain subject matters. Although these are not the same for all learning cultures, as a rule, they may be particularly acute in FL teaching/learning (Purvis and Ranaldo 2003; Scarino 2003; Cunningham 2004; 2010).

To turn to tertiary educational settings, the problem of a gradual attrition of entrants' FL competence due to a foreign language (FL) discontinuity is neither novel nor unique to the European Union – over the past 25 years there has been the decline in an entrants' grammatical FL competence in UK universities that may manifest itself most visibly in the form of a declining grammatical competence and writing skill (Yoshitomi 1992; Ecke 2004; Skela *et al.* 2009). Similarly, a hefty percentage of tertiary institutions in Slovenia do not offer a FL at all or provide only English instruction; therefore the magnitude of this problem is not difficult to perceive (Rižnar 2010).

Closely related to the problem of FL attrition is another issue – the need for continuous FL teaching/learning, especially in the environments where English as a FL is not present naturally in the neighbouring countries, for example in Slovenia (Hansen 2001; Scarino 2003; Schmitt 2010)

Due to a lack of research in Slovenia and abroad on the general English (GE) secondary/business English (BE) tertiary interface this study has tried to close this research gap by determining whether non-native speakers (NNS) experiencing a hiatus in FL teaching/learning can realistically be expected to maintain the level of already existing GE knowledge on their own, and later build new BE knowledge on its basis.

2. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

2.1. Grammar within form-focused instruction

According to FL research data, there is still no clear answer to the question whether formal FL teaching is effective for NNS or what method is the best (Norris and Ortega 2000; 2003; Lightbown and Spada 2006; Dörnyei 2009). Nevertheless, the agreement is that all language systems seem to be interconnected via grammar (e.g., Cook 2001), which is thought to foster more natural, subconscious FL learning, help instructed learners to acquire higher FL proficiency and improve NNS' interlanguage (e.g., Norris and Ortega 2000), probably due to the indirect, delayed effect of grammar instruction that prevents the learners from overlooking certain aspects of input (e.g., Dörnyei 2009).

Form-focused instruction/ FFI encompasses all approaches that focus on formal aspects of language, more precisely FonF/ FoF and FormS/ FonFS approaches (Williams 2005). The term FonF/ FoF denotes a brief, incidental instructional attention to linguistic features within a communicatively meaningful context. A guiding principle is redirecting learner attention during input processing to make learners notice varying aspects of FL input and not to accumulate meta-linguistic knowledge. On the other hand, FormS/ FonFS refers to a teacher-fronted, deliberate discussion of grammatical forms in isolation (Norris and Ortega 2000). Whereas focus on form encompasses focus on FormS, the reverse is not true (Doughty 2001).

Grammar for business purposes within FFI (Ellis 2002; Doughty 2003; Williams 2005; Dörnyei 2009) was chosen as an instructional treatment due to quite an impressive body of evidence demonstrating the overall effectiveness of explicit FL instruction in comparison with naturalistic exposure to an FL (Lightbown and Spada 2006; Littlewood 2006; Bybee 2008; Dörnyei 2009) and substantial evidence on the effectiveness of FFI as an instructional treatment, (e.g., Norris and Ortega 2000). Hypothesis one was formed under the assumption that the provision of grammar instruction in the second year would bring about better results on the second grammar post-test.

Hypothesis 1: The experimental group of BE learners will receive additional grammar instruction and consequently score higher in the grammar post-test (January 2011) in comparison with the control group.

Contrary to a popular belief, the research on FL anxiety does not suggest grammar as an anxiety-contributing factor (Brown 2000; Vičić 2011), but a useful pedagogical tool that may reverse FL attrition (e.g., Tudor 1996), provide a genuine sense of progress (e.g., Klapper 2006), put a stop to a predominant use of old basic syntactic patterns (Hansen and Reetz-Kurashige 1999), promote intake and enhance the learners' whole FL performance (Nassaj 2000; Doughty 2003; Robinson 2003; Ellis 2006; Han and Odlin 2006). The second hypothesis involves the assumption that grammar instruction within FFI may help learners to achieve more advanced levels of FL proficiency sooner.

Hypothesis 2: The experimental group of respondents that receive additional grammar instruction within FFI perceive grammar as useful for learning BE. Learners from the experimental and the control groups value hypothetical grammar instruction for business purposes in the first year over a gap in FL learning.

According to the outcomes of the needs analysis of the economics students at the FELU (Čepon 2006), they are clearly aware of the ongoing GE attrition and compensatory reduction and avoidance strategies (Schmid and de Bot 2006) as well as of code-switching, interlingual transfer (Tomiyana 2000), a loss of lexical richness (Schmid and de Bot 2006), fossilization (Krashen 1985; Han and Odlin 2006; Vujisic 2009), and the increase in processing time for recall (Hansen 2001).

The overall consensus in the area of FL teaching/learning is that the lack of success of implicit teaching forces teachers to rely on explicit teaching (Lightbown and Spada 2006; Dörnyei 2009), the

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value of which may lie in enhancing subsequent noticing of the gap between the correct FL input and learners' incorrect interlanguage, therefore encouraging the monitoring of their output with a view to improving their inter-language (DeKeyser 2003; Klapper 2006). FL courses thus offer opportunities to receive corrective feedback and internalize the grammatical rules via reliance on explicit instruction and stimulated recall (Norris and Ortega 2000). Hypothesis three presupposes that any kind of FL instruction is more beneficial to prospective BE students than a forced one-/two-year gap in the first year at the FELU.

Hypothesis 3: Respondents who attended GE, BE or grammar courses during a gap in FLL in the first year at the FELU score higher on the first grammar test (October 2010). Their knowledge of grammar is more consistent and less prone to drastic change.

Several contemporary studies shed light on the fact that FL disuse gives rise to FL attrition as it seems to cause decreasing activation in neurons and thus FL slowdown/failure (Hansen 2001; Crossling and Ward 2002; Ecke 2004; Schmid and de Bot 2006; Evans 2010; Hafizoah and Fatimah 2010). Students with the motivation to provide continuity that re-started FL learning sooner after a long gap forgot fewer structures (Hansen 2001; Ecke 2004). Numerous studies in the processes of learning have also shown that success in any kind of human learning is due to an individual's affective states, attitudes, actions, behaviours and orientations, or the fact that an individual is motivated to achieve a goal (Brown 2000; Shedyv 2004; Schmid and de Bot 2006; Ellis 2006; 2006a). The formulation of hypothesis four involves two assumptions; i.e., firstly, the sooner FL learning is resumed after a gap, the better the recall and the lesser the attrition, and, secondly, the learners who provide continuity by self-initiating grammar revision/study must be intrinsically-motivated individuals who normally strive for excellence and achieve higher study results.

Hypothesis 4: Respondents who self-initiated grammar revision/study on their own or with the help of a tutor in the first year, score higher in the first and second grammar tests.

2.2 Prior knowledge and FL attrition

The progress of more advanced FL students has been attributed to either more exposure and interaction in FL or to more ingenuity in providing good opportunities for practising all four FL skills (e.g., DeKeyser 2007). Predictably, a savings paradigm focuses on the advantages of relearning/reintroducing previously learned FL items over the new ones (de Bot and Stoessel 2000; Hansen 2001) whereas expert literature from the area of the FL literacy demonstrates lesser language attrition in more literate individuals (e.g., Hansen and Reetz-Kurashige 1999). Although research is not conclusive, some authors emphasize that low-proficiency learners' grammar skills may be more prone to attrition than their lexical skills, while the vocabulary is affected first with high-proficiency learners (e.g., Tomiyana 2000). Hypothesis five involves the assumption that despite a discontinuity in FL learning, more advanced FL learners with higher grades from the secondary-school exit exam in English forget less grammar.

Hypothesis 5: More advanced FL learners with grades 4 and 5 from the exit exam in English in both groups score higher on the first grammar test.

2.3 Explicit/implicit learning v. productive recall/receptive recognition

FL researchers perceive a distinction between conscious/explicit FL learning and unconscious/implicit, i.e., naturalistic FL acquisition as important (R. Ellis 2005; DeKeyser and Juffs 2005; Dörnyei 2009). Some theorists doubt that implicit learning, i.e., mere, unintentional, exposure to an FL during communicative focus on meaning/function, could improve FL learners' interlanguage (Lyster 2004; 2004a; Lightbown and Spada 2006). Put simply, automatic, unaware recognition of FL

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is not learning (e.g., Robinson 2003). A pedagogical tool for developing explicit FL knowledge seems to be controlled instruction, but only if learners have reached the requisite developmental stage (N. Ellis 2005; R. Ellis 2005). Receptive listening and reading appear easier and less subject to attrition than productive speaking and writing (Hansen and Reetz-Kurashige 1999; Tomiyana 2000; Saville-Troike 2006).

Indeed, FL input from the media that NNS encounter may often be appropriate and comprehensible, however there are rarely '*structures 'slightly beyond' the acquirer's current state of competence*' (Krashen 1985, 6), which is essential for FL learning. Moreover, it may be purposefully simplified or abandoned by NNS due to its problematic nature.

Similarly, the skills that NNS acquire abroad may be over- or underestimated, depending on the type and purpose of the evaluation. Expert literature reports large, little or no progress in speaking, medium progress in listening, practically no progress in reading/writing, and conflicting results on whether more advanced or less advanced FL students make more progress abroad. However, a longer duration abroad seems to contribute more toward fluency, though not necessarily to more accuracy (DeKeyser 2007). Hypothesis six presupposes that stimulating only receptive FL recognition during a hiatus in FL teaching/learning in the first year and neglecting the productive FL ability, cannot be a viable replacement for first-year FL instruction.

Hypothesis 6: Respondents who stay abroad, or use English in Slovenia for occupational purposes, or have (daily) access to English in the media (internet, films, music, newspapers, books, e-mails etc.) during a gap in FL learning in the first year do not retain/improve either their grammar ability or their overall FL ability.

3. INSTRUMENTS FOR DATA COLLECTION AND METHODS

The main goal of this study is to establish a direct link between instructional treatments and learning outcomes, since it provided an opportunity to look into whether grammar for business purposes as a part of FFI may inhibit GE attrition, alleviate the transition to BE and present a necessary prerequisite to achieving continuity in FLL.

All students who attended BE lectures given by the author from October 2010 till January 2011 were included, 89 students in the second and third year of the Business school at the FELU. The participants were divided into a control (N=46) and an experimental group (N=43) based on the alphabetical lists of BE students, 53 % of them females and 36 % males. The study was devised in such a way as to provide an experimental group with grammar instruction within FFI i.e., with different explicit/implicit pedagogical procedures that integrated form- and meaning- oriented BE communication activities (Norris and Ortega 2000; Doughty 2003).

The grammar test (Allan 2004) was administered simply as a means of measuring the participants' grammar knowledge, not their FL proficiency. To read the results, a well-known classification by the Council of Europe (CEFRL 2001) was used. The research questionnaire was based on 10 closed-type and one open-type question and one chart with 22 informal methods of storing/revising/consolidating GE knowledge. The data were analysed using the statistical program SPSS 15.0. Hi-square-test (X^2) was implemented to determine the differences between the control and experimental groups.

4. RESULTS

4.1 Grammar within FFI as an instructional treatment

The outcomes appear to demonstrate the benefits of grammar instruction and agree with the first hypothesis, especially for more proficient subjects who may rely on it to internalize the grammatical rules and learn an FL in a more subconscious way. Another reason may be the fact that such students must have reached the necessary learning developmental stage to process the target grammatical structures before the start of language attrition.

The results also confirm the second hypothesis. Namely, 93 % of the respondents from the experimental group and 97% of all respondents undoubtedly favour hypothetical first-year grammar instruction in BE context over a gap in FLL.

The third hypothesis cannot be agreed with as more respondents who did not attend FL courses during a hiatus in FLL reached the expected B1 level (16.2 %) than the ones who did (3 %). Nevertheless, respondents without courses do show poorer performance after the first grammar test – 36.3 % were at A1 level and 34.3 % at A2 level. B1 students' grammatical knowledge in the second test even implies signs of a decrease which is evident from the increase in the number of poorer scoring A2 students. On the other hand, the grammatical knowledge of respondents who attended FL courses seems more consistent and less prone to change as it tends to stay virtually unchanged or it decreases slightly in both tests. Namely, there are fewer B1 respondents in the second test.

Hypothesis four can be confirmed since more respondents who self-initiated grammar revision/study in the first year score higher in both tests in comparison with the students who did not revise grammar. At higher B2 and C1 levels, more students on both tests do not opt for preserving/revising English grammar knowledge. This could be attributed to more advanced students' lesser need to revise grammar due to the fact that they should have internalized it. Similarly, at A1 and A2, there are more students with a self-initiative to revise grammar in comparison with those without it which may indicate that some less proficient respondents may decide to upgrade their FL grammar.

The results of the first test show a substantial difference between B1 students revising grammar with a tutor/courses and students revising on their own, i.e., 34.3 % to 6.1 %. However, the outcomes of the second test are considerably worse in both groups – there is less B1 knowledge and consequently more A1 and A2 knowledge. A higher number of less proficient students who had studied grammar with a tutor/course compared with poorer students who revised on their own is not paradoxical. Essentially, it could be explained by the inclination of poorer A1 and A2 students to rely on external help rather than study language independently.

4.2 Prior knowledge and FL attrition

The data from the study confirm that grades 4 and 5 from the high school exit exam in English in both groups generally experience lesser FL attrition and stronger memorization, probably due to the fact that they should have learned a FL well or longer given their presumably higher motivation. Based on the outcomes, hypothesis five can be confirmed. When compared with students with grades lower than 5 and 4, more advanced students score higher on the first grammar test in both groups – there are 13.1 % B1 students with grades of 4 and 5 after the first test and 11.1 % after the January test. More students with good grades of 4 and 5 at A2 after the second test (8.1 %) in comparison with the first one (7.1 %) are difficult to account for, especially because the respondents took the January 2011 test just before the start of the February exam period. As expected, there are only a few A2 students with a grade of 5 from the exit exam after the second test (1 %). There are more C1 students

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(4 %) after the second test than after the first one (3 %); however at the B2 level the correlation between grades 4 and 5 after both tests is unchanged.

The downward trend in the number of such relatively good FL students in the second test could be explained by the test revision for the upcoming exam period in February 2011 at the FELU. Namely, owing to their reliance on the supposedly good FL knowledge from the secondary school, they may have decided to devote more attention to the study of other subjects, not FL.

4.3 Explicit/implicit learning v. productive recall/receptive recognition

On balance, hypothesis six can be confirmed: the use of English for the respondents' occupational purposes in Slovenia does not shield them from experiencing language attrition processes and a worsening of the grammatical knowledge, and equally, a stay abroad may improve their overall fluency, but not necessarily the accuracy in a FL. Essentially, non-native speakers seem to be naturally drawn to easier FL recognition from the input in the media. The outcomes confirm that students with a daily contact with English in the media score lower on the first test in comparison with students without such contact. Looked at in total, 9.1 % of students with daily contact are at the B1, B2 and C1 levels on the first test while 15.1 % were without such contact. The reason may lie in the results of the analysis of the economics students' language needs (Čepon 2011), according to which they often tend to be misled into perceiving passive recognition of English in the media as a valid, productive means to retain FL knowledge.

Respondents with EOP in Slovenia show signs of language attrition — there are fewer B1, B2 and C1 students on the first test (10.1 %) than on the second one (11.1 %), looked at in total. This could be attributed to students' focus on the use of English for everyday work purposes, which does not always require accurate grammar that otherwise would be verified using grammar tests. By contrast, there is the expected decrease in students' knowledge for the students without EOP — on the second test there are fewer B1 students (a decrease from 12.1 % to 7.1 %) and consequently more A2 and A1 students.

Predictably, second/third-year BE students who stayed abroad for several months achieved a lower result on the first test compared with students who did not. The comparison of quite low A1 and A2 students who did not (60.6 %) or did speak English (15.2 %) during a stay abroad yielded the following results. A rise in the percentage of lower A2 students from 30.3 % to 32.3 % for the students who did not speak English abroad indicates a slight worsening of their grammatical knowledge after the January 2011 test or the fact that their knowledge may remained unchanged. There is also a similar drop from 8.1 % to 10.1 % for A2 students who spoke English abroad.

Conclusion

All things considered, the research raises several issues. The outcomes seem to indicate that, for non-native speakers of English, enabling continuity in FL teaching/ learning at the GE secondary/BE tertiary interface is crucial to prevent GE attrition processes. Despite the fact that grammar instruction as a means of achieving linguistic accuracy is still debatable, the evidence from the research seems to point to the conclusion that non-native GE learners who continue to upgrade their FL knowledge with a study of BE after a hiatus do need to maintain the continuity of their FL study. Additional focus on grammar in the first year instead of a gap in FLL, adapted for BE purposes, seems to be a means to battle any FL attrition. In essence, the biggest advantages of the introduction of grammar instruction in the BE context in the first year at the FELU seems to be combating GE attrition, achieving retention of already internalized levels of GE, improving FL learners' interlanguage effectively, and alleviating the transition to teaching/learning BE. A stay abroad, EOP or

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reliance on the media in English in Slovenia do not seem to be a viable replacement for explicit FL teaching/learning.

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Using Audio Materials for ESP Vocabulary Acquisition

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Abstract. The study explores the acquisition of the vocabulary in the subject field through listening by the 1st year undergraduate ESP students of the Faculty of Economics. The paper concentrates on incidental or non-taught ESP vocabulary acquisition while listening to audio materials in order to clarify the possible proportion of words that can be acquired without purposeful teaching/learning. A linguistically homogenous group of undergraduate students participated in the listening sessions accompanied by vocabulary exercises in the pre-, while- and post-listening stages with repeated opportunities to meet the same ESP vocabulary in the process of the listening activity. A number of ESP vocabulary knowledge tests taken by the learners checked their knowledge of the selected words acquired incidentally during the listening session. The findings of the study show that listening activities with additionally designed tasks creating the context and activating the background knowledge of the learners can enhance the acquisition of ESP vocabulary.

Key words: ESP vocabulary, listening skills, the context

1. INTRODUCTION

The curriculum of the Latvia University of Agriculture (LLU), a regional university, includes content-based courses of *Professional Foreign Language* studies in the first years of the curriculum, which, according to the needs analysis, is mostly implemented in English (English for Specific Purposes, ESP). The aim of the present paper is to analyze the perception of the texts in the subject field in foreign language focusing on lexical units of the specialized vocabulary, namely terms of economics. The study explores the role of the background knowledge and context in incidental acquisition of lexical items in the stream of speech of video and audio recordings available online. The paper describes the results of the small-scale study carried out among the 1st year undergraduate students at the Faculty of Economics, Latvia University of Agriculture, to examine how ESP learners perceive spoken recorded texts in specialty. The study was an attempt to determine if undergraduate students learn incidentally ESP vocabulary during the listening activity having additional pre-listening, while-listening and post-listening treatment. The research method was the case study.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

Listening comprehension in foreign language is a complex, active process in which a listener must discriminate between sounds, understand vocabulary and grammatical structures, interpret stress and intonation, retain and process all the information and interpret it within the concrete and larger socio-

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cultural context of the utterance. Listeners may have different purposes and conditions in different situations and these differences in purpose may affect the perception of the speech. Listening comprehension, where listeners are unable to interact with the speaker, as in the case of listening to an audio recording, is typical of educational settings and demands researchers' attention.

For successful comprehension learners need 95% coverage of vocabulary that means one unknown word in every 20 running words (Nation, 2003). However, even this number of unknown words could cause difficulties to the language learners. The densities of known words against unknown words in the text should be: 1 in 50 words (98%). The listener recognizes word boundaries by identifying lexical items and activating knowledge of their meanings. Because a normal speaking rate has about eight words per every two-to-three second run of speech, word recognition must occur very quickly in the listening process (Brazil, 1995). On the other hand, according to Krashen's Input Hypothesis, the language, which learners are exposed to, should be just beyond their current competence that they can understand most of it but still be challenged to make progress. The new lexical material should contain " $i + 1$ " where " i " is language learners' current knowledge, and new material corresponds to " $i+1$ ".

Language skills are categorized as receptive or productive. Listening, along with reading, is a receptive skill requiring a person to receive and understand incoming information or input, therefore language learners can listen to and understand texts at a higher level than they can produce. In the last two decades foreign language listening comprehension researchers (Anderson and Lynch 1991; Field 1999; Hedge 2000; Ozola 1999; Richards 1990; Rost 2002) mention two models of comprehension processes: bottom-up and top-down. The metaphors "top" and "bottom" are used to depict the stages through which listening proceeds. In listening, the lowest level, the bottom, refers to a phonetic feature. In bottom-up processing the listeners' lexical and grammatical competence in a foreign language provides the basis for working out the meaning. At the "top" there is general meaning of the spoken text, into which new information is integrated as it proceeds. Listeners use the background knowledge of the topic to understand the meaning of speech trying to compensate for the insufficient linguistic knowledge of foreign language. Top-down comprehension strategies involve the knowledge called the previous knowledge or the knowledge of the world. Top-down listening infers the meaning from contextual clues and from making links between the spoken message and various types of the knowledge of the world or the background knowledge.

Consequently, non-native listeners, when they have partial linguistic knowledge, are in the situation when they have to use their background knowledge in the form of schemata and scripts. The activation of the background knowledge helps to compensate for the lack of the linguistic knowledge in a foreign language that is necessary to understand the meaning of lengthy spoken texts. Thus in the educational settings, pre-listening activities stimulate students' knowledge of the world in the form of schemata, and they use it to infer the meaning of unknown words, or the words they cannot recognize in the stream of the speech in foreign language.

Incidental vocabulary learning involves the "picking up" of words and phrases by engaging in various communicative activities, in particular reading and listening activities, during which the learner's attention is focused on the meaning in context rather than on the form of language (Hulstijn 2008). The

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effectiveness of incidental vocabulary learning is closely connected with the role of the context. As regards the educational settings, a listening activity is partly de-contextualized (Ozola 2012). Contextual clues to meaning come from knowledge of the particular situation, i.e., speakers, the setting, the topic, the purpose of the spoken discourse and from knowledge of what has been said earlier.

Guessing words from context is seen as the opposition to ‘direct intentional learning and teaching of vocabulary’ (Nation, 2003). When students are learning words using context while listening, the attention-drawing activities can be carried out before, while and after the listening session. Pre-listening or attention-drawing activities are suggested for effective word learning. Some of them are: pre-teaching the target words, highlighting them in the text, providing a list of the words, looking-up the words in a dictionary, providing follow-up exercises, etc.

3. RESEARCH METHODS AND MATERIALS

The study investigates the incidental learning ESP vocabulary in the subject field of economics by undergraduate students of Economics during listening sessions with additional pre-listening treatment. **The case study** as the research method has been used. A method called the “time series design” was applied.

Thirty-six 1st year undergraduate students of Economics, Latvia University of Agriculture, who learned English for Specific Purposes participated in the case study. The age range was from 19 to 20 years. The English language was their foreign language, the language proficiency level - intermediate. It was an activity carried out during the class. The title of the text was “Business Angels” in the form of the podcast file (www.britishcouncil.org/learnenglish), the theme of it was the role of investors in the business expansion. The text contained 341 words, including terms of economics. The spoken text was a dialogue, but it seemed that it was a planned and scripted dialogue (no marked pauses, backchanneling, hesitations, repetitions, elliptical sentences).

16 terms of economics were selected for the pilot-testing that was carried out in advance with another group of students who were not expected to participate in the case study. The aim was to identify which words were unknown to the students. Afterwards 10 lexical units were chosen for the analysis, which had the lowest level of familiarity among the pilot-test students. The pre-, while- and post-listening tasks were designed by the author for the audio recording to include additional information about the situational context and to activate students’ background knowledge which was meant to draw the students’ attention to the target ESP vocabulary from the field of economics.

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The pre-test was done two weeks before the actual listening session to check how many of the 10 selected terms the students already knew. On the whole, the participants knew an average of 23% of all the selected lexical units even though the distribution of familiar words was varied: some lexical units were unknown to almost all of the students, several were familiar to some of them. Two weeks later, the same thirty-six (n=36) students were exposed to the treatment with the pre-listening tasks, the

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podcast audio recording and the post-listening tasks after which the students were given ESP vocabulary post-test. The participants were exposed to the listening two times. The results of ESP vocabulary post-test showed a noticeable increase in students' specialized vocabulary knowledge in comparison with the pre-test. The post-test results showed that the participants knew an average of 80% of the selected lexical units of the ESP vocabulary.

Figure 1 shows the results of the pre-test and the post-test. The vertical axis represents the number of students and the horizontal axis represents the selected unknown terms. The graphs show the number of students who knew each selected term in the pre-test and the post-test. As a result of pre-listening, while-listening, post-listening activities the number of familiar words increased. The listening session was completed with the comprehension questions in written form to see if the students have understood the content of the spoken text. The results showed that students have understood the content of recording since each student had one mistaken answer out of nine answers on average.

Language learners have to compensate for insufficient phonological, lexical and syntactic knowledge of foreign language. Listening happens in real time, learners listen and have to comprehend what they hear immediately. Language learners have to apply the previous knowledge of the world and the knowledge of the context trying to infer the meanings of words in context. In this case, pre-listening activities were aimed at creating the situational context and activating the background knowledge. The acquired information about what the listeners are going to hear assisted in making inferences and the listeners could guess the meaning from the context even though they either did not know the meaning of the word or did not grasp each word in the flow of the speech. So it can be concluded that the activation of the background knowledge before the listening can increase the number of the recognized words and facilitate incidental acquisition of words.

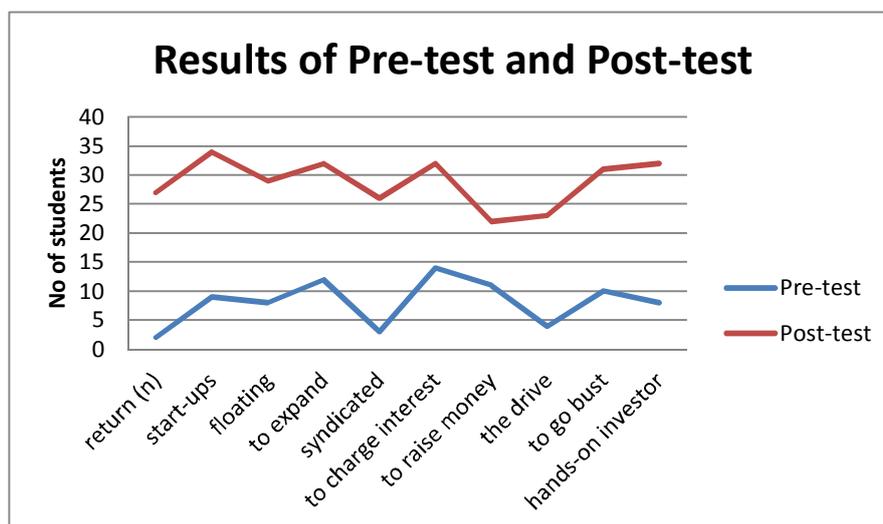


Figure 1. The results of Pre-test and Post-test.

The findings of the case study show that students can acquire new lexical items of ESP vocabulary incidentally while listening to online podcasts. Many podcasts from online resources, including the British Council resource website, are provided with additional activities for pre-, while-, and post-

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listening session which can be used for self-study purposes. In addition, teachers can use video and audio podcasts creatively designing additional activities and use them in the ESP classes for enriching ESP vocabulary.

5. CONCLUSIONS

1. Incidental acquisition of new vocabulary through listening with the help of audio/video and additionally designed exercises can become an effective, attention attracting way of learning new vocabulary in foreign language.
2. The findings of the present study show that the activation of the background knowledge of the listeners and added information about the situational context in the pre-listening stage facilitate the processing of the spoken text in foreign language, assisting to recognize word boundaries in the fluent speech and to infer the meaning of lexical items of specialized vocabulary from the context.
3. The present research points to the implications that the pre-listening stage is an important part of the listening session in educational settings. Learners need pre-listening activities that prepare them for the listening task. In the learning process it is very important to pay attention to: 1) activating the background knowledge, 2) giving information about the situational context, 3) and designing vocabulary exercises that practice lexical units and terms included in spoken texts.

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Main Issues of Terminology Management in Organizational Sciences

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Abstract: The multidisciplinary scientific field of organizational sciences has in recent decades undergone continuous and dynamic growth and development, thus producing a constant need for new terms to mark newly emerging concepts. The Serbian language, lacking the power and time to respond to the demands of the terminology market and meet the needs of the users of its products and services, has shown a tendency to randomly resort to foreign technical terms. The newly adopted, but only partly adapted terminology are mostly English, having that the greatest part of the latest scientific breakthroughs and technical solutions in the field of organizational sciences and the corresponding body of literature come from the developed English-speaking world. This all results in a confused and disordered state of technical terminology in the field of organizational sciences, shortage of terminology systematization and standardization models, and the problem of outdated terminography, i.e. terminological databases, lexicons, dictionaries, etc. By using a corpus consisting of scientific and research articles belonging to the field of organizational sciences, especially to the discipline of operations management as its integral part, the author aims to illustrate the abovementioned problems related to the terminology of this field, as well as the problems of imprecise terminology, terminology synonymy, criteria for the term selection, the international character of the terms, etc. Since the problem of terminology disorder and confusion in the Serbian language is not limited to the field of organizational sciences, but is present in most other professional and scientific fields, the ultimate goal of this paper is to highlight the pressing need for a more systematic terminology management as a part of the corpus of language policy and planning. This paper therefore offers several propositions about Serbian terminology management and standardization. One of them is that successful terminology management must involve not only the collection, analysis, testing and implementation of the terms (descriptive activities), and the technical terminology standardization (prescriptive activities), but also include the practical application of the adopted and standardized terminology.

Key words: terminology, terminology management, standardization, language for specific purposes, anglicism

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1. INTRODUCTION

Language for specific purposes, i.e. special language, as a subsystem of general language is used for communicating subject-field specific knowledge and information (Wright and Budin 1997, 44). Thus we have language for medicinal purposes, language for business purposes, language for management purposes, etc. The prime component of every special language is its terminology that, from the linguistic point of view, represents a subcomponent of a language's lexicon (Cabre 1999, 7). Terminology can be defined as a set of terminological units called terms¹. In addition to subject-specific terminology, every language for specific purposes contains general language connective material to produce coherent, subject-specific discourse (Wright and Budin 1997, 13 -14).

Terms is generally defined as words that are assigned to concepts used in special languages that occur in subject-field or domain-related texts (Wright and Budin 1997, 13). Thus we have medicinal terms, business terms, management terms, etc. Terms can be not only single words, but often multiword and set phrases, collocations, and abbreviations. In terms of parts of speech, terms are mostly nouns, verbs, and sometimes adjectives or adverbs, as well as noun, verb and adjectival phrases. Unlike general language, which welcomes variety and synonymy as a sign of language diversity and richness, terminology in specialized fields does not allow variation and ambiguity. For the purpose of facilitating communication between subject-field experts, terminology should be precise and unambiguous. Despite some puristic tendencies (justified by the need to protect the Serbian language from Anglo-globalization²), Serbian linguists generally agree that technical terminology has to be predominantly international in character, thus enabling and facilitating communication among experts worldwide. In his attempt to define criteria for term adequacy, Serbian linguist Šipka (1998, 128) said that an ideal term should be transparent, well-established, short, precise, unambiguous, easily integrated into the language system, and without synonyms. Bugarski (1996, 26), on the other hand, added that an ideal term also needs to be uniform in meaning, widespread and productive (i.e. able to take derivational affixes). These criteria will be referred to several times further in this paper when discussing the terminology of organizational sciences.

2. A NEED FOR TERMINOLOGY MANAGEMENT

Recent technological and scientific advancement and the resulting changes and innovations in scientific disciplines themselves coming from developed countries, however, had been accompanied by the appearance of a large number of new subject- specific concepts and their corresponding terms. As a consequence, Serbia and other small and developing countries that mostly accept this one-way transfer of knowledge for the developed, mostly English-speaking world, have developed a terminological dependency on the English language. In other words, Serbian has started relying more and more on English-language terms and conceptual structures, which resulted in widespread terminology variation, large-scale borrowings of scientific and technical vocabulary, random acceptance of foreign technical terms without any adaptation whatsoever, replacement of the existing terminology with the English one, appearance of terminological synonyms and variation, imprecision, etc. Another issue connected to variation in technical terminologies of small-area languages is the

¹ Terminology is also used to describe a recently fully developed scientific discipline concerned with the study and compilation of specialized terms (Wright and Budin 1997, 2), i.e. the process of compiling, describing, processing and presenting terms of special subject field in one or more languages (Cabre 1999, 10).

² Term coined by Prčić (2000, 867)

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dualism between language purism and a preference for domestic terminology on one hand and the ever-growing internalization of terminology on the other (Bugarski 1983, 65) and the consequent creation of inertial synonyms. This has undoubtedly led to the breach of some of the well-established criteria (above) for what a term is. All in all, Serbian technical terminology in most subject – specific fields is in a disordered state and is in urgent need for systematization and standardization.

The state of technical terminology does not affect only subject- field practitioners (i.e. domain specialists) for whom terminology is an essential tool for professional communication and the transfer of knowledge. Terminological problems are also encountered in the fields of technical translation, language planning, research in various areas of linguistics (including corpus and cognitive linguistics), translation studies, standardization, information management, etc. (Wright and Budin 1997, 1), which points to several groups interested in the systematization of Serbian terminology: subject- field practitioners, linguists, technical translators and technical writers, language planners, IT specialists, etc. The author tends to believe that the state of Serbian terminology in the field of organizational sciences is partly the result of the lack of linguistic awareness among subject-field specialists, which calls for urgent intervention, cooperation and consensus among all the stakeholders. Lack of harmonized terminology, after all, seriously affects the exchange of information and knowledge (Jakić, Anđelković, Novaković 2012, 156).

The problems of Serbian technical terminology outlined above have recently drawn attention to the scientific discipline of terminology management (TM). TM is a relatively new term coined with the purpose of adequately addressing the terminology problems in all languages, and can be defined *as any deliberate manipulation of terminology information* (Wright and Budin 1997, 1). Terminology management encompasses a wide range of descriptive and prescriptive activities and procedures, from term selection and concept representation and description (descriptive TM), agreement on the criteria and the choice of terminological units and the resulting terminology standardization (prescriptive TM), all the way to terminology planning, terminology training, terminography (i.e. systematic recording of terminology in dictionaries and databases), etc. Furthermore, the term terminology management is also applications – oriented and has been expanded to include commercial, technical, and computer - applications for terminology. (Wright and Budin 1997). For terminology management to be successful, close cooperation between subject-field practitioners and terminologists is essential: while the terminologist attests the linguistic validity of the data, the domain specialist's knowledge guarantees that terminology research stays in line with subject-field reality (Wright and Budin 1997, 87).

3. TERMINOLOGY AND TERMINOLOGY MANAGEMENT OF ORGANIZATIONAL SCIENCES

Organizational sciences represent a multidisciplinary scientific field that encompasses several mutually interdependent and complementary scientific disciplines ranging from management and organization (including quality management and operations management) up to information systems and technologies. The areas of interest in the field of organizational sciences are also operations research and computational statistics, e-business, systems management, software engineering, financial management and many others. What keeps all these disciplines together as parts of organizational sciences is their common goal: advancement of business systems efficiency.

In order to illustrate Serbian terminological trends and issues in organizational sciences the author of this paper has focused on the scientific disciplines studied at the Faculty of Organizational Sciences, Belgrade University. The examples of terminology variation and terminological problems cited in this paper come from several sources: textbooks used in undergraduate courses, research articles from

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scientific journals issued by the Faculty, master theses and seminar papers, information found on the Faculty's website; or were provided by the specialists in this scientific field- the professors and assistants of the Faculty or Organizational Sciences.

For practical reasons, the author of this paper has divided the wide range of technical terminology used in organizational sciences into several subfields, namely: Management terminology, IT terminology, Operations Management terminology and Quality Management terminology. However, it is important to note that, due to multidisciplinary and complementary character of the disciplines themselves, there are no clear lines between the corresponding terminologies as well.

As far as terminology management of organizational sciences is concerned, it is practically non-existent in the Serbian language. If we disregard several individual and small-scale attempts to make subject- area terminology collections, there have been no deliberate and systematic descriptive TM activities aimed at both extracting terms from subject- field texts and selecting or forming appropriate terms to describe corresponding concepts. Consequently, in the past couple of decades there have been no attempts to create terminological resources and collections, such as technical glossaries, terminological dictionaries, online terminology databases, etc. Finally, there were no attempts to standardize the terminology of organizational sciences nor an official institution or commission responsible for this.

3.1 Terminological Dependence on English in Organizational Sciences

The dominance of the English language and its status as the *lingua franca* of international business is beyond any doubt. So is its penetrating influence on technical terminology in practically every world language, having that Anglophone countries are world leaders in business and economy.

Organizational sciences have achieved their full progress at the turn of the 21st century, with the latest scientific breakthroughs, innovations and technical solutions and the corresponding body of literature coming from the developed English-speaking world. This has led to the urgent need for new terms to denote newly emerging concepts and numerous anglicisms³ introduced into the field of organizational sciences. This trend of linguistic Anglo-globalization is as widespread here as in other Serbian subject – specific fields, and can be considered partially responsible the current disordered state of terminology in the field of organizational sciences.

However, the use of anglicisms, i.e. (mostly) internationalisms can be justified for several reasons:

1) If there is a lexical or a conceptual gap that needs to be filled with a foreign word. This is particularly valid in conditions of dynamic development of organizational sciences and the constant and urgent need for new terms that cannot be filled from the Serbian language. (Prčić 2004, 120) Thus come the (unadapted or partially adapted) terms such as *greenwashing*, *knowhow*, *goodwill*, *leveridž*, *cloud computing*, *bootstrapping*, etc.

2) For economy reasons – if the Anglicism in question is shorter than a long paraphrase or description. For example, both *outsinging* (English *outsourcing*) and *mobing* (English *mobbing*) are both more practical and more precise than, for example, *angažovanje spoljnjih saradnika za obavljanje dela posla* and *zlostavljanje na radnom mestu* or similar translations.

³ Anglicisms were defined as English words, morphemes (i.e. prefixes and suffixes) and idioms that are used in Serbian with different degrees of integration into its orthographic and grammatical system. The meaning of term Anglicism, however, has recently been expanded to include not only words, but also phrases and sentences that follow the English language norm on all linguistic levels: orthography, phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics, pragmatics, etc. (Prčić 2004, 114).

4. TERMINOLOGY MANAGEMENT ISSUES IN ORGANIZATIONAL SCIENCES

The dependence on English terminology that results in the use of unjustified Anglicism (and thus its parallel use with already established terms or possible Serbian variants of the terms), however, may lead to numerous other problems, such as terminological variation, synonymy and redundancy, and sometimes even imprecision and ambiguity.

The following chapters provide examples for the abovementioned, and also attempt to point to the pressing need for a more systematic collecting, systemizing, standardizing and accepting of terms, i.e. for the application of terminology management methodologies and procedures on the way.

4.1 Orthographic Issues of Anglicism in Terminology

The first level of English-contact induced variation within Serbian terminology of organizational sciences refers to the degree of orthographic adaptation of Anglicism to the Serbian system. Generally speaking, terms that are better-established in the field are completely adapted, while those that have been recently introduced have not gone through any orthographic adaptation and are still used in their original form, such as: *greenwashing*, *knowhow*, *goodwill*, *leverage*, *cloud computing*, *bootstrapping*, etc. The use of quotation mark with unadapted anglicisms is very common.

With some terms, there are co-existent variants of unadapted and adapted anglicisms, such as in *kost- benefit / cost- benefit*, *onlajn / on-line (online)*, *stejholder / stakeholder*, *sajber pravo / cyber forenzika*, *dejta majning / data mining*, etc. In these cases, the choice of the variant depends on the individual preferences of the authors of the texts themselves and sometimes on the alphabet used (with the Cyrillic being more inclined towards orthographic adaptation).

4.2 Morphosyntactic Issues of Anglicisms in Terminology

According to Bugarski (1996, 26), above, one of the main criteria for the adequacy of a term is its derivational potential, i.e. its ability to take suffixes. The failure of anglicized terms to take derivational and possessive suffixes is more than evident in a number of noun phrases, with both nouns uses in nominative case: *marketing istraživanje*, *brend menadžment*, *biznis inovacije*, *internet ekonomija*, *biznis sektor*, *biznis projekat*, *marketing orijentacija*, *menadžment filozofija*, *marketing menadžment*, *marketing informacioni sistemi*, etc. This can result in ambiguity: for example, *marketing istraživanje* can be both *istraživanje marketinga* and *istraživanje u marketingu* (*marketinško istraživanje*), while *menadžment filozofija* can be both *filozofija u menadžmentu* and *menadžerska filozofija*, etc. The use of derivational suffixes might reduce this ambiguity, without compromising with the economy of the terms themselves.

Another inconsistency in the use of the Serbian case system has been observed. Namely, different sources and authors show preference towards one of the two variants of the following terms: *logistika kvalitetu* (N1 in nominative + N2 in dative) or *logistika kvaliteta* (N1 in nominative + N2 in accusative) and *menadžment kvalitetu* (N1 in nominative + N2 in genitive) or *menadžment kvalitetom* (N1 in nominative + N2 in instrumental).

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Another tendency in adopting English terminological phrases is to follow the English word order, as in *Cloud Computing concept* (*concept / pojam Kloud kompjutinga*), *Delfi metoda*, *Simpleks metoda*. This is especially common when the first component of the phrase is an English or a Serbian acronym, as in *CPM metoda*, *MOW projekat*, *WFM tehnika*, *TQM koncept*, *IKT aspekt*, etc.

The examples above also point to another variation in the terminology of organizational sciences – uncontrolled and unsystematic use of both Serbian and English acronyms: *CPM – Critical Path Method*, *MOW – Meaning of Work*, *WFM- Whole Foods Market*, *TQM – Total Quality Management*, *IKT - Informaciono-komunikacione tehnologije*, etc.

4.3 Semantic Issues of Anglicisms in Terminology

In the process of translation or adaptation of anglicized terms in organizational sciences, some words that have already been a part of the Serbian language system have received a new, wider or narrower meaning, resulting in the creation of semantic neologisms, and sometimes leading to synonymy: *regrutovanje* (English *recruitment*), earlier used in a military context, *trening* (English *training*), earlier used for sports only, are now used in Serbian for HR purposes in a different meaning, with synonyms *odabir* i *obuka*. Serbian language dictionary (Vujanić et al.: 2007) notes only one meaning of the term *biznis* (English *business*): *a job that brings profit, a lucrative job*. The term *biznis* has, however, expanded its meaning to refer not only to lucrative and profitable activities, as evident in the following terminological phrases: *biznis preduzeća* (*biznis* synonymous with *poslovanje*), *privatni biznis* (*biznis* synonymous with *preduzeće*), *biznis inovacije* (*biznis* used in an adjectival function with the meaning of *poslovne*).

Some terminological collocations are created as a result of the disregard of the existing Serbian collocations and the introduction of collocational neologisms. According to Serbian language dictionary (Vujanić et al. 2007), the noun *dizajn* (English *design*) refers to *objects of industrial production that have been shaped by using modern technologies*. Therefore, the verb *dizajnirati* refers to the creation of such objects, which makes the following collocations unacceptable: *dizajnirati finansijske izveštaje* (*perhaps napisati, napraviti nacrt, etc.*), *dizajnirati treninge* (*osmisliti, etc.*), *dizajnirati građevinu* (*projektovati, etc.*). In addition, the verb *ohrabrivati* (English to *encourage*) recently became quite common in collocations such as *ohrabrivati privredni rast* (replication of the English to *encourage economic growth*) instead of the older *podsticati privredni rast*.

One of the results of superficial translation of terms from English is the creation of semantic ambiguity in Serbian terminology. Namely, the terms *strukturno* and *strukturalno*, *sistemska* and *sistematska*, *strateško* and *strategijsko*, *kontinuirano* and *kontinualno*, *konceptualno* and *konceptijsko* are often used interchangeably, as in *strategijski* and *strateški menadžment*, *strategijske* and *strateške komunikacije*, *sistemska* i *sistematski pristup*, *organizacijska* and *organizaciono* ponašanje, *konceptualni* and *konceptijski* model, *kontinuirano* and *kontinualno* obrazovanje, etc. According to the Serbian language dictionary (Vujanić et al. 2007) the abovementioned terms can be used synonymously. However, since terminology demands precision, the ambiguity may be avoided by selecting only one term in a pair.

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4.4 Synonymy and Redundancy Issues of Terms in Organizational Sciences

Both Šipka (1998, 128) and Bugarski (1996, 26) claim that terminology demands precision and thus does not allow synonymy. Even a superficial look at the terminology of organizational sciences provides examples: *menadžment* (in the meaning of *the running of an organization or a part of it, according to the Oxford Dictionary of Business and Management*) and *upravljanje / rukovođenje* are used synonymously, and thus we have both *upravljanje finansijama* and *finansijski menadžment*, but only *marketing menadžment* and *upravljanje proizvodnjom* (not *upravljanje marketingom* or *menadžment proizvodnje*)⁴.

As observed from the corpus, the synonymy is mostly the result of individual preferences of subject- field specialists and translators, who usually chose between an adapted, partly adapted or unadapted anglicisms and a traslation of the term, as in:

Corporate management: KORPORATIVNO UPRAVLJANJE, KORPORATIVNI MENADŽMENT, UPRAVLJANJE PREDUZEĆEM;

Data Mining: DEJTA MAJNING (DATA MINING), RUDARENJE PODATAKA;

Data vendor: DEJTA VENDOR, DISTRIBUTER PODATAKA;

Economy: EKONOMIJA, PRIVREDA;

JIT concept: JIT KONCEPT, KONCEPT TAČNO NA VREME;

Lean production: LEAN (LIN) PROIZVODNJA, ŠTEDLJIVA PROIZVODNJA;

Market Screening: MARKET SKRINING (MARKET SCREENING), ISPIPAVANJE TRŽIŠTA;

Soft Computing: SOFT KOMPJUTING, MEKO RAČUNANJE;

Stakeholder: STEJKHOLDER, ZAJINTERESOVANA STRANA, INTERESNA GRUPA, etc.

Apart from being the result of individual preferences, terminological synonymy is sometimes the consequence of current fashion. This can result in some established terms becoming redundant and being replaced by the foreign ones or new ones: *racio analize* instead of *koeficijent analize*, *HR dipartment / Odeljenje za ljudske resurse* instead of *Kadrovsko odeljenje*, *liderstvo* instead of *vođstvo*, *promocija* instead of *unapređenje*, *biznis* instead of *firma / preduzeće*, etc.

5. IMPORTANCE OF TERMINOLOGY MANAGEMENT IN ORGANIZATIONAL SCIENCES

The author of this paper believes that terminology issues outlined above call for the first and perhaps the most important step in terminology management of organizational sciences: descriptive activities aimed at collecting and selecting terms for the existing language sources, spoken or written discourse. Sometimes a new term (terminological neologism) needs to be formed and assigned to a newly emerged concept, as well. When choosing the appropriate term, the abovementioned criteria for term adequacy defined by Šipka and Bugarski should be taken into account to avoid imprecision, synonymy, ambiguity, variation and other terminological issues.

Descriptive terminological activities would lead to systematization of terminology of organizational sciences and pave the way for prescriptive activities and terminology standardization. It is important to note that the standardization of terminology does not only refer to the creation of

⁴ Some authors do not agree with this view, claiming that *rukovođenje* represents only one function of management, and therefore cannot be used synonymously with *menadžment*. (Jakić 2012, 98)

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recommendations for the use of terminological units, but also to the creation of standards for terminological work and research (Matić 2012, 86). So far, there have been only internal attempts to standardize subject- field terminology within particular organizations by subject- field specialists and little or no cooperation with terminologists, linguists and relevant institutions for standardization. For successful standardization to take place, a standardization committee consisting of both terminologists and leading subject-field specialists needs to be established and their work done with reference to relevant standards and institutions⁵.

Terminology research, terminology management activities and terminology standardization would thus result in the creation of terminology products, such as special language dictionaries and lexica, terminology and knowledge databases and technical encyclopedia containing terminological definitions.⁶ There is only one existing and quite outdated terminology product issued by the Faculty of Organizational Sciences that belongs to the discipline of operations research: *Terminološki rečnik operacionih istraživanja* from 1983 and covering 9 languages: Serbo-Croatian, Macedonian, Slovenian, Albanian, Hungarian, English, French, German and Russian. This fact calls for an urgent creation of new terminological products in the field of organizational sciences that would include the newer terms, but also represent an effort to systemize and organize the currently disordered state of its terminology.

And finally, all the work on terminology management of organizational sciences would be useless without the proper and consistent utilization of the adopted and standardized terms in practice, especially in conditions of dynamic changes in organizational sciences and constantly emerging new concepts and terms. This calls for activities aimed at both terminology training and the monitoring of the adopted and standardized terminology application of at schools and universities, in organizations, journals and coursebooks, conferences and seminars, etc.

6.CONCLUSION

The purpose of this paper was to draw attention to the current state of terminology in the field of organizational sciences, characterized by the dependence on English language terms and concepts, and evident in orthographic, morphosyntactic and semantic features of the corresponding Serbian terms and concepts. The author believes that the state of terminology is for the most part the result of the lack of linguistic awareness among non-linguists, i.e. subject-domain specialists. The examples of synonymy, imprecision, ambiguity and, generally speaking, disorder among terms used in this field asks for an urgent intervention and collaborative work that includes both linguists and non-linguists. This relatively new discipline, aimed at addressing terminology problems through activities of forming, collecting, selecting, systemizing, and standardizing terminology, as well as terminology training and application, is not complete without the awareness of the importance of its consistent and careful use.

Terminology management thus has a wider significance since it contributes to the development of various other disciplines, such as knowledge transfer and technical translation, knowledge and

⁵ The leading standardization institution on the global level is the International Standardization Organization (ISO). Theoretical and methodological basis for the standardization of terminology on the international level are the standard terminological principles and methods "Terminology (Principles and Coordination)" developed by its technical committee ISO / TC 37 (Matić 2012, 86). Serbia has the Institute for Standardization of Serbia.

⁶ The process of documenting and representing terminological information gained through research is called terminography.

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information management, standardization, language politics and planning, etc, the last two especially in small-area languages such as Serbian.

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Difficulties encountered in teaching ESP to non-English majors in Higher education and future steps towards possible solutions

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Abstract: The introduction of Bologna process into Serbian universities has made English language obligatory course for all the faculties due to the recognition of its important role in modern life, as well as its function as a lingua franca. Teachers of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) are faced with the challenge of designing a course by choosing relevant course book and teaching materials that meet both their and students' goals. However, it appears that non-English major students are not so enthusiastic about learning ESP – the lack of enthusiasm being the greatest among those with low English proficiency level. The present study aims to investigate the factors influencing non-English majors' achievement in learning ESP. The need for the study has been identified by the fact that most of the non-English majors have low achievement in learning ESP. The study has been conducted among the first year students of Economics at the State university of Novi Pazar. Data has been collected by the means of a questionnaire administered among 92 students. Some of the findings include the following: (a) more than half students consider English irrelevant for their studies; (b) students hold negative attitude towards learning ESP; (c) students' background knowledge of English influences their attitude towards learning ESP. After the analysis and discussion of the results, the author proposes possible future steps for improving the current situation with special emphasis on the foundation of Foreign Language Center as a way of obtaining the basics of English language necessary for taking courses in ESP.

Keywords: teaching English for Specific Purposes, difficulties, non-English majors, low achievement, solutions

1. INTRODUCTION

The introduction of Bologna process into Serbian universities has resulted in numerous changes in the universities programs. Apart from the courses organization, grading students by taking in consideration attendance and participation in class, it has made English language obligatory course for every faculty, no matter what field of science it is aimed at specializing. Namely, this study is concerned with the students of Economics in particular who are obliged to attend one semester-long course in English language under the assumption that they all possess necessary pre-knowledge of general English. Unfortunately, in the majority of cases the assumption does not have anything to do with the real state of affairs.

It has been agreed that successful language learning starts when a constructive relation between the participants is established supposing they are all eager and bursting with enthusiasm for the learning in question. It appears that non-English majors lack both eagerness and enthusiasm, perceiving themselves as rather passive spectators than active participants in learning process.

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Therefore, the study has been conducted in order to get an insight in the factors that influence non-English majors in learning ESP.

On the basis of teaching experience and continuous monitoring of students' progress it has been assumed that main factors influencing non-English majors' achievement in learning ESP include: students' background knowledge of English, motivation to learn a foreign language, as well as attitude towards learning English language.

1.1. Study objectives

The aim of the study described in this paper is to determine factors influencing non-language major students' low achievement in learning ESP. It appears that main factors that should be taken into consideration are: students' background knowledge of English, motivation to learn ESP and attitudes towards learning ESP. Thus, research questions are as follows:

What are the attitudes of students of Economics towards learning ESP?

Is there a connection between students' background knowledge and their attitudes?

What motivates students to learn English language?

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Role of attitude in language learning

Many researchers and scholars acknowledged that motivation and attitudes towards learning English language are among crucial factors that influence success in learning process (e.g. McDonough, 1983; Ellis, 1994). Therefore, Gardner (1985: 91-93) points out that attitude is an evaluative reaction to some referent or attitude object, inferred on the basis of the individual's beliefs or opinions about the referent. Thus, attitudes could highly influence how individuals approach many situations in life, including foreign language learning. Many researchers state that the more positive attitude towards learning process is, the more effective learning occurs. Learning a language is closely related to the attitudes towards the languages (Starks & Paltridge 1996). Triandis (1971) defines attitude as an idea charged with emotion, which predisposes a class of actions to a particular class of social actions. He identifies three main components attached to attitudes: behavioral, cognitive and affective attitude.

2.2. Role of motivation in language learning

Hsin and Clyde (1998) stated that the students had either fear or unpleasant feelings about their past English learning experiences, and that students of different majors had different perspectives about English learning. The teaching must be aimed at meeting the learners' needs, that is, a learner-centered approach has to be adopted by language teachers. When it comes to theories of learning, putting together cognitive and affective view of learning resulted in the recognition of learners as emotional, thinking beings drawing attention to their needs and fears. In other words, learning depends on learners; it is for and about them (Hutchinson & Waters 1987). Consequently, great role of motivation has to be mentioned. In Gardner and Lambert's study (1972) two types of motivation were identified: instrumental and integrative motivation. The former encompasses external needs, some of them being to pass an examination, to read texts for students' work or study. The latter represents "an internally generated *want* rather than an externally imposed need" (Hutchinson & Waters 1987: 48). Moreover, Cooper and Fishman (1977) mentioned a third type of motivation which they termed "developmental"

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or personal motivation that refers to personal satisfaction including activities such as watching movies or reading books in English (Cooper & Fishman 1977: 243).

2.3. Related studies

A number of studies have been conducted to investigate motivation and attitudes of learners towards the English language across the world (e.g. Friedrich, 2000; Timmis, 2002). Most of the studies reported that students have positive attitudes towards learning general English thus showing their awareness of how English is important nowadays. For instance, the findings of study by Al-Tamimi and Shuib (2009) on Petroleum Engineering students' motivation and attitudes towards learning English revealed that they had positive attitudes towards the use of English in the Yemeni social and educational contexts. They also showed affirmative attitude towards the culture of the English speaking world.

On the other hand, some of the studies reported students' negative attitude towards learning English language. For instance, a study conducted by Zainol Abidin, Mohammadi and Alzwari (2012) revealed negative attitudes of Lybian secondary school students. From the results of a questionnaire given to 180 participants, the author inferred that their negative attitudes may be resulted from students' unawareness of the importance of English, as well as from the fact that they learn it as a compulsory subject.

As for the related studies in Serbia, some studies have been conducted to investigate motivation and attitude of non-English major students. For instance, a study by Maksimovic and Petrovic (2012) was intended to establish a relationship between the attitudes of students in the humanities and social sciences to foreign languages and their average college grade. The main study objectives were to determine the reasons for the lack of motivation for learning a foreign language, as well as to find out the students' opinion on the importance of knowing a foreign language for their future interest. The results revealed that students express lack of motivation because of boring lectures and topics, at the same time considering learning a foreign language as important for their future.

3. METHODOLOGY

Having in mind the aforementioned researches, main concern of the present study is to detect and describe factors influencing non-English majors' low achievements in learning ESP with the sole aim of their better understanding and improvement.

3.1. Participants

The study has been conducted among 92 students of the first year of Economics at the State university of Novi Pazar. They are non-English majors who attended one semester-long course in ESP. Out of total 92, 53 were female and 39 were male. The average age of the respondents was 21; the average grade of the class was 7.8. All of the respondents are native speakers of Serbian attending the ESP course as a part of university curriculum.

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3.2. Instrumentation

Data has been collected by means of a questionnaire administered among 92 students. Most items of the questionnaire have been adapted from Attitude and Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) designed by Gardner (1985). Some of the items have been constructed on the basis of researchers' teaching experience, as well as from related studies mentioned in the section about literature review (e.g. Friedrich, 2000; Timmis 2002). It consists of three main sections: section A includes background information on students' age, gender, years spent in studying English language, as well as their final grade at the end of the winter semester; section B includes questions on students' motivation to learn ESP and section C investigates students' attitudes towards learning ESP.

In section A, after the questions about age and gender, students were asked to answer the questions on their background knowledge of English including information about total years spent in studying the language, as well as their final grade at the end of winter semester.

In section B, subscales of motivation investigated instrumental motivation (1-4), personal motivation (5-6) and integrative motivation (7). Participants were asked to rate each statement on the scale ranging from *Very Important* to *Not important*.

Section C is constructed to investigate students' attitude towards learning ESP. A total of 12 items were put in a 5-point Likert scale from Level 1: *Strongly Disagree* to Level 5: *Strongly Agree*.

The questionnaire items were originally written in English, then translated into Serbian and administered to the students as such to avoid possible misunderstandings.

3.3. Data collection

Data collection lasted for a period of approximately four months, including the length of one semester and first final examination in January. The researcher used a questionnaire to gather information from the population of 92 students in the academic year of 2011-2012 in the Department of Economics at the State university of Novi Pazar (SUNP). The questionnaire was administered among the students after the final examination for the final grade is considered to be a variable that may affect research results. Instructions were given in writing and students were not given opportunities for asking further questions. The students have been constantly monitored from the beginning of the course to its very end. All 92 students willingly accepted to participate in the study.

3.4. Limitations of the study

There were a number of limitations of the present study that should be mentioned here to avoid misinterpretations of the results. First of all, the sample used in the study is relatively small. Another weakness is lack of face-to-face interviews that could reveal different results. Moreover, results are specifically concerned with students of Economics, thus cannot be an indicator of all university students of SUNP.

All in all, the results of the present study should be treated with caution without making any broad generalizations.

4. ANALYSIS OF THE RESULTS

The analysis consists of three main sub-sections: students' background knowledge of English and final grades, motivation to learn English and attitudes towards learning English. The results were presented by means of percentages in order to facilitate data analysis.

4.1. Students' background knowledge of English and final grades

This sub-section represents the findings of section A including students' background knowledge of English and their final grades at the end of winter semester.

Results – section A

Section A has been designed to reveal students' age, gender, total years of studying English, as well as their final grade at the end of winter semester. After the analysis of students' responses it has been found that the average age of the respondents was 21. Furthermore, out of total 92, 53 were female and 39 were male. Table 1 depicts total years spent in studying English language. It has been shown that majority of the respondents studied English for the period of 4-8 years. In addition, the findings revealed a significant number of respondents who have never studied English before (13.04%).

Table 1: Years of studying English

Number of years	Number of students	Percentage
0	12	13.04
1-4	25	27.17
4-8	43	46.74
8-	27	29.35

Table 2 highlights students' achievement at the end of winter semester by means of their final grade. According to the results, almost 65% of students failed the exam, and only 35% passed. Only 7.6 % of the students had university grade of 9, and 5.43% scored the highest university grade. Overall, the results revealed students' low achievement in learning English language.

Table 2: Students' final grade at the end of winter semester

Final grade	Students		Total	
	Male	female	N	%
10	1	4	5	5.43
9	4	3	7	7.60
8	2	5	7	7.60
7	3	2	5	5.43
6	2	7	9	9.78
5	22	37	59	64.13
Total	39	53	92	

4.2. Motivation to learn English

This sub-section represents the findings of section B including students' motivation to learn English language.

Results – section B

Section B has been constructed with the aim of investigating students' motivation regarding learning English language at the university. Thus, questionnaire items addressed three types of motivation: instrumental (items 1-4), personal (items 5-6) and integrative (item 7). Consequently, Table 3 indicates

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results of their responses considering their choice of *very important* and *important* under important, and their choice of *Of little importance* and *Not important* as unimportant.

Table 3: Students' results on the motivation for learning English

QUESTIONNAIRE ITEM	Important		Of some importance		Unimportant	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
Because it will enable me to carry my tasks more efficiently	12	13.04	23	25	57	61.96
Because it will enable me to get a job easily	44	47.83	12	13.04	36	39.13
Because I hope to further my education	36	39.13	21	22.83	34	36.96
Because it is a university requirement	88	95.65	2	2.17	2	2.17
For a personal development	29	31.52	45	48.91	18	19.57
Because it will enhance my status among my friends	19	20.65	39	42.39	34	36.96
To integrate with the western culture	23	25	21	22.83	48	52.17
Other (please specify)	-	-	-	-	-	-

As can be seen from Table 3, first four items representing instrumental motivation received the highest score. Namely, over 95% of the respondents admitted that they learn English because it is a university requirement. Almost half of students acknowledged the importance of English language for finding a job, while item 1. *Because it will enable me to carry my tasks more efficiently* and item 3. *Because I hope to further my education* were also recognized as important in their motivation.

As for the responses to items 5 and 6 that represented personal motivation, nearly half of students rated those items as *of some importance*. On one hand, the finding indicates that students' awareness of importance of English to their personal development and their relationship to friends is present, while on the other hand it discloses their vagueness and uncertainty when it comes to those issues.

The last two items concerned with integrative type of motivation seemed to be of least importance to the respondents. Thus, over half of students indicated that learning language *to integrate with western culture* was of least importance to their learning of English language.

4.3. Attitudes towards learning English

This sub-section represents the findings of section C including students' attitudes towards learning English language.

Results – section C

Section C has been designed to investigate students' attitudes towards learning English language by asking them to give honest responses to a total of 12 items included in the questionnaire. This section includes both positive and negative items. Responses *Strongly disagree* and *Disagree* were treated as disagreement, while responses *Agree* and *Strongly agree* were treated as agreement. The results are presented in Table 4.

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Table 4: Students' results regarding their attitude towards learning English language

QUESTIONNAIRE ITEM	disagreement		neutral		agreement	
	n=92	%	n=92	%	n=92	%
Studying English is important because it will make me more educated.	27	29.35	22	23.91	43	46.74
I like to give opinions during English lessons	48	52.17	21	22.83	23	25
I look forward to studying more English in the future	23	25	11	11.96	58	63.04
I don't get anxious when I have to answer the questions in my English class	57	61.96	17	18.48	18	19.57
I prefer studying in my mother tongue rather than any other foreign language	/	/	9	9.78	83	90.22
I put off my English homework as much as possible	7	7.60	9	9.78	76	82.61
Frankly, I study English just to pass the exam	5	5.43	14	15.22	73	79.35
I do not like studying English	12	13.94	15	16.30	65	70.65
I feel embarrassed to speak English in front of other students	11	11.96	2	2.17	79	85.87
I am interested in studying English	18	19.57	20	21.74	44	47.83
I cannot apply the knowledge from English subject in my real life	13	14.13	11	11.96	67	72.83
I do not feel enthusiastic to come to class when English is being taught	9	9.78	/	/	83	90.22

As can be seen from Table 4, most favorable responses in the section C were given to negative items of the questionnaire. For example, over 90% acknowledged the preference of their mother tongue over any other foreign language, as well as their lack of enthusiasm when it comes to learning English. Second high rated items included questions about their willingness to speak in front of others and their homework where the findings disclosed negative attitude towards speaking English and doing assignments.

Regarding positive items of the questionnaire, most favorable ones were those concerned with the role of English in students' future education, together with their interest to study English (47, 83%). Therefore, students are fully aware of the importance of English for their future life and they show considerable interest in studying the language. However, over half students reported they are not relaxed when speaking English is concerned, as a result being reluctant to give opinions during an English class (52,17%).

5. DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS

The current study seeks to explore main factors that have an impact on non-language majors' achievement in ESP course taught as an obligatory subject at the university level. The study indicates that those factors include students' background knowledge of English language, motivation and attitude towards learning ESP. So far, a number of researches have been done to investigate motivation and attitude of the learners in second language acquisition. Nevertheless, few of them have treated both of the factors together; even smaller numbers have considered all the three factors as a subject of their study. Having in mind the abovementioned questionnaire results, it has been attempted to establish relationship between the three by their detailed explanation and constant comparison within the context of students of Economics.

The first research question was to investigate students' attitude towards learning ESP. Overall, the study finds that students hold negative attitude towards learning ESP. This finding may account for students' apathy during ESP classes, as well as their lack of enthusiasm (over 90% of the respondents agreed with this questionnaire item). Interestingly enough, students acknowledged the importance of English for their future education, at the same time reporting their interest in learning the language, for over 60% of the respondents expressed their willingness to learn more English in the future. Thus, they do not have negative feelings towards learning English in general. It could be resulted from the fact that they are obliged to attend the course in English which put a certain pressure on them that some students are not able to endure. Rather, they refuse to learn English as a way of showing their protest. As can be seen from Table 4, 79 out of 92 students agreed with item 9. *I feel embarrassed to speak English in front of other students*, while 57 out of total 92 disagreed with item 4. *I don't get anxious when I have to answer the questions in my English class*. This finding reveals that despite students' willingness to learn English language, they seem to feel reluctant whenever they are asked to speak English in front of others. That speaking anxiety may be due to the lack of exposure to spoken English outside of classrooms (Clement, Dörnyei & Noels, 1994).

The second research question was to examine the relationship between students' background knowledge of English and their attitude towards learning ESP. Students' pre-knowledge of English language may influence their attitude towards learning ESP. Considering that within the period of one semester it is impossible to start teaching ESP to very beginners, students are expected to possess the basics of general English. The real problem is: what to do with the students who possess poor or no knowledge of English language? Namely, the study findings indicate that the number of students who have never learned English language before cannot be disregarded, as well as the number of those who have learned the language 1-4 years. Consequently, those students reported negative attitude towards learning ESP, lacking both interest and enthusiasm for learning ESP. Students' final grade at the end of winter semester is another indicator of their negative attitude for the average final English grade was 7.8. In addition, the number of failing students exceeds 60% which is another factor that contributes students' negative attitudes towards learning and students' demotivation.

The final research question addressed in this study was to determine what motivates the students to learn ESP. Overall results revealed that instrumental motivation tends to play major role in students' motivation. Once again, students gave the highest score to the items concerned with their future education, as well as better chances to find a job. Nevertheless, as could be expected, integrative type of motivation seems to be of least importance to the students of Economics. The lack of desire to fully understand and integrate with western culture appears to be no surprise since those students do not major in English. These findings about students' motivation are in accordance with Al-Tamimi & Shuib's (2009) where the students demonstrated greater emphasis on instrumental reasons for learning the English language including utilitarian (e.g. enable me to get a job easily) and academic reasons

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(e.g. enable me to carry my tasks more efficiently, it is a university requirement and to further my education).

5.1. Future steps towards improvement

As can be observed from the study results, students' poor pre-knowledge of English appeared to be major factor that impacts students' achievement in ESP course and their attitude towards the course in question. Namely, students' background knowledge tends to be unbalanced, varying from very beginners, with no or low language experience, to pre-intermediate level. In such an environment, the organization of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) course, including choice of course book and teaching materials, as well as fair grading system can be quite a challenging endeavor. The ideal solution could be to divide students into smaller groups, thus paying attention to each student's need. However, in reality the organization is hardly ever plausible due to the restrictions imposed on time and space within which the learning should take place. On the other hand, it requires additional effort on the part of teachers concerning preparation of variety of teaching methods and techniques intended to more successful outcome. Another solution could be the foundation of Foreign Language Center as a way of obtaining the basics of English language necessary for taking courses in ESP. Some of the faculties in Serbia (e.g. Faculty of Philosophy, University in Novi Sad) have already implemented the Center as an organizational unit of university and the results has proven fruitful.

Furthermore, some changes in the curriculum should also be made to meet the needs and interests of the students. The teaching of ESP course should be based on communicative approach that encourages students' participation in the lectures thus increasing their attitude, motivation and interest in learning a foreign language.

6. CONCLUSION

The current study aimed to investigate factors that influence non-English major students' low achievement in learning ESP. Based on teaching experience and related studies, it has been assumed that main factors influencing non-English majors' achievement in learning ESP include: students' background knowledge of English, motivation to learn a foreign language, as well as attitude towards learning English language. In reference to students' background knowledge, the study results revealed that students' pre-knowledge of English influences their attitude towards learning ESP. As could be expected, students with poor or no knowledge of general English showed negative attitude towards learning ESP at the university level.

For the students' attitude, it can be concluded that majority of the students hold negative attitude towards learning ESP. Namely, students acknowledged the importance of English for their future education, at the same time reporting their interest in learning the language. However, they feel reluctant to speak English in front of others, thus showing lack of enthusiasm for participating in the lectures.

In regards to motivation, the study indicated that most of the students are instrumentally motivated to learn ESP. In addition, personal motivation plays a significant part in students' motivation, while integrative reasons seemed to be of least importance to the students of Economics. As for pedagogical implications, proposed ways of improving the current issues in learning ESP are as follows: a) to divide students into smaller groups, paying attention to each student's need; b) foundation of Foreign Language Center as a way of obtaining the basics of English language

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necessary for taking courses in ESP; c) to make necessary changes in the curriculum in order to meet the learners' needs.

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Language for Leadership

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Abstract: English Language plays a key role in the development of leadership qualities. To be able to communicate effectively, assertively and sensitively is one of the main competencies required of a good leader. The purpose of this workshop/paper is to make the participants understand the importance of using English language in the right way while understanding the various factors and skills needed to develop leadership qualities. The workshop/paper will also look into the challenges faced by the leader today by drawing from the ancient Indian wisdom.

Key words: leadership, communication

Introduction:

The purpose of this paper is to understand the importance of language in a leadership role. This brings us to the following questions.

- Why is language important in leadership?
- What kind of language should a leader use?
- Where / when should he speak?
- How should he use the language i.e. how should he speak?

When the Indian Saint social worker Swami Vivekananda addressed the Parliament of World Religions at the Art Institute Chicago in 1893 with “Sisters and Brothers of America” he received a standing ovation from 7000 delegates for full two minutes. Mahatma Gandhi took a walk with 34 delegates from his ashram at Sabarmati to Dandi to defy the salt laws imposed by the British Government. When he reached Dandi there were thousands of people with him ready to defy the salt law. Satyagraha (fight for truth – nonviolence & non cooperation movement) became a unique tool that gave amazing results. These leaders through sheer power of their words, values and beliefs brought revolution. In the first case Swami Vivekanada dared to address a congregation of white foreigners who were considered superior to the coloured Indians as ‘Brothers and Sisters’ which was a levelling statement in a global platform which any Indian wouldn’t dare to do even in India in those days as India was still much under the colonial rule. Gandhi dared to defy a law imposed by the ruling government by openly challenging it by simple walking peaceful across the country. A strong symbolic message passed on both to the Indians (No fear) and to the British Government (dare you stop me?). It was a risk and Gandhi crafted it well. His idea travelled across the nation and motivated people to join him in his nonviolent mission.

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Language is for transfer of ideas and thus Language has its impact on the receiver. That's the way we see people. One common story goes there were 3 masons breaking stones to build a bridge. A man comes along and asks the 1st mason. "What are u doing?" "Breaking stones", replied the first mason. The man went ahead and met the second mason. "What are you doing my friend" he asked. "I am building a bridge", replied the second mason. The man walked further ahead and came across the third mason. "What are you doing", he asked? "I am building my nation." said the third mason. These three masons had different perspectives of the work that they were doing and that is why said different things. The first spoke like a worker, the second a manager and third a Leader. He has a vision. One of the most important functions of a leader in his role is to transfer this vision this vision to his people. He has to craft and communicate an inspirational vision.

Who is a leader? What does he do? What is his role? Where do we look for them? How does he lead? Answers to these questions bring us to a few basic facts. 1. That leaders are not born they are made. 2. They must possess some inner qualities and some acquired skills. Language and the proper use of it is one such skill that a leader must acquire. The ancient Greeks gave a lot of importance to rhetoric. They created the stadium and the theatre so that people could practice their skill of oration. Leaders must influence others. He must have the ability to use language as a tool that can shape and control the behaviour of others. Tony Golsby Smith in his blog Learn to Speak the Three Languages of Leadership in *Harvard Business Review* writes about the three things that modern leaders have forgotten.

"In ancient Greece and Rome, they knew what we seem to have forgotten: your job as a leader is to persuade people to do great things in uncertain contexts, using only one tool: your words. Compelling leaders, as Aristotle might say, have three qualities that they express through three "languages":

Agility (or "Logos"). This language is about reading situations and getting things done. John is fluent in this language, but he needs to demonstrate that he is a learner. Words like this will work: "When we made this acquisition it seemed a good idea, but as I reflect on what has happened, three things are changing on us..."

Authenticity (or "Ethos"). Followers need to know that you have deep values and dreams, and they need to hear you speak about hope. They also want to know that you are animated by some big beliefs. Authentic language comes from the heart. An authentic statement would be something like: "When I was a kid, a bully beat me up. I believe that bullies don't belong in our organization. Treating employees like 'resources' rather than people is a kind of bullying. Instead of laying people off, can't we find a way to unlock their creativity right now?"

Empathy (or "Pathos"). Caring for people ...Do you chat with people in the hallways and reveal your own weaknesses to them? Do you invite people lower in the org chart to have a cup of coffee with you? Do you listen carefully? Are you helpful?"(Smith 2011)

Till a few years back business leaders were taught to maintain steady distance with their subordinates, avoid emotional expressiveness and focus on tasks. While he was expected to motivate his people be a great team player he was also expected not to get too chummy. Between task and people, t was task that was given priority. Times have changed and so have leadership roles. A full range of leadership styles from laissez faire to transformational leadership is practiced. Hersey and Blanchard came up with the situational leadership model in which the leaders are taught to suit their styles according to the situations. Whatever be the situation leaders have to face challenges and communication plays an important role helping leader face those challenges.

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Challenges in Leadership

- Cross functional teamwork
- Greater employee empowerment
- Transferring vision
- Effective teamwork
- Employee satisfaction
- Communicating in crisis
- Conflict resolution

Each of these challenges requires the leaders to handle his people in certain way for example because of the greater employee empowerment today leaders cannot be autocratic in their behavior. The language has to be soft and non accusative yet firm In cross functional teamwork he has to listen to each side and use words that are affirmative and encouraging way. During crisis situation his language has to be firm reassuring and comforting.

Carol Orsag Madigan in Business Finance quotes Sarah Mcgrinty who spoke about the use of language by leaders.

Sarah McGinty, a university supervisor at Harvard University's graduate school of education , Boston, says that leadership language breaks down into two basic styles. She explains, "There is a language from the centre and a language from the edge. When people need to be at the centre of things, they tend to direct the conversation, make declarative statements, speak with authority- claim their authority. They argue comfortably with people who give opposite opinions. Talking from the centre is a more traditional style- the leader is at the front of the pack and leading everybody across the ice." Certain situations call for this more aggressive stance: e.g. you need to take control of a problem, or you need to sound credible on a particular topic. The flip side of language from the centre is what McGinty calls the "language of influence, or language from the edge." She says " You aren't leading the troops over the barricades. You aren't at the centre of things, but you can still be powerful on the edge by asking questions, summarizing what you have heard, checking that everyone's understanding of a subject is the same. I call it conversational maintenance, which means keeping the conversation going so that the information flow continues."(Madigan)

The situation determines the style. Does the situation call for a take- charge commander or a facilitator who seeks out information, mobilizes the staff and hears them into action? McGinty, who has just completed a yet to be published book called "Language as a Power Tool," contends, " The best communicator is someone who has carefully matched the right language tool to the right job. In other words, the best communicators are people who borrow from both the centre and the edge."

Inner Leadership and body language.

Leadership and communication are external manifestations of a strong inner self. The power to communicate strongly comes from the inner conviction and belief. The body language of leaders

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communicate their confidence which is important for their followers to see specially at times of crisis. A leader's body language must depict his strength and conviction in what he says.

In a nutshell: Ancient Indian wise men say that language must be used keeping in mind three factors, namely Place, Person and Time. When they say Place it means that one must be aware of one's location and use language accordingly. Person is about the entity with whom the leader has to interact. Assessing the capacity of the Person is important. Then comes the Time. The leader must time his interventions correctly to get maximum effectiveness. In a nutshell, a leader must be choose with care what to say, when to say and to whom to say.

Dos	Donts
<ul style="list-style-type: none">▪ Lead▪ Share Vision▪ Listen▪ Share personal experiences▪ Use Humour▪ Clear message▪ Address the issue not the person▪ No Abstractions▪ Strong start & ending▪ Confident Body Language	<ul style="list-style-type: none">▪ Be overdirective.▪ Use hedging phrases(sort of ,kind of)▪ Hesitate (oh well, Let's see)▪ Overdo personal experiences▪ Overdo Humour▪ Questioning tone▪ Use Jargon/buzzwords▪ Monotonous voice▪ Nervous Body language

Conclusion

Language is perhaps the most poignant and effective tool a leader can have to influence people. It builds his image, gives him the power to share his vision and mission and most importantly connect to others . Effective leadership is not just about achieving goals but also about building bonds and teams and that can be achieved only if language is used correctly.

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An Integrated View of ESP and EAP: a Case Study

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Abstract: This paper provides an overview of the pilot English for Specific Academic Purposes course introduced at National Research University – Higher School of Economics, Saint-Petersburg, Russia. The paper describes the stages of the course design, raises some questions for further analysis, and discusses implications.

Key words: EAP, EOP, course design, English for Economics

1. INTRODUCTION

In 2010, National Research University – Higher School of Economics, Russia, adopted its English Teaching Strategic Framework, whose main goal is to promote excellence in a wide range of competences such as linguistic, sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic. To avoid the ambiguity usually associated with the term “communicative competence”, the National Research University Commission for Teaching English developed a clear definition of this term which is used throughout the Strategic Framework. Communicative competence in English is referred to as the ability of students to use the language to accomplish various communicative goals in their academic and professional life.

The introduction of this definition has two implications for the teaching and learning process at the University. First, it revolutionizes the process of teaching English. Second, it sets new goals for both language instructors and students. Revolutionizing the teaching process actually involves transition from a long-rooted tradition of teaching the English language solely for occupational purposes such as English for Economics, English for Law, English for Management and some other occupation-specific English courses to a new cutting-edge approach of teaching English for Specific Academic Purposes. That means that generic academic language specific to no-one has been abandoned in favour of specific academic language specific to students of Economics or Management and their academic needs. That also means that generic EAP (English for Academic Purposes) and EOP (English for Occupational Purposes) courses have been abandoned in favour of narrow-focused ESAP (English for Specific Academic Purposes) courses.

In terms of new tasks for language instructors, that means designing and implementing a new syllabus which in its turn entails the analysis of students’ needs, the identification of main objectives, and the selection of teaching materials and evaluation tools. The task is made more challenging by the regulation of the National Research University Commission for Teaching English to use IELTS as the main assessment tool at the end of a two-year ESAP course. In other words, the University’s language instructors have to create an entirely new ESAP course that combines elements of former EGP, EOP, and EAP courses. In terms of new tasks for students, that means adapting to new forms and structures of learning and assessment.

Having set the background, I can now formulate the goal of my paper. The purpose is two-fold: first, to describe the process of an integrated ESAP course design; second, to discuss further implications.

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2. THE COURSE DESIGN

In this section I describe the design process of the pilot ESAP course that was introduced at the Department of Economics in September, 2012 as a response to the strategic decisions of the English Teaching Strategic Framework.

It is well-known that an ESAP course design includes the following elements: needs analysis, objectives, means, syllabus, methodology, and assessment (Jordan 1997, 57). Unfortunately, in our case some of these components have been already detailed by the National Research University Commission for English Teaching. The Commission has performed needs analysis, identified objectives and core components of the syllabus, and agreed upon the assessment procedure.

The needs are determined by the main goal of the English teaching process, which is to achieve excellence in a range of competences to accomplish communicative goals in academic and professional life. As the focus is on a range of *academic* skills in students' *subject* area, Economics, the core components of the syllabus are English for Academic Purposes, English for Occupational Purposes, General English and Business English.

The Commission has also developed a list of general teaching objectives regarding each of the competences. These objectives provide general guidelines as to what level of skill development should be achieved within each of the competences. The Commission states that by the end of their second year, students of Economics will have achieved at least the CEFR B2 level, and by the end of their fourth year they will have achieved at least the CEFR C1 level. Another important requirement set by the Commission is to use the IELTS test as the main assessment tool at the end of the second year.

Thus, the faculty members responsible for a course design are partly limited by the Commission in their decisions about objectives, syllabus and assessment, whereas they are independent in their decisions about means and methodology. However, these are the most critical decisions as they determine most of the outcome.

The first decision has to be made about the balance between EAP, EOP, EGP, and Business English. As Jordan suggests (Jordan 1997, 71), the level of language knowledge is a determining factor. Contrary to a balanced approach with a gradual shift from an EGP component to an EAP component as the level of proficiency increases, it has been decided by the course designers to utilize a "needs response" approach. This approach is considered more reasonable by most of the course designers as the level of language expertise is traditionally quite high at the Department of Economics, and students do not generally need any extra practice in an EGP component. If necessary, extra training in General English is organized in class as a response to the needs of some particular students or even groups or after classes during language instructors' office hours. Business English is taught 2 hours per week for four modules throughout the academic year. An integrated ESAP course is taught 4 hours per week. In the next few paragraphs, I focus particularly on major aspects of the ESAP course design.

The most crucial decision to be made is about the balance between EAP and EOP elements within a new integrated ESAP course. It is very important to get the right balance as it determines the choice of teaching materials and methodologies, outcomes and exam results. There are numerous approaches to this issue, none of which offers a definite solution. Most studies argue for a needs response approach (Benesch 2001, 130). In our case, the decisive factor is the IELTS test at the end of the second year. IELTS tests English proficiency of those who want study in an English-medium academic environment. At the same time, it is stated in the English Teaching Strategic Framework that the IELTS test is an assessment tool not a teaching objective. In the given circumstances, it is necessary to observe a very careful balance between EAP and EOP elements to produce a good ESAP course.

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The choice of a core textbook is also an important decision as textbooks remain the most popular teaching aid in most language courses. There are a wide range of EAP textbooks available from the big publishers such as Cambridge University Press and Oxford University Press for various levels and groups of students. The main criterion against which all textbooks are assessed is the balance between EAP and EOP elements. The only coursebook that meets the criterion is *English for Economics in Higher Education* by Mark Roberts from Garnet Education (Roberts 2012). As all other coursebooks within the Garnet English for Specific Academic Purposes series, this course develops all four skills on the basis of subject area audio and printed texts. A brief overview of the coursebook is provided in the next few paragraphs to justify the choice of the coursebook.

First, *English for Economics* is an English for Academic Purposes course and provides graded practice in essential academic skills such as making lecture notes, summarizing subject specific academic texts, listening to lectures, preparing seminar talks, reporting research findings, paraphrasing, building an argument in a seminar, recognizing the writer's stance, understanding complex sentences and others. There are 12 units in the coursebook with the focus on a particular skill that is trained across four lessons. The first lesson in any unit is an introduction to vocabulary specific to the topic of a particular unit, i.e. economics in the modern world or economics and technology. The topic specific vocabulary is further developed and recycled in either audio or printed texts (every odd unit is based on an audio text, every even unit is based on a printed text). The second lesson places the focus on a particular academic skill which is further developed and extended in the third and fourth lessons on the basis of subject specific academic tasks. The tasks range from quite simple such as "look at the pictures and say how they illustrate aspects of economic risk" to more difficult such as "listen to the lecture introductions and make your outline on a separate sheet of paper". The tasks are characterized by a high degree of authenticity as they are similar to those academic tasks that students of Economics have to accomplish in an English-medium academic environment.

Second, *English for Economics* is an English for Occupational Purposes course and focuses on key vocabulary for the subject area. Students are expected to work with a number of input subject specific texts and produce output texts in speech and writing in the discipline. That is why the first lesson of every unit is a vocabulary lesson which introduces vocabulary for the discipline. Not only does it introduce the vocabulary but also focuses on vocabulary skills such as word-building to develop advanced skills necessary for proficient reading of subject specific texts.

Thus, *English for Economics* has been unanimously voted by the course designers as the ideal coursebook for the pilot ESAP course as it is characterized by a systematic and balanced approach to developing academic skills through vocabulary relevant content. However, the general assumption of the coursebook's writer is that prior to using the book students have already completed a general EAP course and have passed the IELTS test. In our case, the situation is different; students are taking the IELTS test after using the book for two years. Given the situation, it is obvious that *English for Economics* should be accompanied by a range of supplementary materials to provide further training in the IELTS format tasks. One solution may be a special syllabus design whose aim is to practice general academic skills in the IELTS format. The following paragraphs give further details.

It has been already mentioned, the pilot ESAP course is taught four hours per week. First two hours are taught on the basis of the *English for Economics* coursebook. The other two hours provide extra practice in the academic skills that correspond to the target academic skills of every unit of the core textbook. For example, the first unit of the coursebook focuses on making lecture notes. The same skill is practiced further during the other two-hour session. For this purpose the generic note-making skill is broken down to a number of micro-skills that are seen as a lead-in or a link-with other productive and receptive skills that are practiced on the basis of a wide range of tasks in the IELTS format. Each of the generic academic skills from the core coursebook has been broken down to a

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number of micro-skills and carefully matched with an IELTS-related skill. The methodology adopted for the pilot ESAP course is based on the principle “learning by doing”.

3. DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

The efficiency of the pilot ESAP course will be seen in June, 2013 when the first group of students take their IELTS mock test. However, at this moment there are preliminary results that seem to have implications in two areas: confirmation of the established syllabus and directions for change.

In terms of confirmation of the established syllabus, a deeper look seems to be necessary to explore the efficiency of using *English for Economics* as the core coursebook. Some language instructors express doubts about its efficiency as it is specifically designed for students who plan to study Economics in an English-medium academic environment and does not take into account some culturally specific traditions of teaching and learning in Russia, for instance, teacher-centered learning. There are views arguing for using a general EAP coursebook as the core material for the ESAP course. In terms of directions for change, the current ESAP syllabus may need to be refocused to place a great deal of importance on either an EOP component or an EAP component. In addition to these immediate implications, some further questions and implications may arise after the results of the IELTS mock exam are announced in June, 2013.

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TEACHING LEGAL ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE

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Abstract: In the last two decades, legal English has attracted increasing interest and awareness, especially because English is predominantly the language of international legal practice. Legal English must be seen in the overall context of English for Specific Purposes, as it shares the important elements of need analysis, syllabus design, course design, and materials selection and development which are common to all fields of work in ESP. As with other varieties of ESP, Legal English implies the definition of a specific language corpus, usages of various teaching strategies and emphasis on particular kinds of communication in a specific context. The article aims to highlight some aspects of teaching legal English by a non-native teacher who is not an expert in law. It particularly focuses attention on the development of basic communication skills and the use of lexical approaches in successful language acquisition in legal English.

Key words: language acquisition, context, teaching strategies, specific communication

Traditionally, legal English is widely used by lawyers and legal professionals, whether they work in private or public institutions and organizations as: legal advisors, barristers, judges, jurors etc. The internationalization of commerce has established English as an international language both at European and global level, determining non-native English speaking legal practitioners and law students to specialize in legal English. So legal English has become an essential element of a legal training program both at the academic and professional stage. During the past decades, most European universities have introduced courses in English for Special Purposes, such as legal English to cope with the great demand. Both private and state-owned educational systems have applied what it is known as CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning) which facilitates easiness in language acquisition, but which has proved to be an unsuccessful method in teaching law, leading to major difficulties during the learning process in such a specialized field. (Smith, 2005.) Learners' level of L2 skills as well as their language abilities should be taken into consideration when teaching legal English. Experience in language teaching, especially in English for law students, has proved that learners should completely be aware and understand the difference between the different legal systems, thus helping them in overcoming linguistic discrepancies and gaps. There are some language skills and cultural particularities that cannot be ignored, especially when we deal with legal English. Since law is considered to be an extremely precise and concise discipline, legal principles must be integrated and interpreted according to a specific legal system. If we overlook this aspect, translation problems may occur without being connected to language

It goes without saying that the teaching of legal English as a second language raises two language-related challenges. The first refers to the particularities and peculiarities of its vocabulary and sentence structure, whereas the second one focuses on the cultural differences between the national legal system and the English second learners. Such cultural differences may require a different approach in the methodology of teaching legal English to foreign learners. According to the

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academic curriculum, the purpose of learning legal English is to prepare students to practice law, to familiarize them with the terminology and facilitate them to deal with the requirements of a law degree program. The article discusses some problems of teaching legal English to non-native students in Romanian private universities.

Legal English, both in its oral and written form, comprises specialized terminology that creates difficulties not only to native speakers, but also to foreign users. According to David Mellinkoff (1963, p 11-29), legal English lexis includes Latin, French and Anglo-Saxon words and phrases, rare words from Old and Middle English, professional jargon and formal expression, reflected throughout contemporary usage, and which makes it a “hard nut to crack” to modern learners. The aim of teaching students professional legal English is to train them specific skills so that they can use them in a professional manner. This presupposes “providing learners with the specific vocabulary and structures and enhanced linguistic modalities they want and need to succeed.” (Belcher 2004, p173). They should also learn and practice drafting and writing legal documents and advocacy, developing specific competencies. Legal courses used in higher education focus on accurate use of the legal vocabulary and style, outlining the correct use of language range and structures. Due to its highly specialized terminology, legal English should be studied and taught in a concrete legal context.

Resources focus on reading and analyzing appellate court decisions, casebooks and law reports helping students to learn the skills necessary in their future practice as legal practitioners. Students’ training also includes activities meant to improve their proficiency in English, with special emphasis on language, vocabulary and academic skills, paying also attention to oral presentation, academic listening and writing.

Being a non-native teacher of legal English, I must admit that the most time consuming activity of my preparation is terminology mining. Every time I have to deal with challenging topics, I think of what Gonzales said about English teachers “as English teachers we are expert in language use and we have to emphasize this language in our classes” (Gonzales, 2009). This principle does not totally apply to teaching legal English compared to English for Medicine, Science or other areas of ESP. Most of the teaching materials and resources used in the sessions are based on authentic texts belonging to the UK or the US legal systems in which students are unlikely to be expert. So, in these situations translation into mother tongue help students understand legal concepts and vocabulary.

Legal English courses in Romanian law schools are mainly designed for native English speakers such as Introduction to Legal English or Professional English in Use designed by Translegal. Great emphasis is laid on the cultural differences between the culture of foreign students and the corresponding legal culture, so the teacher should be utterly aware of these particularities and try to provide a cultural balance and cross cultural comparisons. In Bhatia’s view “specialist learners must be trained to handle both legislative discourse so that they can apply such legal relations to the facts of the world outside and legal cases so that they can perceive legal relations from the facts of the world” (1989, p237). It is suggested that a good teacher of legal English must display the required qualification and experience in teaching English for special purposes and sufficient knowledge on relevant legal subjects. This approach applies to English speaking educational systems, and not to the Romanian legislation which has as its source in the Napoleon Code. So, non-native English teachers need to find the most appropriate pedagogical methods to facilitate students’ language acquisition and concept understanding. The most important thing for a teacher is to facilitate the improvement of their students own linguistic performance and cultural awareness through a wide range of approaches and techniques. In the context of legal English and of ESP, in general, students need to put into practice the vocabulary and structures of their field or study and, because we, as teachers, are not experts in these areas, it is necessary to encourage students to work independently on issues connected to their topics and subjects. This may include computing and information gathering techniques, simulation exercises designed under the form of written projects which students have to orally present under the

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guidance of their language teacher and translations. Working on suitable topics, using the four linguistic skills closely monitored by their teacher and taking advantage of classroom interaction, should generate the production of authentic contributions.

The teacher must be utterly aware of the problems that such approach might create. When students are required to discuss in English about their own legal systems, we unavoidably determine them to translate into a foreign language. Although they are fluent and accurate in English and can engage, develop and sustain a conversation on a wide array of topics, it is very difficult for them to think in English about their own legal system. To be able to deal with topics on their own legislation, they must translate the term from their mother tongue into English. For example, I was working with first year law students on Contract Law, precisely on contract formation where we needed to define the term "consideration". It was rather challenging because the term doesn't have a proper translation for it in Romanian, so students had to find the best equivalent for this. This example points out that terminology translation is nevertheless necessary to avoid misunderstandings, confusions and communication failures.

The translation of legal terminology requires a lot of cognitive effort and cannot be reduced to simple equivalents in mother tongue. Cognitive linguists have investigated the particularities of legal terms explaining their complex organization and meanings. Concepts are correlated and embedded in different cultural and cognitive structures which are reflected into national legislation and case law. Legal terms may be seen as points of access to concepts and prompts for conceptual operations that activate relevant background knowledge (Biel, 2009). "A legal concept is an abstract general notion or idea which serves as a category of legal thought or classification, the title given to a set of facts and circumstances which satisfies certain legal requirements and has certain legal consequences. (Walker, 2001). Undoubtedly, the set of facts and the set of consequences are rarely identical in two legal systems. This does not apply to scientific fields where concepts are universal and equivalent in other language. The relationship between legal terms should be seen as an equivalence and not as one of similarity according to Tymockzo, 2005. Equivalence criterion is major when choosing the translation strategies.

Translation strategies fall into two categories as classified by Venuti: foreignising, source language oriented equivalents which evokes a sense of the foreign, and domesticating-target language oriented equivalents which facilitate comprehension through assimilation to TL culture. However, researchers do not unanimously agree on the best approach. Weston is in favour of TL oriented equivalence, being in his opinion the "ideal method of translation" (1991.23). To convey the meanings of the Romanian concepts in English is to have access to unfamiliar through familiar and "to use a term designating a concept or an institution of the target legal system having the same function as a particular concept of the source legal system." (Šarčević 1997, 236). In a TL oriented approach we need to take into consideration the target system.

The most important thing for a teacher is to facilitate the improvement of their students own linguistic performance and cultural awareness through a wide range of approaches and techniques. In the context of legal English and of ESP, in general, students need to put into practice the vocabulary and structures of their field or study and, because we, as teachers, are not experts in these areas, it is necessary to encourage students to work independently on issues connected to their topics and subjects. This may include computing and information gathering techniques, simulation exercises designed under the form of written projects which students have to orally present under the guidance of their language teacher and translations. Working on suitable topics, using the four linguistic skills closely monitored by their teacher and taking advantage of classroom interaction, should generate the production of authentic contributions.

There are some language skills and cultural particularities that cannot be ignored, especially when we deal with legal English. So, as law is considered to be an extremely precise and concise discipline,

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legal principles must be integrated and interpreted according to a specific legal system. If we overlook this aspect, translation problems may occur without being connected to language.

Based on the assumption that legal principles cannot be taught in English to non-native speakers directly, as a result of the problems aforementioned, we need to rely on alternative methods. Teachers should manage existing knowledge, constructing a solid foundation for ESP and guiding the learners to work autonomously to create a link between the goal of the learning language curriculum and pedagogical methods. Legal English resources are designed to cover the four skills, tailoring the activities to correspond to socio-cultural real life situations. So, the content and methods should be attentively adapted in such a manner that students can apply their skills of legal English in their domain.

Task-oriented activities increase confidence enabling them to express orally and literally in an international environment, such as conferences or international courtrooms. They also should be able to deal with legal texts for example treaties, directives, regulations or any type of legal documents. These activities should be doubled by traditional methods to create the very foundation and vocabulary for further language development. This part, covering legal terminology, is called "English support" which consists of complementary tasks and self-study projects. Students work independently during classes and at home, covering grammar, reading and extra grammar research. Learners tend to gain more confidence in legal English, thus stimulating class participation.

Most of the learners are not familiarized with the legal system of English spoken countries so any course in legal English should start with introductory texts on the history of the English law and the differences between a codified system as it is known in Western Europe and Latin America and Common Law in Anglophone countries. Producing speeches and writing compositions require an extraordinary control of the language which combines written and linguistic skills with the ability to formulate and develop idea using specialized terminology.

The aim of the language learning activities is to enable learners to meet the requirements of professional training and real-life activities. English, as any other language, has a great amount of vocabulary which learners need to acquire, because, otherwise, it is quite difficult for them to use English for reading, writing, listening and speaking. Spiri has pointed out the great importance of vocabulary acquisition for non-native English speakers considering to be "the most fundamental issue for second language acquisition" (Spiri, 2010).

Legal English has undoubtedly its specific features which distinguishes it from GE or other forms of ESP and teaching English for Law is a challenging but feasible task for a competent EFL teacher.

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Teaching Legal Contents and Terminology in Foreign Languages

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Abstract: In this presentation I am introducing a specific language program currently running at our faculty, which was launched simultaneously with the introduction of a new BA program named International Administration, where a strong legal and administrative background and a competitive knowledge of languages are of fundamental importance. I would like to highlight some of the questions that arose during the development of the curriculum and reflect on the methodology of teaching languages through topics such as human rights, multiculturalism, migration, public and international administration, international law and environmental legislation, to mention just a few.

Key words: legal language, content-based language teaching, interdisciplinary studies, involvement, delegation of tasks, motivation

1. INTRODUCTION

The aim of this paper is to present the development of a foreign language program, which proved to be highly successful at the Faculty of Law and Political Sciences of Pázmány Péter Catholic University of Budapest. The development of the program was made necessary when, a few years ago, a new BA course named 'International Administration and Management' was launched at the faculty, to be run simultaneously with the undivided 5-year training of law students.

While students of law are not officially required to study professional legal language (this seems to be the practice at every legal faculty in Hungary), graduate students of International Administration have to present at least one intermediate level professional language certificate and another one of a general language to be eligible for their degrees. Thus, it came naturally that a fairly high number of content-based language lessons should be incorporated in the syllabus of the new program.

These language lessons are built upon 4 main courses: Culture and Civilization, The Language of Administration and Management, International Communication and Negotiation Techniques. Besides these obligatory courses students are strongly encouraged to attend courses that are specifically designed to prepare them for the professional legal language examination (PROFEX), but as these courses are not part of the curriculum and have to be paid for, the above

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mentioned four courses were developed with the aim of providing the students with as much legal content as possible to make it easier for them to pass the not so easy legal language examination.

In the following sections I will first introduce the main ideas we were following and the aims we were trying to achieve while developing the new courses. Next, I would like to discuss some of the challenges that emerged during the actual educational phase and finally I would like to share some practical experience (in terms of methodology, material and sources) gained from the whole process and draw some general conclusions about teaching legal contents.

2. GENERAL AIMS OF THE PROGRAM

When planning the syllabus of a given course in language lessons for specific purposes, one of the most important issues is to define the proportion and the difficulty level of the professional contents to be taught as opposed to teaching the general language itself. In our case, as we are all language teachers working in the program, both aspects were equally important, while we were also aware of the importance of motivating the students. The main aim was to find topics that students will either be familiar with, or would be keen to learn about. Examining the core subjects of the curriculum, we matched the topics to the ones that students also took in their native language and selected the skills that had to be drilled and practiced to make the program as focused on communication as possible. As language teachers, we have the freedom of manipulating with the source material we use depending on our and the student's mood, we have the winning case of getting closer to students and build a friendly relationship with them, which will consequently facilitate better and easier communication. Once we have created a relaxed atmosphere, students will be ready to put in more energy and they are much more cooperative, actually capable of anything we ask from them unless our expectations are unrealistic.

By keeping the above in mind as well as taking into account the learning outcomes, the practical requirements and the characteristics of our students, finally a program was born, the modules of which are closely interrelated in terms of topics and skills. Let me illustrate this with a few examples: In the first year students start with studying the civilization of the given cultures. If their main language is English, they study the history of the USA, where the human rights movement plays an important role. In the following year they study international communication, where human rights (and their abuses) are a recurring issue of the sessions. In the third year they study negotiation techniques, where again they encounter the human rights movement, only this time from another perspective: analyzing Martin Luther King's famous speech. Similarly, they learn about the presidential elections in the United States, or the role England played in the 2nd World War. These topics will manifest in the international communication course under the title: 'political conflicts' and in the negotiation techniques course when analyzing the speeches of President Obama and Churchill. The fourth course, the language of administration serves as a base for the above mentioned three, as its first semester is focused on legal, business and public administration terminology and vocabulary building built upon topics like the European Union (where Churchill is referred to again as one of the

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visionaries foreseeing the ‘United States of Europe’), economic policies, international organizations and international law.

The problems of global warming, the environment and sustainable development also emerge in various contexts, as they are discussed first as global issues and phenomena, and later in the context of international law, where issues like climate agreements and protocols form the base of analysis, providing students with an insight into the toolkit of the international community in case of violations of international agreements. This topic covers the area of law (international protocols, EU directives), politics (the role of green parties, their support and the green lobby, the concept of wild law) and has proven to be extremely popular with students, as an issue present in their everyday lives. When it comes to the practice of negotiation skills or the simulation of a climate summit plenary, most of the arguments are life-like and debates can get very heated.

Topics like globalization, migration and multiculturalism are also fun both to teach and study as there are so many aspects to explore: geopolitical issues, religious conflict, economics, human rights, to mention just a few. Concepts of culture shock, ethnocentrism, xenophobia, assimilation and integration can be explained and discussed along the way.

The examples given above highlight the fact that given the commitment, enthusiasm and thorough preparation of the teachers, a language lesson can also provide students with significant professional contents, and even if these contents are not as deep as the ones mediated by the ‘real’ professionals of the area, they can still motivate the students to further explore and research the topics raised during the lessons. In any case, the discussions of these topics in the way described below will definitely deepen the knowledge and broaden the general perspective of students, enabling them to recognize causes and consequences more easily.

3. SOME OF THE CHALLENGES

When it comes to defining the level of the professional contents, it is not easy to set it right in the first instance and, what makes it even harder is the fact that the standard of the general education level and enthusiasm of the students is surprisingly fluctuating year by year. This requires continuous adaptation on the part of the teacher. Furthermore, so far we have not managed to find a solution for the heterogeneity of the groups we teach. While in general foreign language courses students are grouped according to entrance test results to ensure homogenous groups, in an ESP course it would be unfair to teach only half of the material to a group whose command of the language is not that strong, not to mention the examination requirements, which have to be the same for all students. From the point of view of methodology, groups with students of mixed abilities can also work well, strengthen peer solidarity and are definitely advantageous for weaker students. So here we aimed high and adjusted the requirements to the better students, expecting the same from everyone.

Another difficulty is a typical one and probably the biggest dilemma of LSP/ESP courses: how to be up-to-date and well-informed in topics and subjects which require expert knowledge and a strong professional background? This raises the question whether languages for specific purposes should be taught by professionals or teachers of general languages. The luckiest

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combination seems to be when the two attributes are combined in one person, but this happens fairly rarely. Let us examine the pros and cons of both cases. The table below reflects the feedback given by students asked randomly (and as such, cannot be considered representative):

TABLE I
general language teachers versus professionals

	Pro	Contra
General language teachers	have studied methodology usually more experience in teaching knowledge of several areas (by self-study)	lack of extensive expert knowledge
Professionals	are experts in their field	have not studied methodology want to teach only the profession and not the language

It seems from the table that there are more arguments for a subject to be taught by teachers of general languages than arguments against and that methodology plays a significant role. However, we also have to note that these are generalizations and there are exceptions from all cases, there are professionals who are also great teachers of LSP, and there are teachers of general languages who fail to meet the challenges of continuously updating their knowledge and researching the topic they teach.

Let me present a situation that might be familiar to teachers of languages for specific purposes: although students know that we are not professionals in a given area, they still expect us to explain things that are not quite clear to them: e.g. the difference between GDP and GNP if we teach business English and the difference between continental and common law systems if we teach legal English. We might tell students that we are not economists or lawyers, but this will not save us the expectation. We might say that we will look it up for the next lesson, but it will not save us from losing face. The more interactive a lesson is, the more unexpected issues might pop up that need explanation and in these cases professionals are at an advantage, as they surely have a more comprehensive knowledge.

Questions of hierarchy and authority which, in the area of law are even more pronounced than in other areas also pose a problem: some legal professionals not trained in methodology might find it hard to be “degraded” to the level of language teachers and cannot provide the less authoritarian, relaxed atmosphere required by a language course. They also tend to be too professional in their approach, by which the focus of the lessons is shifted to the direction of a plain legal course instead of building, practicing and strengthening vocabulary and special terminology. Let me stress again that these are just tendencies and there are legal professionals, who actually prefer teaching legal language to teaching law and who are great teachers loved by students.

In general, we can conclude that for a teacher of LSP it is a must to consult experts of the given field, as there are issues that cannot be learnt from books, studies or Wikipedia, and continuous preparation is also a necessity if we want to gain an overview of what it is exactly that we teach. Learning is the most effective when it is relevant and timely, consequently, making the most of our lessons requires lots of hard work. ESP teachers have to be at least as

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well-informed as professionals, and usually not just in one field, but in several ones, as most of us teach several types of courses.

4. METHODOLOGY

As I mentioned before, our courses are related to and built upon each other. The Language of Administration course provides a strong base for legal and administrative vocabulary building, the Civilization course introduces the given cultures from a culture-specific viewpoint, International Communication helps student better adapt to situations brought about by globalization and increased mobility of the workforce, while Negotiation Skills provides the synthesis of the other three, by ‘forcing’ students into lifelike situations, testing and measuring the extent to which they have acquired the professional contents and competences by the practice of presentation, argumentation and negotiation techniques, problem-solving skills and simulations. If they successfully fulfilled the requirements of the other three courses, by this stage they must have reached the level where they are able to communicate with an assertiveness that evokes the feeling of satisfaction.

This interrelation entails the harmonization of the material by continuous cooperation between teachers. However, peer learning is also encouraged: we heavily rely on students to take their part from the work and delegate a great deal of the work to be done: one example to illustrate this is that we expect students to prepare an electronic data-base of terminology in the given areas. By working on this task both their individual and collective abilities are tested. They constantly control each other and the outcome is a huge database, which can be further developed for future use. Project work has a great role both during and outside the lessons, home assignments being a prerequisite of work done during lessons.

Legal English is traditionally considered as dry and boring, but having spent a few years teaching it one can easily come to the conclusion that it is everything but boring: if we manage to find or develop an activity, suggest a group discussion, analyze case studies or just show a short film or documentary that deals with topical questions, each lesson can be structured in a way that fun and serious work alternate in a healthy fashion. Students really appreciate our efforts and work hard in return for them. Taking the words of Confucius as our motto:

“Tell me, and I will forget. Show me, and I may remember. Involve me, and I will understand.”

There are several ways to involve the students: by workshop-style, interactive lessons, by assigning project work to be done both individually and in teams, by encouraging them to keep in touch and discuss professional issues even outside the school, by delegating most of the tasks, in which case monitoring and feedback on the students’ activities are absolutely necessary. We must also acknowledge and accept the fact that there will always be students who are hot on an issue and might know things we haven’t even heard about, in which case the best strategy is to ask them to present and share their knowledge – this is useful for all the players, teacher and students alike.

Involving the students to a great extent has proved to be one of the best ideas: we actually managed to get an insight into segments of professional life from their points of view (forums,

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films, blogs media sources involved), which might have remained taboo for us teachers, had we not considered and handled the students as partners in a common project.

5. SOURCES AND MATERIALS

Finally, I would like to share some experience regarding the teaching material for languages for specific purposes. In most cases these purposes suggested by the name are in fact so specific that there is technically no single best book available for a course, and so - although there is an abundance of books, it is practically impossible to demand that students buy more than one or two different books for one single course – most teachers teaching professional languages develop the material they use by themselves. Even if there are financial sources available to cover the publication of such course materials, the nature of the topic requires that the most up-to-date material is used, consequently, hard copies become obsolete fast. As the material of topics related to law and public administration is subject to constant changes, the best possible source to be relied on is the internet, which provides us with the specific websites of international and civil organizations, ministries, courts and other government institutions. While practically everything is downloadable from the internet, it is imperative that the authenticity of the sources is double-checked to avoid ambiguities.

To make the above more concrete I have collected some of the ideas, tasks and materials that have become success stories in our practice and I have prepared a list of our favorite websites (see separately), which I am ready to share at the workshop session:

- discussion on wild law (*The concept of Wild Law proposes that we rethink our legal and political systems to stop environmental destruction. Wild Law is a new system of legal thinking and practice which has the potential to turn the tide of environmental damage and enable new means of addressing the significant challenges we face.*)
- debate on capital punishment (*area: legal language - lots of diagrams, charts and tables available to use as aids to provoke ideas*)
- analysis of flowcharts and other diagrams for the study of the legislative procedure, the comparison of the criminal and the civil procedure, the analysis of trends in crime-rates (*area: legal language*)
- debate on the media law of Hungary (*area: legal language, conflict of interests between the EU and member states, texts of the related legal documents are all available in English, plus the correspondence between the European Commission and the Hungarian Ministry of Public Administration and Justice*)
- debate on the new Constitution of Hungary (*area: legal vocabulary – this topic, together with the previous one is a country-specific one, however, each state has its similar controversial issues, which can be utilized in these tasks*)
- discussion and study of the institutions of the EU (*area: EU – the Europa website, especially the website of the European Parliament has an enormous database of short educational films about all the aspects of EU issues, institutions, treaties, policies, etc.*)

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- comparative analysis of the local government systems of different countries (*area: public administration - project work in groups or individually*)
- case studies of cases before the European Court of Justice (*area: EU, court systems, legal language*)
- employment law cases (*area: law*)
- mootings (*area: law*)
- case studies for international communication (*area: international communication: cultural blunders; negotiation techniques: differences between body-language signs*)
- analysis and comparison of the election system of different countries (*activity for an election campaign simulation*)
- analysis of the speeches of politicians and other public figures (*area: negotiation techniques, public speeches - reinforcement of the learnt vocabulary by selecting and adjusting the speech to the area covered, e.g. human rights, election campaign speeches, etc.. Huge speech banks available.*)
- watching and analyzing documentaries (*area: EU history, negotiation*)
- watching short extracts from films showing court trials where the hero is a lawyer (*area: law*)
- discussion of economic issues as raised by the thought-provoking Canadian documentary film: *The Corporation* (*area: business and legal vocabulary*)
- debate on women's rights (*area: law and human rights – activities on the women's liberation movement and speeches on women's rights*)
- analysis of legal documents (*area: law – all types of legal documents are available on the internet*)
- setting up a business (*area: business and law, good for the practice of company forms, the business plan, SWOT analysis*)
- role play exercises (*area: any*)
- practice of written skills (*area: these tasks can be adjusted to practically all areas*)

6. CONCLUSION

The courses I have tried to introduce above are actually loved by our students as can be seen from the feedback we are given. To have achieved this, a careful selection and harmonization of the topics, materials and the constant pooling of ideas from the part of the participating teachers has been crucial.

Teaching legal language to students of law as a non-lawyer is a highly challenging task. First you think you can handle it all and then you realize you need to take a dictionary to each lesson. But being able to teach legal language is also an enormous asset: the hard work you have put into it will return and already after the first year of teaching it you begin to understand the

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system and the special mentality you need for this kind of language if you want to use it effectively. You realize that as opposed to what you believed when you first started to teach it, it is in fact logical and can even be loved. Once you love it, students will love it too.

Overcoming the Challenges of Legal English Teaching

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Abstract: This paper is concerned with distinctiveness and complexity of Legal English course and the challenges Legal English teachers face in practice. Taking into account that Legal English is predominantly the language of international legal practice today, it comes as no surprise that teachers often feel insecure and pressured by the demands of such an ambitious course. From the perspective of a non-native English teacher engaged in Legal English teaching to second language learners, author offers the insight into wide range of teacher's responsibilities, such as: syllabus designing, mastering of the specific teaching strategies, selection and adaptation of the available teaching materials, need analysis, etc. Challenges such as dealing with peculiarities of legal terminology and sentence structure, as well as managing the cultural aspect of teaching, which often requires the specific approach in teaching students about the differences between English legal system and legal system in the students' country, can be discouraging for teachers who had no training in this area of knowledge. However, there are certain solutions that can help improve teachers' knowledge and skills in Legal English teaching, and help them create more productive and creative atmosphere in the classroom.

Key words: Legal English, teaching, challenges, solutions

1. INTRODUCTION

In the era of globalisation and European integration, foreign language teaching becomes more challenged to reach certain standards of contemporary teaching, which include perfecting students' communication skills, following the trends regarding vocabulary teaching strategies and implementing modern teaching methods which would make the process of learning slightly more interesting to the students. When it comes to English for Specific Purposes (ESP), which is focused on specialised occupational area of knowledge and is characterised by specific terminology (which is in contrast to General English¹ vocabulary), and in addition has purpose-related orientation, it is clear why ESP courses are considered to be one of the most demanding courses of today's language teaching practice. A great development in ESP teaching methodology has been made since 1960's and 1970's, when teaching of the vocabulary of a

¹ The term *General English* is used in this paper in reference to everyday English and standard English teaching practice, in contrast to ESP and its specific teaching practice.

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subject field was considered to be the main job of the ESP teacher (Ciobanu 2009). However, every progress comes with multiple responsibilities, and ESP and its various English courses aimed at specific disciplines, such as Legal English, Business English, English for Medical Purposes, English for Economy, English for Management, and many more, are no exception.

ESP course and methodology development are the direct responsibility of the teacher, who is considered to be a course designer, materials provider, as well as the curriculum developer (Gatehouse 2001). Even though teachers of almost every ESP course face the similar problems concerning specific teaching methods, peculiar terminology and lack or inappropriateness of teaching materials, this paper focuses specifically on the challenges Legal English teachers face as the practitioners in the ESP world and on possible solutions to the existing problems that impede further development and comprehension of such a specific course. In order to be able to properly disclose the challenges related to Legal English teaching and strategies for overcoming them, it is necessary to first define Legal English and to analyse some of the main characteristics of this course.

2. CHARACTERISTICS OF LEGAL ENGLISH

Legal English (also known as English for Law and English for Legal Purposes) is mainly used by legal professionals, lawyers, judges, barristers, legal advisors, etc. (Badea 2012). Due to the fact that English is predominantly the language of international legal practice today (ibid.), it comes as no surprise that Legal English is now attracting more interest for the purpose of both exchanging legal experience through international legal practice, and education in this area of knowledge. Legal English, characterised by the peculiarities of its vocabulary and sentence structure, is considered to be challenging even for the native speakers of English language (Lojko 2011), therefore it is not surprising to learn that non-native teachers and students of Legal English face even more difficulties for many additional reasons, which will be discussed in the next chapter. In order to understand the distinctiveness and complexity of Legal English, it is necessary to review the nature of its vocabulary, form and style.

2.1 Vocabulary

Legal English vocabulary is so peculiar that it is confusing even to the law experts and native English speakers. According to David Mellinkoff (1963), Legal English includes Latin, French, Anglo-Saxon, Old and Middle English words and phrases, which are very often difficult to comprehend. For instance, words like *custody*, *testimony*, *homicide* originate from Latin, *deed* and *thief* originate from Old English, while *burglar* and *act* originate from Old French. Legal English also includes countless synonyms used together which can be incomprehensible for students or teachers who are not experts in law. Some of these synonyms are *aid and abet*, *cease and desist*, *null and void* (French-Latin), as well as *have and hold*, *by and with*, *each and every* (Old English) (Lojko 2011). In addition, Legal English is full of archaisms, obscure words, Latin abbreviations and regular, everyday English words, which have completely different meaning in legal context. Many original Latin expressions such as *id est* (that is), *exempli gratia* (for

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example), *et alii* (and others), *versus* (against), *et cetera* (and other things of the same kind), *videlicet* (as follows), *inter alia* (among other things), and many others are still inevitable part of legal documents. Common use of abbreviations of these Latin expressions in legal texts, such as *i.e.*, *e.g.*, *et al.*, *vs.*, *etc.*, *viz.* and many others, instead of full expressions, are what makes the entire comprehension process even more demanding for students (and many teachers) who face these types of formal texts for the first time.

2.2 Form

The structure of Legal English is much different than the structure of General English used in everyday speech. When it comes to the question of form, one of the major characteristics of Legal English is the use of very long and complex sentences with syntactic discontinuities. This specific sentence structure is caused by the fact that in the past every part of a legal document used to consist of one single sentence, which included a considerable amount of information. This type of intricate formulation of language, accompanied by sparse punctuation, significantly impedes comprehension of the legal content and understanding of the given context. The absence of punctuation is an important aspect of legal drafting, based on the belief of legal practitioners that punctuation is unimportant in comparison to words, although nowadays, in modern legal drafting lawyers tend to use punctuation regularly in order to avoid ambiguity in meaning. Furthermore, the elements that additionally complicate the understanding of Legal English are certain formulaic expressions, which are common in Legal English. The examples of such expressions are “*I, _____, of _____ being of sound and disposing mind, do hereby make, publish and declare the following to be my Last Will and Testament...*” or “*Do you swear to tell the truth, the whole truth, and nothing but the truth?*” In terms of language form, it is inevitable to mention unusual word order which is typical for legal drafting, which, again, can appear very confusing and discouraging to students, since it seems that previously acquired knowledge of English language cannot really help in learning of Legal English.

2.3 Style

In both written and spoken Legal English, styles of expression vary depending on the situation in which the language is used. Written Legal English style is very formal and conservative, since legal texts consist of law reports, wills, contracts, constitutions, etc., whereas spoken Legal English is considered to have more freedom and creativity, especially when it comes to lawyer’s addressing to the jury (Stanojevic 2011). Proper use of legal styles of expression requires a complete new level of communicative competence, for the reason that this kind of formal expression is considerably different than the style of expression used in General English or in student’s native everyday language. Some of the main characteristics of Legal English style are the widespread use of passive voice in the sentences and use of impersonal style (*everyone, person, one*). Also, frequent usage of phrasal verbs (*serve upon, write off, enter into*) and constant (and needless) repetition of particular words and phrases are inevitable features of legal style of expression.

3. THE MOST CHALLENGING TASKS IN LEGAL ENGLISH TEACHING

After reviewing some of the main characteristics of Legal English, the conclusion is that “legal drafters have created an artificial language that is incomprehensible for ordinary people” (ibid. 66) and that it is teacher’s role to try to handle this specific area of expertise and to facilitate learning for students as much as possible. ESP teacher, in this specific case Legal English teacher, is expected to be a researcher, course designer, evaluator, collaborator and materials provider, and all these roles carry different challenges in Legal English teaching. Moreover, a course such as Legal English carries a lot of different responsibilities, since legal language is directly and inseparably bound to the certain legal system in question (De Groot 1998). In the following sections of the paper some of the most common challenges of Legal English teaching will be reviewed, both from the literature and from the personal experience of the author.

3.1. Cultural aspect of Legal English teaching

Cultural aspect of teaching is probably the most challenging part of Legal English teaching, since it involves teaching about legal language as related to certain legal systems, and legal systems differ from one state to another, in the same manner their cultures do. Inevitably, teacher is expected to be familiar with different legal systems, such as the legal system in Britain, as compared to the legal system in USA, for instance. Of course, teacher must bear in mind that students may or may not be familiar with the legal system in their own country, which is why the main focus of teaching Legal English should be on relating country-specific authentic materials to students’ own jurisdiction (Mishchenko 2010). Teachers are expected to be researchers and to present their students with facts, since learning of legal language must have legal context (Levi 1994) in order to be understandable. Teaching students about other culture and other legal systems is not always a comfortable task for the teacher, since there is a considerable amount of facts to be covered and it is not always simple to present it in a tolerance oriented cultural context. This specific task is especially demanding, since Legal English teachers are mainly teachers of General English, and usually they have no previous knowledge of legal issues and regulations. This specific lack of knowledge can be discouraging for teachers who, as a result, start feeling lack of confidence about their teaching abilities (Anthony 2007), which strongly affects Legal English classes and students’ performance in this area.

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3.2. Vocabulary issues

After elaborating on characteristics of the Legal English vocabulary in the previous chapter, it may appear that there is not much to add to the obvious problems of peculiarity of vocabulary and the problem of foreign words, archaisms, synonyms, abbreviations etc. However, some additional vocabulary issues often arise in teaching Legal English. One of the most frequent vocabulary related challenge appears during teaching about different legal systems. It is well known that every state, and sometimes even regions within a state, develops independent legal terminologies (Kocbek 2008) to be used within their legal system, meaning that just when teachers think they have perfected their vocabulary skills related to, for instance, British legal system and legal system in students' country, the problem of completely new terminology arises when the teaching materials offer certain legal texts related to American legal system. This is the issue that every Legal English teacher should bear in mind in order to be able to research the subject matter properly. Another challenge related to the legal vocabulary appears when it comes to translating Legal English terminology to the students' native language. A common situation is that some words and expressions used in Legal English do not have proper equivalents in students' native language because of the differences in legal systems, which makes teacher's job even more difficult, since it is very complicated to create a proper legal context in a classroom while teaching something that students see as being completely abstract.

3.3. The lack or inappropriateness of teaching materials and reference materials, need analysis and syllabus designing

The entire field of ESP is facing the problem of inadequate teaching materials, or even the lack of them, and Legal English is, unfortunately, no exception. Teachers are, again, expected to produce a course that matches the needs of students, but with very little preparation time available to them. Teachers are the only persons responsible for developing the curriculum of such a demanding course, and yet, they constantly lack the skills, the time, and the support to do everything they are expected to. Without any curriculum guidelines and proper teaching materials it is extremely difficult to design a syllabus which will meet students' needs.

Teachers of Legal English are constantly facing the problem of lack of teaching materials or inappropriateness of teaching materials that need additional adapting. In order to adapt available teaching materials it is necessary for teachers to analyse the students' needs and to develop an appropriate syllabus in accordance with available materials and course objectives. Lack of appropriate teaching materials (including dictionaries) can cause a lot of difficulties in Legal English teaching practice. There is a shortage of legal dictionaries that translate other languages in Europe as well, and even though the enlargement of the European Union in 2004 has multiplied the number of legal languages in the use in the EU, only 15 percent of the needed dictionaries meet the needs of Legal English (Laer and Laer 2006). There is not much referencing material available in the form of teaching materials and textbooks for Legal English for English second language learners either. In particular, one of the main issue regarding teaching materials is the fact that most of the available teaching material is designed for native

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English speakers. This causes problems to teachers, who now not only try to raise students' competence level in both language comprehension and legal matters, but do their best to investigate Legal English and legal systems in order to properly translate terminology in available teaching materials.

Another common problem related to teaching materials is that Legal English teaching materials are mostly designed to focus only on vocabulary, without review on legal written or spoken style of expression. Obviously, legal vocabulary does take a lot of effort in class, however, legal teaching practice must emphasise the importance of legal expression as well, as it is important part of the Legal English. In addition, some of the teaching materials that cover the question of legal expression only focus on covering aspects of written Legal English, which is also not satisfying enough, since spoken Legal English differs from written legal English, as mentioned in previous chapter.

One of the main issues in legal English teaching is the fact that almost every Legal English teaching material is designed specifically for law students and their needs. Although it may seem unusual to expect that any other professional would need to learn Legal English language, there is an example of language students who have no experience in law, but need to perfect legal language in order to work as translators of legal documents and court interpreters in future. Unfortunately, profiles of students who are not studying Law are being completely neglected when it comes to their needs, and teaching materials are still focused on syllabus that matches Law students' needs.

Even though teachers of General English prefer and recommend using English-English dictionary throughout the process of learning, in Legal English teaching practice using teaching material that only consists of monolingual dictionaries is not an option. Closely related to previously mentioned problem of terminology translation and comprehension of concepts, the problem of monolingual dictionaries deeply affects teacher's skills and teaching practice by burdening him with additional work.

In reference to the previously mentioned problem regarding teaching material, additional problems are teaching materials which are not accompanied by Teacher's book. Teacher's book should be included in practice of every ESP course, especially in course such as Legal English, since it contains different ideas for the organisation of the class, as well as plenty of additional information for the teacher. Unfortunately, rare teaching materials which include Teacher's book are often unavailable to many users and hard to find.

All these problems are challenging for the teacher who needs to try to collect available teaching material, do the research, design a course, and develop materials in order to satisfy students' need and course objective, which can be very time consuming and stressful.

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4. POSSIBLE SOLUTIONS

When it comes to possible solutions to the numerous issues and challenges which arise during the teaching of Legal English, there are few constructive ideas. First, since there are not a lot of teaching materials out there waiting for Legal English teachers and students to collect them and get enlightened by knowledge, different strategies can be carried out in order to organise Legal English course better and to provide students with necessary knowledge.

Most of the teaching materials are written by legal experts, lawyers, judges, who are experts in the area of law, but not in the area of language. This is why teachers should try to educate themselves more and become more familiar with the legal content and context, while at the same time they can be experts in English language, which is their main occupation. However, this may appear simple, but it is not always obtainable. This is why most countries solved this problem by introducing collaboration between English teachers and Legal experts in Legal English teaching practice (Duddley-Evans 1998). On the other hand, this type of collaboration has not proven to be a success, since different objectives set by a teacher and law expert are often confusing for the student, or teacher does not do the research enough, which leads to the domination of legal expert over the teacher.

In the Legal English classroom where teacher teaches Law students, it often happens that students show more knowledge related to the legal concepts than the teacher himself, whose area of expertise is English language, and not Law. This is why some authors recommend teachers to show that they are ready to learn something new from their students as one of the possible solutions to some of the teacher's difficulties. In addition, benefit shall be mutual – students will practice their communicative skills, and teacher will expand his knowledge and create better working atmosphere (Robinson 2009). By declaring himself as a teacher who is still learning, the teacher boosts up students' confidence, which also contributes to the more productive working atmosphere than in the classroom where a teacher is considered to be the one who knows everything (Anthony 2007).

Another useful tool in facilitating Legal English teaching is internet and its database, which sometimes can be appropriate for finding some reference materials which can be used as an additional material in teaching. Furthermore, teachers should be encouraged to participate in different conferences in order to share their experiences with other ESP teachers and to solve some of their commonest problems through workshops. These meetings, networking and debates may result in collaboration of teachers who have similar problems and they may eventually do something together to contribute to the Legal English teaching practice, such as developing of the new teaching materials and designing dictionaries for non-native students of English.

5. CONCLUSION

At first instance, solutions to these numerous problems and challenges may seem rather simple to apply. However, the situation in the field of Legal English is much more complicated than it appears. It is almost unimaginable to have teaching material issues or insufficient teacher training in Legal English in the twenty first century, the age when cultures and languages are mixing more than ever and borders are practically invisible. It is of great importance to understand that there is growing demand for non-native speakers of English in the law profession to improve their linguistic skills in order to live up to certain expectations in an international legal context (Liebenberg 2007), and this is why Legal English courses and their purpose should be taken thoughtfully. If the ESP community continues to grow and expand in the future, and it certainly shows signs of it, it is extremely important that the community understand what ESP actually represents. Overwhelming responsibilities and challenges ESP teachers experience on a daily basis go hand-in-hand with all ESP courses, and especially with the course of Legal English. From the optimistic point of view, the future will bring new solutions and new perspectives on the subject matter, and hopefully this paper will be a modest contribution to the future developments of Legal English courses.

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Legal English: an opportunity for an additional qualification among ESP courses

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Abstract: There is no doubt that the area of law in most countries of the world, especially the ones aspiring to membership in the European Union, is following the trend of an increasing internationalisation. More employees with a secure command of the English legal language may expect to have a distinct competitive advantage over those with little or no knowledge of the trade specific knowledge of Legal English. Accordingly, a course in Legal English will have to provide a high-level certificated English language qualification guaranteeing specific legal English capabilities to prospective employers or education providers. Only a structured and well-planned course will provide reliable proof of legal English skills, regardless of the potential purpose of the candidates signing up for a course. The reasons for studying Legal English may be varied, ranging from studying law in a foreign country, working in a multinational corporation to developing a legal career in an international context. A course in Legal English must be based on the premises that it enables the ability to understand spoken and written English within the context of law. Therefore, it should be organised in such a way that it enables practice and application in a number of realistic contexts, such as discussions of legal matters, law lectures, client interviews and negotiations, as well as written texts, including contract clauses, corporate documentation, commercial statutes and legal opinions. Obviously, such broad knowledge acquired from a language course, even without formal education in the area of law, elevates even the most proficient English language speaker to an entirely new level of knowledge. This article is aimed at proposing the basic premises of a Legal English course.

Key words: Legal English, ESP, additional qualification, law

1. INTRODUCTION

A historical review of the origin of legal English will show that the practice of expressing legal concepts in the English language did not start prior to the second half of XV century (Woodbine 1943). There is evidence that English was spoken by the majority of people in England at that time already. Yet, legal concepts were expressed in French (Emerson 1935). For instance, the Statute of Pleading (1362) was enacted in French although its primary purpose was to establish the practice of conducting all legal proceedings in English whereas the records should be in Latin. It is probably due to the introduction of the language of the common folk attending procedures that many words from Latin and French were adopted among them while sitting in the courtroom and vice versa, language as spoken by the commons was introduced in the writings as well. Based on the many influences, the formal legal language as it is nowadays known has developed into a combination of words from French, Latin and English. A quite striking example is the following, rather standard, force majeure clause¹:

¹ A striking fact is that the title of this clause is in French *force majeure*. It refers to circumstances that are beyond human influence and as such could influence the performance of a contractual obligation leading thus to involuntary breach of contract.

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“Neither party shall be liable to the other for failure to perform or delay in the performance of its obligations caused by any circumstances beyond its reasonable control.”

This clause contains a total of 28 words, of which 17 are Old English (mainly articles, prepositions and grammatical words), whereas the remaining 11 lexical words are Old French or Latin (party, liable, failure, perform, performance, delay, obligation, cause, circumstance, reasonable, control). Furthermore, different kinds of legal documents in English were adopted at different times and for different purposes. For instance, wills were written in English after 1400, statutes were written in French until 1485 and only after 1489 was the practice of writing legal documents in English a rather regular practice.

During the next two centuries, a slow transition from French and Latin dominated legalese in the English courts and led to the end of the foreign language domination. In 1731 a new English-for-lawyers law was passed (Mellinkoff 1963). However, by the time it was to come into effect (1733), it had been modified to suit the customary legal practice in terms of technical words (*ibid.*). Until the present day, French and Latin have not been rooted out; on the contrary, they are present in modern Legal English but in an adapted form following the standards of the pronunciation and orthography of the modern English language.

In the context of study and formal courses, Legal English was initially designed for non-native speakers of English who would attend a study programme at some law school or university in an English-speaking country. These courses were basically focusing on the use of the English language within a legal context. In other words, these were language classes with emphasis on the legal profession. The establishment of English for the specific purpose of law (ESP for law) came into being only in the second half of XX century. An interesting fact about the birth of ESP² in general is that it was not a planned and coherent movement. At least there is no evidence to substantiate this fact. It should rather be described as a phenomenon that grew out of several converging trends present in the international context of law, politics and diplomacy. What is most important is that the ESP approach requires a willingness on the part of the language educator to familiarize with academic and occupational areas that may be completely unknown. In other words, the language instructor in a particular ESP area will need to develop a close-to-expert level of knowledge in the particular area of ESP they are teaching in order to be able to design a proper course based on the exact extent to which the purposes of the particular target discourse community are to be taught (Belcher, 2006). Since this matter is recognized as a separate problem, it shall be elaborated further in the next section.

2. LEGAL ENGLISH IN AN INTERNATIONAL CONTEXT

It can be said that as early as in the 1960's, English as a foreign language (EFL) started branding. Slowly, a new area within EFL teaching was recognized – the area of English for Specific Purposes (ESP). During the second half of XX century, ESP grew to become one of the most prominent areas of EFL teaching today. Providing language instruction that addresses specific language learning purposes is what those who take an English for Specific Purposes (ESP) approach see as distinguishing it from other approaches to English Language Teaching (ELT) (Hyland 2002). That is why more and more

² It has to be noted that the specific-purposes approach is not exclusive to the teaching of English; it can be used to teach any language. Therefore, the term Language for Specific Purposes (LSP) also exists. Since this article focuses on the teaching of English, the term ESP will be used throughout.

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universities are now offering ESP courses covering particular fields of knowledge, such as Business English, Legal English, English for Medicine, Tourism, Journalism, etc. A well-established international journal dedicated to ESP discussion, "English for Specific Purposes: An international journal", and the ESP SIG groups of the IATEFL and TESOL are also known for their directed and purposeful dedication to ESP.

The attempt of defining ESP in general would have to rely on Hutchinson, who states that "ESP is an approach to language teaching in which all decisions as to content and method are based on the learner's reason for learning" (Hutchinson 1987). In a more detailed attempt, Dudley-Evans (1998) provided an extended definition of ESP in terms of 'absolute' and 'variable' characteristics pointing out the following:

“Absolute Characteristics

1. ESP is defined to meet specific needs of the learners;
2. ESP makes use of underlying methodology and activities of the discipline it serves;
3. ESP is centered on the language appropriate to these activities in terms of grammar, lexis, register, study skills, discourse and genre.

Variable Characteristics

1. ESP may be related to or designed for specific disciplines;
2. ESP may use, in specific teaching situations, a different methodology from that of General English;
3. ESP is likely to be designed for adult learners, either at a tertiary level institution or in a professional work situation. It could, however, be for learners at secondary school level;
4. ESP is generally designed for intermediate or advanced students;
5. Most ESP courses assume some basic knowledge of the language systems.”

(Dudley-Evans 1998)

Obviously, the division of ESP into absolute and variable characteristics is very helpful as it is clear that ESP is not necessarily concerned with a specific discipline, nor does it have to be aimed at a certain age group or ability range. ESP should be seen simply as an 'approach' to teaching, or what Dudley-Evans describes as an 'attitude of mind' (ibid.). If seen as a particularly designed approach, the planning, design and preparation of a particular ESP course will be much easier as all necessary content, aims and objectives may be put into the framework of the particularly designed approach.

There is no doubt that the area of law in many countries of the world, especially the ones aspiring to membership in the European Union, is following the trend of an increasing internationalisation. More employees with a secure command of the English legal language may expect to have a distinct competitive advantage over those with little or no knowledge of the trade specific knowledge of Legal English. Therefore, the area of Legal English has established its important place within ESP. That is why it is being developed by practitioners working on systematically structured courses to suit the needs law practitioners aspiring to work in an international context might have.

However, a new tendency has been developing within ESP – the development of Legal English as part of English language departments. This tendency is rather new and students might not opt for it gladly as it would imply studying not only language but the content of law as well. Yet, the importance of

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such a course is obvious as it will prepare students of English for the position of translators and interpreters in the area of law. This is undoubtedly a trade not so common nowadays as most interpreters practicing in the modern courtrooms have had to acquire their knowledge of the law while moving ahead in their profession.

Therefore, Legal English may be observed at tertiary level from two points of view:

- a) A course for law students or legal practitioners studying Legal English in order to prepare for work in the international context; and
- b) A course for English language students studying Legal English in order to prepare for the position of translators and interpreters in the international context.

Each, either or both will have to be planned, designed and structured in more or less the same way – with strong emphasis on both language and law. In other words, a student studying Legal English will be provided necessary competences, skills and knowledge to use the English language on a high level of proficiency in the context of the practice of law. Such a course may be planned at the level of secondary education already, but the most beneficial outcomes will probably be achieved at tertiary level. Since a more detailed description of Legal English at tertiary level should be provided in order to justify the dual aspect of such a course, the points provided in the next section are an attempt at shedding more light on the particulars of Legal English as an ESP course.

3. LEGAL ENGLISH AT TERTIARY LEVEL

A course in Legal English will have to provide a high-level certificated English language qualification guaranteeing specific legal English capabilities to prospective employers or education providers. A structured and well-planned course will provide reliable proof of legal English skills, regardless of the potential purpose of the candidates signing up for a course.

The reasons for studying Legal English may be varied, ranging from studying law in a foreign country, working in a multinational corporation to translating and interpreting within the judicature in an international context. That is why a course in Legal English must be based on the premises that it enables the ability to understand spoken and written English within the context of law. Therefore, it should be organised in such a way that it enables practice and application in a number of realistic contexts, such as discussions of legal matters, law lectures, client interviews and negotiations, as well as written texts, including contract clauses, corporate documentation, commercial statutes and legal opinions.

3.1. Aims, objectives and outcomes

The basic aim of any Legal English course is to teach students the structure and system of law based on a particular set of legal terminology, register and style as well as to enable them to identify and work with the meanings and structures within particular national systems when intersecting in an international context or the international legal system as a whole. Students are to develop language competences for the purpose of reading, writing, speaking and, if necessary, translating in the context of the international law. In particular, students of Legal English should familiarize with separate areas of law quite common in an international context. These areas include different aspects and areas of the law, ranging from criminal procedures, contractual relationships, property issues, intellectual property infringement to incorporation of companies in a foreign country. In accordance with the particular

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aims, the objectives of a well-structured course in Legal English should follow the pattern of necessity and applicability in an international context.

Regardless of whether the course is meant for students of law preparing for the practice of law within an international context or for students of English who study Legal English as an ESP course within the framework of their study of English, the objectives of a course in Legal English should be categorized based on the particular areas of law recognizable within most legal systems in the US and the EU environment. Therefore, the basic topics to be covered in a Legal English course would probably have to include the following:

1. Comparison of the legal terminology occurring in the legal system of the United Kingdom (UK) as opposed to the system in the United States of America (US) (as a foundation for the understanding of international law) in comparison to the terminology used in the native culture of the student.
2. Comparison of the legal systems in the world: common law vs. civil law.
3. Types of laws, regulations, ordinances, bills, etc.
4. Incorporation of companies and accompanying procedures, documents, regulations, etc.
5. Contract law, contractual obligations, types of clauses, etc.
6. Employment law, employment rights, unfair dismissals, tribunals, etc.
7. Property law.
8. Intellectual property, patents, copyright, trademarks, etc.
9. Debtor – creditor, secured transactions, etc.
10. Competition law.

The presented list of topics determines both the objectives and the outcomes of a course in Legal English as it clearly identifies not only the key areas to be covered by a successful course but also the terminology to be targeted in the course. Students will proceed gradually, acquire the necessary legal concepts within each topic, learn how to express their own thoughts and ideas based on the particular register and style related to each of the defined topics and, last but not least, have a clear understanding of the procedures within the context of practical application of the topics and concepts. The next aspect of a successful Legal English course would be to design an appropriate structure for the course. In other words, the course would have to be based on a clear, logical and comprehensive outline providing a step-by-step procedure in achieving the planned objectives and outcomes.

3.2. Structure and content

Obviously, the suggested topics are rather elaborate; therefore, it should be assumed that a successfully conducted course in Legal English would take some time and volume. It is difficult to determine how long students should study a Legal English course as it would depend on the time they have at their disposal. Given that the ideas in this article refer to the context of tertiary education and that they are directed at students of law and/ or English language, an optimal length would be four semesters based on a syllabus to be realized within a scope of four classes a week. This structure is proposed as it has been proven in practice that language courses are best realized on this 4 x 4 base. Furthermore, if there are ten topics to be covered, a curriculum based on the 4 x 4 basis can easily be planned and conducted as there will be enough time for lecturing, practising, testing and assessing as the course proceeds.

Based on the proposed topics and general outline of a course in Legal English, careful thought should be given to the more detailed structure and content. A successful course nowadays must include all

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language skills and help students not only develop them but also practise them sufficiently so as to be able to deploy each and all of them in their work once they complete their studies. For that purpose, all the classes in a Legal English course should include reading, writing and speaking exercises. Furthermore, project-based learning should be incorporated throughout the course so as to provide ample opportunity to the students to practice what they learn in situations close to real-life circumstances. A wonderful way to practise would be by means of trial simulations, role-plays, task-based problem solving, etc.

A more detailed outline of content for a Legal English course might be based on the following premises:

1. The vocabulary should be introduced and practised within authentic texts, or texts written to present concepts related to a certain topic.

The following example is an illustration of how important vocabulary related to the incorporation of a company can be presented within a text:

A company is formed when a **certificate of incorporation** is issued by the appropriate governmental authority. A certificate of incorporation is issued when the constitutional documents of the company, together with **statutory forms**, have been filed and a filing fee has been paid. The 'constitution' of a company consists of two documents. One, the **memorandum of association**, states the objects of the company and the details of its authorised capital, otherwise known as the **nominal capital**. The second document, the **articles of association**, contains provisions for the internal management of the company, for example shareholders' **annual general meetings**, or AGMs, and **extraordinary general meetings**, the **board of directors**, corporate contracts and loans. (Crois-Linder 2010 p. 20)

The bolded terms should be presented to students as crucial. The students should be encouraged to write sample sentences of their own representing the meaning of a term within a context they can easily refer to.

e.g.: The articles of association state the most important facts about a company that is to be incorporated, such as business name, intent and purpose, office address, the structure (shareholders, partnership, etc.) and ownership, leadership, etc.

By means of references like these, the student can relate the concept of articles of association to the particular notion of a document as well as its more detailed content.

2. The teacher should try, as much as possible, to relate the concepts presented in the international legal system to the respective legal system of the native culture the learners come from.

Most concepts presented in the context of international law may be related to a more precise concept in the legal system of the native culture of the student. In that case, the teacher should try to come up with a relevant illustration and thus help the student internalize not only the meaning and the reference but the concept of a particular term as well.

e.g.: Comparison of the meaning of a bankruptcy procedure in the USA and Serbia

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The law in the USA, the part governing debtor/ creditor relationships, i.e. “Debtor-Creditor Law”, stipulates that a company, unable to settle debts with creditors, pledgees and government authorities, such as Internal Revenues, National Securities, etc., has to file for bankruptcy to the bankruptcy court. What follows is the procedure known as the bankruptcy procedure handled by an insolvency lawyer, who is supposed to handle and manage the bankruptcy procedure for the company.

In the Serbian law, it is written that the bankruptcy procedure is initiated by the pledgee, trustee or the debtor, the last one less commonly, though. The pledgee or the creditor submits a claim to the court when they believe the debtor is insolvent and thus unable to settle debts. The bankruptcy court appoints a receiver, i.e. an appointed court representative to go ahead with the procedure. However, the court also appoints a so-called Pledgees Assembly (Skupština poverilaca).

The essential difference may be seen in the fact that the American company files for a rescue procedure, i.e. for professional help to save the company, preserve its assets and most of all, provide further employment for their workers. Unlike that, the bankruptcy procedure in Serbia is a liquidation process, with as few painful consequences as possible. Usually, privileged creditors get paid whereas everybody else's faith is rather uncertain.

3. Listening comprehension skills should be practised by means of recordings read by both native and non-native speakers of English.

e.g.: Renting a flat

Roger: Hello.

Ann: Hello Roger? This is Ann.

Roger: Oh hi, Ann. How have you been? And how's your new flat working out?

Ann: Well, that's what I'm calling about. You see, I've decided to look for a new place.

Roger: Oh, what's the problem with your place now? I thought you liked the apartment.

Ann: Oh, I do, but it's a little far from campus, and the commute is just killing me. Do you think you could help? I thought you might know more about the housing situation near the school.

Comprehension may be checked in the form of a short quiz:

1. What is the main topic of the conversation?
 - A. problems with living in an apartment
 - B. a search for a new apartment
 - C. the cost of rent near universities
2. Why doesn't Ann like her current apartment?
 - A. It's too expensive.
 - B. The neighbourhood is noisy.
 - C. It's located some distance from school.

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3. How much money does Ann want to pay for rent?

- A. no more than \$200
- B. around \$200
- C. a little more than \$200

4. What kind of place is she looking for?

- A. somewhere that is within a short driving distance of campus
- B. an apartment with furniture already in it
- C. a place where she can live alone

5. How is Roger going to help her?

- A. He is planning on calling a friend who owns an apartment building.
- B. He will check the newspapers to see if he can find an apartment for rent.
- C. He is going to visit an apartment building near his place.

4. Writing skills should be practiced by means of short or long essay assignments, reports, or other types of writing referring to the concept practised in class.

e.g.: Closing argument

The teacher could play an excerpt from a famous film where a closing argument is being presented. A great example is the film *The Rainmaker* based on John Grisham's novel. This film is a good example as the teacher can use the novel and prepare excerpts from it and at the same time play the excerpt. The students may then be encouraged to write their own closing argument either based on the same idea or come up with a new one.

The following link is leading to a complete lesson the author of this article prepared for the practice of the concept of the closing argument

<http://prezi.com/gy6r7sdsbe4o/interactive-legal-english/>

The presentation had been covered in class, whereby the aspects and content of a closing argument were covered by means of interactive activities. For instance, the exercise "Think-pair-share" proved to be a good concluding step preparing the students for the homework assignment, i.e. the writing of the closing argument.

5. Speaking skills should be practised by means of project-based learning as it helps students get involved in more details and prepare in their own way.

The students can work as a team, they can discuss the topic among themselves but also later on in class when presenting the results of their project. Furthermore, the teacher can easily incorporate learning strategies otherwise difficult to realize in the context of Legal English, such as self and peer assessment and autonomous learning. More importantly, metacognitive strategies, such as organizing, planning, managing, monitoring and evaluating one's own

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learning can be supported and students can learn how to focus on these strategies on their own terms.

e.g.: Unfair dismissal

The following link is leading to a complete lesson the author of this article prepared for the practice of the concept of unfair dismissal based on project-based learning

<http://zunal.com/webquest.php?w=170859>

The point of this project was to actually write a claim containing all necessary legal arguments to get Tom's job back. The students had to read the supporting material posted in the segment "Your task in detail", write the claim, submit it and present the case in front of the entire group acting as members of the tribunal.

4. CONCLUSION

In brief, a course in Legal English should be organised in such a way that it enables practice and application in a number of realistic contexts, such as discussions of legal matters, law lectures, client interviews and negotiations, as well as written texts, such as contract clauses, corporate documentation, commercial statutes and legal opinions. Obviously, such broad knowledge acquired from a language course, even without formal education in the area of law, elevates even the most proficient English language speaker to an entirely new level of knowledge.

As stated in the introduction to this article, An ESP course in Legal English was not a planned and coherent movement. That is exactly the reason why the responsibility of a course planner is twice as huge. Providing simple texts ripped out of the legal context or daily practice of law is far from enough for a course in Legal English. Carefully planned curriculums and syllabuses, didactic methods targeted at the area of the law, methodological approaches and techniques focusing on all language skills as well as teaching strategies focusing on the ESP context. All these are needed to teach Legal English successfully. No matter who the final recipient shall be, a lawyer or a language student, both need instruction and teaching based on clearly defined objectives and outcomes. Obviously, the main objective is to acquire proficiency in the English language within the context of law. However, every next objective will have to be supporting this primary one and thus provide solid knowledge to be implemented in the realm of the practice of law in an international context.

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Teaching Legal English for Students of Law at a Hungarian University

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Abstract: My main task is teaching English, more particularly teaching Legal English at the Faculty of Law and Political Sciences of the University. Within the framework of the workshop I would like to provide details of my work, i.e. how I design the courses I teach, their syllabus, the materials I use and the aspects of evaluation of students who participate in my courses. I would also like to present some of the units from the course book I use,. My plan is to involve participants of the workshop in activities. Furthermore, I would like to introduce participants to a professional language exam in Legal English called PROFEX elaborated by Pécs University, Hungary and operating all over the country.

Let me briefly introduce myself:

My name is Judit Kocsis. I graduated from Eötvös Loránd University, Budapest in 1983 as a teacher of English and Russian. After graduation I worked in a secondary grammar school, where I taught both languages. In the first years only Russian and after 1989, the year of the so-called political changes or change of the regime I taught only English.

I am currently employed by Károli Gáspár University of the Reformed Church in Hungary. It has three faculties in the capital: the Faculty of Humanities, that of Theology and Law and a Faculty of Teacher Training in the countryside.

I have worked for the Department of Foreign Languages since 2001. It is a very small department with seven teachers, including the head of department and an assistant. The tasks of the department are manifold: it provides students courses in several foreign languages as well as English courses for specific purposes, i.e. Legal English for law students and English for Religious Studies for students at the Faculty of Theology. The department also offers courses which prepare applicants for language exams, one of which is a special exam of English for Religious Studies, which was designed and developed by the staff of the department and accredited in 2006. Several departments of other colleges, universities and secondary grammar schools all over Hungary have joined our department as exam centres of our language exam. But my colleague will speak about it in more detail.

My duties are also various. I am one of those who operate the language exam of the department, i.e. I write the English exam tasks, I am one of the examiners and I also participate in holding trainings for our examiners in the countryside as a trainer.

However, my main task is teaching English, more particularly teaching Legal English at the Faculty of Law and Political Sciences of the University.

How did I start teaching legal English?

Well, it all started around 2004. I was an ordinary English teacher then and I used to teach about pieces of furniture, countries and nationalities in English. It was in those years that secondary schools started to have more and more pupils with a better and better command of English so departments of foreign languages at universities started to realize that they needed to provide something new to meet the needs of students who already possessed a language certificate, which was –and it still is- an

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important precondition to obtain their degree. As a result these departments started to offer courses in specific areas of foreign languages, e.g. legal English for law students or English for medical purposes for future doctors. It was then when I started to have courses in legal English. In one way it was easy because I was provided very good material for teaching - still it took me some time to learn the terminology both in English and also in my mother tongue. During the past years I have gained quite a lot: I managed to improve my vocabulary –first of all a huge number of formal words and expressions, I have improved my reading skills, I have become interested in law and finally I have become a much more legally conscious citizen.

What do I teach?

As I mentioned above, my main task is teaching Legal English at the Faculty of Law. Unlike other universities in Hungary, where students must pay for learning foreign languages, the University of the Reformed Church offers free courses to its students but with some limitations. Students of all faculties are encouraged to attend courses in different languages for four semesters during the first three years of their studies free of charge. And they have a very wide choice of languages including English, German, French, Russian, Norwegian or Finnish. Students of different faculties are offered specific language courses in their future profession.

Speaking of the faculty of law, law students are required to attend and fulfil the requirements of a two-semester long obligatory course called Legal English I. and II. They can also sign up for an optional course called Legal English III.

What is the content of the syllabus, what is the aim of these courses?

Within the framework of the above mentioned two semesters we try to provide students a basic vocabulary in a very wide range of branches of law in English, e.g. Constitutional Law, Administrative Law, Criminal Law, Law of Succession, Family Law, Contract Law, Civil Procedure, EU Law, etc. They acquire the vocabulary through reading and translating texts and doing different activities related to them. The activities are varied, e.g. true and false exercises, gap filling, matching headings with paragraphs, crossword puzzles, etc. Activities and methods of all kinds used in traditional language teaching may be applied when teaching the professional language. The aim is also to improve their oral and written skills, i.e. reading, writing, speaking and listening. The seminars are practical and there are small groups of usually ten students.

What materials do I use?

The material I use is a booklet including ten units for each of the two semesters. It was written by a former colleague. It has not been published yet, so students who sign up for the given course may download it from an email address and print it.

The units deal with the Hungarian legal system. If you open this booklet you will find titles such as The Hungarian Electoral System, The Hungarian Parliament, The Office of the President, The Executive Branch, etc. The text contains sections and articles from translated Acts.

The other material I rely on – and I use it mainly in professional language exam preparation courses - is a two-volume course book published by Pécs University, its Faculty of Law and Political Sciences. The authors are the head and the teachers of the local Department of Foreign Languages (Marietta Pókay, Judit Ormay, Éva Döme, Zsófia Zelnik). The title is: English for Law Students -

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1. and 2. This two-volume course book focuses on the legal system of the UK and the USA but it also has chapters or readings on the EU or on Hungary. The units in the book cover the different branches of law beside some introductory units, e.g. Legal Systems, Legal Education, The Police and Prisons, etc. It also includes a CD with listening tasks. When compiling this book, the authors included some exercises dealing with grammar, usage, style or the rules of letter writing. This is not surprising because the aim was to make a course book with two goals: one, to teach legal terminology, two, to prepare students for the professional language exam.

I believe the above two materials complement each other perfectly.

What are the aspects of evaluation of students who participate in my courses?

Students are required to attend classes on a regular basis. They are also expected to participate actively. At the beginning of each class they are expected to write a short test on the vocabulary of the unit. They sometimes have homework, e.g. translation, or summarizing texts. They obtain their final mark as a result of a test paper which covers the material of the whole semester. It focuses mainly on the acquired vocabulary.

In the second part of my talk

I would like to introduce you to a professional language exam in legal English which was developed in Hungary. It is called PROFEX and it was created by Pécs University, Hungary.

And now let me go back to the beginning of this presentation. On the one hand, in the past decade departments of foreign languages have started to offer courses in professional terminology. On the other hand, they have become interested in offering language exams based on the given professional terminology and also created by them.

What is the reason for that?

There are several reasons.

First and foremost the main function of such departments is to provide language courses for those who wish to improve their command of languages or to obtain an officially accredited language certificate, which is a precondition of a degree in our country. University graduates are usually required to possess one exam certificate at intermediate level in any language but if a university or a college trains their students for a profession which requires the command of several languages, e.g. future professionals in catering and tourism, the precondition of their degree is two language certificates - one of them usually in the professional terminology.

It follows from this that there must be language exams in the professional terminology and there are many of them, which have been developed by those who teach such terminology, i.e. language teachers of the relevant departments.

So the second reason is the above necessity.

The third reason is probably the professional prestige that such departments may gain.

And finally, this is their financial interest.

Now let us go back to PROFEX, the exam in the terminology of law and public administration.

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What are the characteristics of this exam?

The exam covers the terminology of the following areas:

legal education and education in public administration, careers in both areas

branches of public law, e.g. civil and criminal procedure, legislation, the electoral system, etc.

branches of private law, e.g. labour law, company law, civil law

EU law, e.g. its institutions, Community law, decision making procedure, policies, etc.

Exams may be taken in English and in German at three levels, B1 (basic level), B2 (intermediate level) and C1 (advanced level). Most students decide to take the exam at the latter two levels.

It has both written and oral parts. Let's take a look at the written tasks first, which are the following:

reading comprehension (20 points),

writing a formal letter (15 points) and

translation from Hungarian to English at C1 level and writing a summary of a Hungarian text at B2 level in English (15 points).

Altogether you may obtain 50 points. Pass rate is 60% but you must obtain 40% in case of each task.

The oral tasks are as follows:

speaking (30 points), and

listening comprehension (20 points)

Again you may obtain 50 points. Pass rate is 60% but you must obtain 40% in case of each task.

What are the individual tasks of the oral exam when measuring speaking?

a conversation between the examinee and the examiner concerning the examinee's profession (the topics are public, 8 points)

two role plays: one of them is between a client and a professional, the other one is between two professionals (12 points) The task is to give information and to solve legal problems. Prompts are given in Hungarian.

speaking about a topic using a graph or a chart at B2 level, and holding a mini-presentation on a given topic at C1 level

Who are the potential examinees?

Naturally, undergraduates and graduates of law and public administration, e.g. practicing attorneys, notaries public, civil servants working in public administration offices.

What are the benefits of passing this exam?

First, the official certificate they obtain, which ensures them certain advantages, e.g. to obtain a degree, a job or a pay-rise. When applying for a job those with a certificate or sometimes with two have a huge advantage. Or a notary public with a language certificate at advanced level is entitled to issue official documents in a foreign language.

Second, the knowledge they acquire while preparing for the exam. Remember, in most cases they are people who already have a language certificate in English but they are eager to improve it, to learn the specific terminology of their profession because they need it and they can use it in their everyday activity.

But most of all, because they enjoy the process of learning.

And I believe no one can understand it better than we all, here.

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Discourse Analysis of Law School Lectures and Suggestions for Listening Comprehension

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Abstract: With the practice of law becoming more international, an increasing number of law professionals are enrolling in international law programs conducted in English to gain knowledge of legal systems other than their own. Previous research within English for Academic Legal Purposes has mainly been concerned with developing the reading and writing skills of native speakers of English, and, as such, has focused mainly on legal written texts. Very few studies have focused on analyzing the spoken discourse of law school classrooms. Furthermore, research has shown that lecture comprehension in a second or foreign language can be challenging. This paper reports on a genre analysis of lectures in a certificate program at a law school in the United States enrolling foreign lawyers and suggests ways the results of the analysis can be employed to facilitate lecture comprehension. Around 30 hours of lecture were recorded and four representative lectures lasting around four hours were transcribed and analyzed. The overall organization of the lectures was analyzed in terms of genre moves (Swales 1990). The analysis revealed that law school lectures constitute a genre with a highly recursive move structure, which is characteristic of spoken discourse. The moves identified in these law lectures form three larger units, content introduction, content development, and session closing. Among these, the key unit is content development, which is composed of move cycles that resemble the structure of the analytical and organizational tool widely known in the field of law as IRAC (Issue, Rule, Analysis, Conclusion). The paper will conclude with a description of activities based on the results of the analysis with the goal of familiarizing students with the cyclical nature of classroom legal discourse. In particular, the use of lecture transcripts for developing listening comprehension activities will be exemplified.

Key words: legal lectures, move analysis, academic discourse, listening comprehension

1. INTRODUCTION

As globalization has rapidly increased in the last two decades, the practice of law has become increasingly international. Different national legal systems frequently come into contact as part of various international endeavors. As a result, there is a greater need for lawyers to gain education in national systems other than their own. In light of these circumstances, law school programs in the United States are attracting a growing number of foreign legal practitioners from all over the world, which motivates analysis of the linguistic needs for successful participation in academic programs.

Foreign lawyers accepted into U.S. graduate programs study together with law students who are native speakers of English, which means that they are expected to read law cases, discuss them in class and complete written assignments. There are also graduate certificate programs created exclusively for foreign lawyers, but still taught by U.S. faculty. For acceptance into these programs, the English language skills of foreign lawyers are evaluated based on a TOEFL score. However, a TOEFL score is only an indication of candidates' general English skills, and not skills specific to the

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study of law. U.S. law schools often offer language courses that run concurrently with content classes; nevertheless, very few of these language courses address foreign lawyers' specific needs (Feak and Reinhart 2002,).

The majority of studies within English for Academic Legal Purposes (EALP) have focused on developing writing and reading skills of native speakers pursuing a law degree. Moreover, what has been analyzed for the most part is published legal work (Badger 2003; Bhatia 1983; Candlin, Bhatia and Jensen 2002), and only recently has the focus shifted onto texts produced by students (Feak, Reinhart and Sinsheimer 2000). Studies have acknowledged a need to facilitate student's comprehension and production of legal written language (Northcott 2013). Such challenges of comprehension and production can be presumed to be greater with oral genres. It is no surprise then that legal researchers have emphasized a need for further research of law school *spoken* discourse (Feak and Reinhart 2002; Northcott 2009).

A key component of needs analysis is not only identifying key genres in target situations but also analyzing the organizational structure of such genres. Such genre analysis includes identifying a list of rhetorical moves that fulfill the communicative purpose of the genre. In large texts, such as research articles, the text is first analyzed for larger units of organization, also called "part-genres," such as Introduction, Methods, Results and Discussion, based on their primary communicative purpose (Yang and Allison 2003). These units are then analyzed for their constituent moves (Swales 1990). While moves refer to the function and purpose of a segment of text at a more general level, steps, and further sub-steps (Ayers 2008), are more specific in the rhetorical means of realizing the function of a move (Yang and Allison 2003). In identifying the boundaries of moves, steps and sub-steps, both the communicative function and particular lexico-grammatical features, such as particular verbs and lexical items, tenses, voice, modal verbs and adverbials (Ayers 2008; Lim 2006; Peacock 2002; Yang and Allison 2003), are used. The results of previous genre analysis have also shown some moves are repeated as the text unfolds (Yang and Allison 2003), resulting in a "move cycle series" (Peacock 2002).

As an established genre in tertiary education, the lecture is considered to be a major part of university instruction (Cheng 2012; Flowerdew 1994), and as such has been attracting genre-based studies due to the challenges listening comprehension of academic instruction poses to foreign students. These studies have contributed to the understanding of lecture discourse by, for example, shedding light on the overall academic lecture structure (Dudley-Evans 1994; Tauroza and Allison 1994), the rhetorical structure of academic lecture introductions (Thompson 1994), and academic lecture endings (Cheng 2012). The findings of these studies are based on analyzing authentic texts and can be used to introduce learners with as accurate a model of lecture structure as possible, which in turn facilitates development of learners' relevant listening skills.

Using the genre framework, the present study aims to analyze the rhetorical structure of lectures at a U.S. law school certificate program attended by foreign lawyers in order to address the following questions:

1. What are the aural classroom communication needs of foreign lawyers who attend law programs at U.S. law schools?
2. What kind of teaching materials can be developed to facilitate lecture-comprehension?

Although a number of different analyses were conducted on law school lectures, this paper will focus on the rhetorical organization of these lectures.

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2. METHODOLOGY

Data for the study were collected in a four-week certificate program designed and held at a U.S. law school in Southern California exclusively for foreign lawyers to prepare them to successfully work in an international context. The certificate program covered a variety of topics such as the U. S. Constitution and Introduction to Torts. Around 30 hours of classroom discourse were audio recorded throughout the program. Each session was approximately a little over 60 minutes long. Four lectures were chosen as representative of the data and transcribed for further analysis (a total of 243 minutes of classroom discourse). Table 1 shows the lecture topic, the lecture number used in the study, and the length of each session.

TABLE I
The lectures transcribed for the study

Lecture topic	Symbol	Length
Commercial Law	L1	64.26 minutes
Stare Decises	L2	55.35 minutes
Litigation Process	L3	55.25 minutes
Alternative Dispute	L4	73.18 minutes

The structure of each lecture was analyzed to identify structural units such as part-genres, moves, steps and sub-steps based on the communicative function the units perform and particular lexicogrammatical features that characterize these units. A step or move was considered obligatory if it appeared in 100% of the texts (Kwan 2006; Peacock 2002).

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Moves within the law school lecture can be categorized into three larger units of organization: (1) Content Introduction, (2) Content Development and (3) Session Closing (Table 2).

TABLE II
 The rhetorical structure of law school lectures

Part-genres	Moves	Steps	Sub-steps	
Content Introduction	(1) Setting up the Framework			
	(2) Contextualizing the Lecture Topic			
Content Development	(1) Announcing the Topic			
	(2) Defining the Topic			
	(3) Contextualizing the Topic	1) Describing a Legal Process		
		2) Explaining the Topic		
		3) Applying the Topic	1) Illustrating the Topic 2) Analyzing the Topic	
(4) Summarizing the Main Points				
Session Closing				

Since the bulk of the lecture discourse is accounted for by Content Development, this paper focuses primarily on this unit, although a brief overview of Content Introduction and Session Closing will also be provided.

Law school lecture introductions, labeled as Content Introduction, are constructed with the two moves: a) Setting up the Framework and b) Contextualizing the Lecture Topic (Thompson 1994). The function of Setting up the Framework can be achieved by (1) announcing the topic of the lecture, and (2) outlining the lecture structure. The lecturer can contextualize the topic of the lecture, the second move, by (1) referring to a previous lecture in terms of restating the topic and reviewing the previous content. The topic can also be contextualized by (2) explaining the context within which the topic is applied, which is a lengthy stretch of discourse with lexical features characteristic of explaining the cause or the effect of an event, such as *the main reason for (the use of a jury), the necessity of (having uniformed rules), and for that we have*. The two moves, Setting up the

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Framework and Contextualizing the Lecture Topic, are present in all four lectures and hence obligatory.

Content Development comprises four moves: (1) Announcing the Topic, (2) Defining the Topic, (3) Contextualizing the Topic, and (4) Summarizing the Main Points. These moves recur as the unit unfolds, forming move cycles. The longest move is Move 3, Contextualizing the Topic, accounting for 82.5% of the total word count of Content Development across all four lectures (Table 3).

TABLE III
The number of words in Moves in Content Development

Move	Word count	Percentage
(1) Announcing Topic	2136	11.5%
(2) Defining the Topic	719	3.9%
(3) Contextualizing the Topic	15,283	82.5%
(4) Summarizing the Main Points	394	2.1%
Total	18,532	100%

Move 1, Announcing the Topic, is a function by means of which the lecturer states the concept of the U.S. legal system to be explained. This function is signaled by discourse markers *ok* and *so*, the use of rhetorical questions and the use of modifiers that indicate a sequence/order of items such as *the last*, *another*, *the other*. An example would be, "So what do you need for an effective mediator, if you will?" (L4).

In Move 2, Defining the Topic, the lecturer either gives a law definition of the term or states a rule within which the concept is applied. This function is usually signaled by the use of the present tense, definite article, the modal verbs *can*, *will* and *have to*, and lexical items indicating obligation, such as *bound*, *requires*. In the following the notion of binding authority is being defined:

Example 1

And appellate courts, including supreme courts, whether it's the U.S. Supreme Court or state court, appellate courts are bound by their own prior decisions. (L2)

In Move 3, Contextualizing the Topic, the lecturer develops a previously announced concept through three steps: (1) Describing a Legal Process, (2) Explaining the Topic and (3) Applying the Topic. In Step 1, the question of how the legal concept is performed is answered. In the following example, the lecturer answers the question of how contracts are interpreted when there are terms that are missing from a contract.

Example 2

Um in those cases the court has to supply reasonable terms to give context to the words that would um in their view um clarify what the parties have originally intended by giving just a little more context. And we'll also use legal episodes which are um these are um legal um principles that have been developed over time. In certain jurisdictions it still holds true that if

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a term within a contract is ambiguous then the-the court will um will interpret that term against the party who has actually prepared the contract. (L1)

Step 2 has the function of explaining the purpose or explaining the cause and the effect of the legal concept announced in Move 1. Not surprisingly, this step is characterized by the use of such lexical items as *so*, *because*, *reason*, *purpose*, commonly employed in a discourse with a similar purpose.

Example 3

And obviously the laws are there to protect wealth. So um because of the importance of property, um real property contracts require written certitude for them to be valid. (L1)

In Step 3 the topic is applied to a set of hypothetical or real-life facts. This step comprises two sub-steps: (1) Illustrating the Topic and (2) Analyzing the Topic. In Sub-step 1, Illustrating the Topic, the legal concept is illustrated by a hypothetical situation, signaled by *for example/an example* or the conjunction *if*; a real case, signaled by stating the case name and year; or by listing examples and counter-examples, signaled by adjectives indicating ranking, such as *the most important*, *the most common*, *my favorite*. In the following excerpt, the lecturer is illustrating situations that allow a party to not perform the obligation stated in the contract.

Example 4

If you're buying a painting and someone tells you this is a Picasso painting from nineteen ten the South of France a purist expression of cubism. It's been attested. I bought this from an old Austrian duke right before he died and um I will sell it to you for ten thousand dollars. And he knows all too well that his children painted this. (L3)

Then, in Sub-step 2, Analyzing the Topic, the lecturer relates the facts from the example to the concept. What this means is that the example is analyzed by answering the questions of *Why this is/isn't the concept* or *Who/What the concept is*. The following excerpt answers the question of why the situation in Example 4 is considered a fraud.

Example 5

He took advantage. He lied. He misrepresented the value. He misrepresented that it was something that it wasn't. Um and the buyer relied on these various misrepresentations, and the seller knew that he was trying to deceive him, and he knew perfectly well that this was painted by his talented children at a cubist summer camp. (L1)

Furthermore, Step 3, Applying the Topic, is the only recursive step within one move cycle. Lastly, Move 4, Summarizing the Main Points, has the function of paraphrasing previous moves or summarizing the main points.

The analysis reveals a total of 62 cycles of Move 1 to 4 of Content Development across all four lectures. Moves 1 and 3 are found in all 62 cycles. The next most frequent Move is Move 2, found in 26 cycles. Even though Move 3 is an obligatory move, none of the steps within Move 3 is obligatory. The most prevalent step is Step 2, Explaining Topic, found in 91.9% of the Move 3 occurrences, followed by Step 3, Applying Topic, (58.1%). Tables 4 and 5 show the frequency of occurrence of the four moves of Content Development and the frequency of steps within Move 3, Contextualizing the Topic.

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TABLE IV
Frequency of moves in move cycles of Content Development

Move	Number of cycles	Percentage (n=62)
(1) Announcing the Topic	62	100%
(2) Defining the Topic	26	41.9%
(3) Contextualizing the Topic	62	100%
(4) Summarizing Main the Points	8	12.9%

TABLE V
Frequency of steps in Move 3 of Content Development

Move	Step	Number of cycles	Percentage
Contextualizing the Topic	(1) Describing a Legal Process	31	50%
	(2) Explaining the Topic	57	91.9%
	(3) Applying the Topic	36	58.1%

Within Step 3, Applying the Topic, Sub-step 1, Illustrating the Topic, occurs in each instance of this step. What this means is that, when applying a given topic, lecturers at least give an example; if necessary, the relation between the example and the topic is analyzed through Sub-step 2, which occurs in 71.9% of instances of Step 3.

It is interesting to draw parallels between the rhetorical structure of a full move cycle described in this study and a model used in legal writing widely known as IRAC (Issue, Rule, Analysis, Conclusion), a tool used in analyzing and presenting a situation from a legal perspective (Candlin et al. 2002). However, a difference is that while a move cycle is initiated by stating a legal concept, IRAC begins with a set of facts (e.g. entering someone else’s home in a particular way at a specific time) indicating a legal concept (e.g. burglary), which is similar to Move 3 – Step 3 – Sub-step 1 (Illustrating the Topic). Move 1 and 2, announcing and defining a topic can be seen as similar to the “R” in IRAC. Interestingly, the analysis of a real-life situation, “A” (that is, Move 3-Step 3-Sub-step 2, Analyzing the Topic) may not always be present in the move cycle. The “C,” conclusion in IRAC parallels Move 4, Summarizing Main Points. What is noteworthy is that the structure of the rhetorical organization in lectures is quite different from what students are to produce in Problem Question Answers (Tessuto 2011), a common genre in law school. A much more deductive reasoning is being presented in the lectures in contrast to the inductive reasoning characteristic of the

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IRAC framework. It seems that this movement from a deductive rhetorical structure to an inductive rhetorical structure or reasoning might characterize the teaching/learning experience of students in disciplines other than law as well. However, this difference in rhetorical structure that the move analysis has revealed between lecture discourse and written discourse might pose a challenge to foreign lawyers in an LL.M. program in their mastery of the IRAC framework.

As indicated earlier, not much research has been done on lecture endings and their impact on students' lecture comprehension. Since lecture content is introduced through stating and contextualizing the topic and outlining the structure of presenting information about the topic, we might assume that the concluding stage would provide a synopsis of the lecture or perhaps further contextualize the lecture topic by referring to the next lecture. However, the four lectures analyzed indicate that a session is often concluded by just a brief stretch of discourse, where the lecturer makes a note of a content section having been brought to an end and only briefly announces what the focus of the next session will be. In some cases, a session closes by "fading out" as the lecturer starts answering individual students' questions and other students begin conversing among themselves.

4. PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

A description of the rhetorical functions that make up the macro-structure of classroom discourse at a U.S. law school and the lexico-grammatical features realizing each of the functions can help meet students' needs for processing information (Tauroza and Allison 1994; Young 1994). Students' understanding of the rhetorical structure can be facilitated by the use of authentic lecture discourse in ESP or EAP courses; thus, activities aiding students' understanding of a lecture discourse can focus on introducing the overall lecture structure and giving students opportunities to practice identifying the rhetorical functions that make up the discourse. For example, in preparing students for a graduate certificate in law in the U.S., after students have been introduced to the overall organization of a law school lecture, students can analyze a transcript of a move cycle within Content Development by first matching excerpts from a lecture with their functions, which they had been introduced to earlier, as in the activity provided in the appendix. Students then proceed to order the excerpts in the order they believe they would appear in a law lecture. Applying the results of move analysis like this in scaffolded genre-based activities can heighten their awareness of discourse structure, which can promote listening comprehension of challenging discourse. We suggest that, after completing this activity, students can be familiarized with the lexico-grammatical features that tend to be found in certain discourse moves.

5. CONCLUSION

In sum, the analysis revealed that the law school lecture constitutes a genre comprised primarily of three organizational units, namely, Content Introduction, Content Development and Session Closing. Content Development, which is the main part of the law lecture and the focus of this paper, is further comprised of highly recursive moves, steps and sub-steps with specific functions that contribute to achieving the overall purpose of introducing students to the fundamentals of U.S. law. Interestingly, although some of the moves, steps and sub-steps from the lectures had the same discourse functions as those seen in IRAC, the analytic framework commonly used in legal analysis, the order in which the discourse moves appeared did not match up with IRAC, raising questions about transfer from one genre to another in law. The moves, steps, and sub-steps in these law lectures are also associated with some lexico-grammatical features, such as lexical items, verb choices, tenses and adverbials,

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and can be employed by students to identify the different rhetorical functions of parts of a law school lecture.

Although only four lectures were analyzed for this study, they provided ample data for the analysis of move structure because of the large number of move cycles within the Content Development unit. As discussed earlier, the Content Development unit made up a large portion of each lecture and had only four moves, which appeared in 62 move cycles. Further analysis of a larger number of lectures might yield more findings about Content Introduction and Session Closing. In addition, the scope of the study was limited to the needs of a particular population – foreign lawyers attending the certificate program “The Fundamentals of the U.S. Law.” A focus of further research in the field of EALP could be the discourse of lectures foreign lawyers attend as part of obtaining a degree of Master of Laws (LL.M.), which are lectures designed for regular American law students. Such an analysis should also indicate any differences across law lectures where the audience is international students versus those which have both international and American students.

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Appendix: Listening Activities

The following set of excerpts is part of a lecture that introduces the concept of “plaintiff’s case in chief.” Each section performs a function as the lecturer teaches law students about this legal concept. The professor first announces the concept of the “plaintiff’s case in chief,” then he defines what the “plaintiff’s case in chief” is; finally, he describes the process of the “plaintiff’s case in chief.”

Order	Functions	Excerpts
1	Announcing a new legal concept	And then what ensues we call “the plaintiff’s case in chief.”
2	Defining the legal concept	This is where the plaintiff through witnesses and other evidence is given the opportunity to try to prove the facts that show why the plaintiff should win the case.
3	Describing a legal process	Witnesses are called. They’re sworn. They’re questioned. They’re um um there’s an opportunity, after the the plaintiff is done questioning that witness, there’s immediately an opportunity for the defendant’s attorney to question that same witness.

Read the following set of excerpts from a lecture on “opening statements” and the list of functions given below. Consider which function each excerpt performs. Some of the functions are from the previous example, but there are also functions that have not been introduced. Can you match the excerpts with the functions they perform?

- Describing a legal process (2 excerpts)
- Using a hypothetical situation as an example of the legal concept
- Announcing a new legal concept
- Explaining the purpose of the legal concept
- Analyzing the example in terms of the legal concept

Order	Functions	Excerpts
		But it would be that when I’ve started my trial I have a witness who’s only available to be today. They’re not going to be available tomorrow, so I need, here we go again, so I need that juror or that witness to testify today. But maybe that their information that that witness has is from something that is towards the end of the story.
		Both parties can make opening statements at this point, but sometimes the defendant will choose not to make an opening statement then. Sometimes the defendant will reserve their right to make their opening statement until later in the proceedings. But at least the plaintiff or the plaintiff’s attorney is going to make an opening statement before we start calling witnesses in the case.

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		If I just call the witness and have them testify, the jury won't have any idea about what they are talking about. So I get to set the stage first by making an opening statement to the jury telling them my view of the case and what they're going to hear as the trial proceeds.
		The next thing that's going to happen is called "opening statements."
		Each side gets to present to the jury or to the judge alone if there is no jury their story of the case. They will tell the jury what evidence they are going to present in the case. And their version, their view or their client's view of what happened in that case.
		Now the main reason for doing that instead of just going to calling the first witness is because of the system of calling the witnesses. The story is likely to come out in order. Right? A story has a beginning and an end and the stuff that goes on in time line between that beginning and that end.

Now, order the excerpts in a way that facilitates your understanding of "opening statements."

Listen to the lecture and check the order.

Were any of the functions difficult to identify? What difficulties did you have in ordering the sequence?

Do you notice any words or phrases that are commonly used to announce a new topic?

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Recovering and Rediscovering Grammar

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Abstract: The author explores a possible approach to teaching English grammar to students of the Humanities (history students in particular), while taking into account two seemingly irreconcilable factors. First, students are showing an increasing aversion to learning grammar in general and in particular to the traditional way in which most of them have been taught in primary and secondary school. Second, there are enormous differences in their language proficiency and their basic grammatical literacy is often surprisingly low. In such a context, the following questions arise: How much grammar do students of the Humanities need, and what grammatical features should they be taught?

Since a language course for students of most Humanities has elements of ESP, EAP and General English, the author concludes that the approach to grammar teaching, in this case, must meet two important requirements. First, if motivation is to be sustained, grammar teaching must be contextualized and heavily reliant on the content of the field in question, or more specifically, on key grammar resources within specific genres (e.g. related to history - recording, explaining genre etc.). This, however, is impossible to achieve without fulfilling the second requirement i.e. addressing students' basic weaknesses in grammar, for their lack of grammatical literacy often seriously impedes both their receptive and productive skills. By offering examples from her teaching practice, the author suggests possible ways of meeting these two requirements while trying to make grammar learning equally motivating for all, regardless of the level of their language proficiency.

Key words: grammar, misconception, history, content, discourse, motivation

Grammar class - Literally, the worst place one person can go. If someone is sent there, they face intense shame and humiliation. Used frequently in multiplayer fighting video games (ex. Smash Bros.) when a person kills their enemy's character by sending them out of the ring/area. (Urban Dictionary)

So much has been said and written about grammar and grammar teaching and yet it seems that the number of controversies and dilemmas about how to deal with it in the classroom stand in direct proportion to the number of theories propounded about it. However, even when furnished with the knowledge of formal grammatical theories, a language teacher is only partly equipped for effective classroom practice.

At the start of every academic year, language teachers face the same dilemmas. They wonder what teaching practices will suit a new generation of students, to what extent in implementing grammar instruction they should draw on the traditional form-focused or communicative approach to language. However, the answers are never self-evident for they depend on a large number of factors that vary with every new group of students.

In an attempt to get at least a vague idea about the level of the language proficiency of the first-year history students at the Faculty of Philosophy, instead of giving them a placement test, I asked

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them to write a few sentences about the demotivating factors in their previous language learning experience. Here I will quote a few of them:

1. I believe in culture and am in love with pretty much every language. That's why I have lost my motivation... English classes should make us love English (art, history) and all they do is repeat grammar over and over again. Should I even bother mentioning the boredom attack I get upon hearing "present simple and present continuous"?
2. The factors that have contributed to my demotivation are conditional clauses (especially 2nd and 3rd) because it happens that I sometimes mix them up, and some other things like relative clauses.
3. I been demotivated to learn English because in bouth of my school we change many techrs and all of them been terrible. My teachrs was very arrogance and bad pedagogy because I must scaryed all of classes.
4. My motivation to learn English beginning from my 13 years when I showing potential to learn English. In high school I had very good teacher. My objective from English is to know to speak the world first language and to can talkk in all countries of the world.

The above quotes are, to a great extent, in both form and content representative of most of the students' responses to the given question. So what is it that we can derive from them that is related to grammar teaching?

First of all I should mention that all these students in question have studied English for at least 8 years, some of them even 12. What is obvious is that there is a huge discrepancy in their proficiency levels, made more complicated by varying levels of proficiency across the four skills. Consequently, their expectations of the course outcomes vary, regardless of how much they themselves are aware of their language weaknesses. It is clear that the traditional form-focused, deductive approach to grammar teaching that they have been subjected to previously arouses negative feelings, disinterest, boredom, even straightforward aversion. But should that be a good enough reason to abandon, altogether, the insistence on form, especially when the overall formal grammar literacy of some students is practically nonexistent? This inevitably leads us to the question of how to best balance out form and function and how to utilize to the utmost the best practices of different approaches to grammar instruction.

Before I attempt to explain the rationale behind the title of this paper and what I meant by using terms *recovering* and *rediscovering* grammar, I wish to briefly address a point related to students' perception of grammar in general. Apart from their general negative disposition towards it, as previously mentioned, I believe that a few misconceptions about grammar deserve to be mentioned here and seriously dealt with. One of them is that students see grammar as a totally abstract notion, as if it exists independently of the language use, as a system that "exists in a void" (Batstone 1994, 118) or as something existing "merely to make things difficult for them" (Nunan 1998, 103). This perception is reflected in the experience of the student quoted above, who said that what particularly de motivated him in English language learning were the 2nd and 3rd type of conditional clauses and relative clauses as well. These grammatical notions, for many students, remain strictly in the realm of theory, something that forms the content of a course, delivered by a teacher because someone has decided to include it in the curriculum. Most students will have so far learned by heart the definition of the use of the present perfect tense together with all the adverbs with which it is most likely to be used, beginning with *never* and *ever* and ending with *since* and *for*. When it comes to using it, they avoid it at all costs, resorting to the present simple or past simple or perhaps simply the infinitive form, but not only because they cannot relate it to an equivalent verb form in their mother tongue. More likely, they have rarely, if ever, been exposed to their use in the context of natural (everyday) communication, or in a content of their genuine interest. Along the same lines, present perfect tense is seen as a totally independent (hostile) entity, the connection with other perfect forms being simply that

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they happen to share the same attribute. Past perfect is seen as the verb form expressing an action that happened before another action in the past and as such cannot in any way be related to present perfect or, even more remotely, to future perfect. So, no wonder that even the more proficient students find it difficult to grasp how come a present verb form can be used in the question “How many wars have been waged in the Balkans since 5th century AD?”

Dispelling these, and many more, misconceptions is just part of the effort that should be made in recovering grammar “residuals” from our students’ language reservoirs. This does not imply recovering it “from where it has allegedly been side-lined by the so-called communicative approach”, as Scott Thornbury put it while trying to explain the rationale behind the title of his book *Uncovering Grammar* (Thornbury 2001, vi). Nor does this effort imply giving up “covering grammar in the traditional sense of ‘Today’s Thursday and we are going to do Present Perfect’” (ibid.), as Scott Thornbury explained, but rather equipping students with sufficient self-confidence so that they can take a new path towards rediscovering the kind of grammar they actually need.

How do we go about building our students’ “grammatical self-confidence”?

First of all by providing the right content, meaning first of all the content that students are genuinely interested in and which at the same time contains the grammar structures students need to complete a certain task or to refresh a certain skill. For example, asking questions, (all of which happen to be in present simple), may be based on the following quotations (Historical Quotes):

1. History is the witness that testifies to the passing of time; it illuminates reality, vitalizes memory, provides guidance in daily life, and brings us tidings of antiquity. Cicero
2. What experience and history teach is this-that people and governments never have learned anything from history, or acted on principles deduced from it. G. W. F. Hegel
3. The function of the historian is neither to love the past nor to emancipate himself from the past, but to master and understand it as the key to the understanding of the present. E. H. Carr
4. History is for human self-knowledge. Knowing yourself means knowing, first, what it is to be a person...(...) the only clue to what man can do is what man has done. The value of history, then, is that it teaches us what man has done and thus what man is. R. G. Collingwood

Even if students encounter some vocabulary that they are not familiar with, this should not prevent them from coming up with question as simple in form as “What is history?”, “What does history teach us?”, “What is history for?” or “What is the value of history?”.

If the form of a certain grammatical item needs to be addressed, it may also occur in a humorous setting. Humorous or wise quotations have proved to be a rich reservoir for exemplifying certain grammatical points. Consider the following:

1. I have always disliked myself at any given moment; the total of such moments is my life. Tradition is the total effect of all that has happened to man and that has survived in the form of stories, legends and songs that have been told and retold and handed down from generation to generation.
2. History would be a wonderful thing - if it were only true. If people behaved in the way nations do they would all be putin straitjackets. Remember, guns do not kill people unless you practice real hard.
3. History is littered with wars that everybody knew would never happen.

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As far as I am concerned, 'whom' (*relative pronoun*) is a word that was invented to make everyone sound like a butler.

4.

An ideal thing for a historian is to write his history, and then to have a gang of trained slaves who can go through the proofs from x various aspects. That is why, take it all in all, x. gentlemen have made the best historians.

Or consider the following text on The Renaissance Man from a highly academic book entitled "A history of knowledge" (Van Doren 1992, 134), a large chunk of which incidentally contains almost only two verbs *-to be* and *to know* (in either present or past simple):

The term *Renaissance* suggests a person, either man or woman, of many accomplishments. A renaissance man 1)....**is**.... neither an expert nor a specialist. He or she 2)....**knows**.... more than just a little about everything, instead of knowing everything about a small part of the entire spectrum of modern knowledge. The term 3)....**is**.... essentially ironic, for it 4)....**is**.... universally believed that no one really can be a Renaissance man in the true meaning of the term, since knowledge 5)....**is**.... so complex that no human mind 6)....**is**.... capable of grasping all, or even a large part, of it.

7)....**Was**.... there ever a Renaissance man, even during the Renaissance, in that sense of the term? The answer 8)....**is**.... no. The reason may seem surprising. Knowledge 9)....**is**.... no more complex today than it 10)....**was**.... in the fifteenth century. That 11)....**is**...., it 12)....**was**.... just as complex then as it 13)....**is**.... now. It 14)....**was**.... no more possible for any human being to know everything about everything then than it 15)....**is**.... now.

This does not mean that everything we 16)....**know**.... was known by the men and women of Renaissance times. Obviously, we 17)....**know**.... many things they (not) 18)....**did not**.... . On the other hand, they 19)....**knew**.... many things that we (not) 20)....**do not know**.... .

If the basic forms of the verbs *to be* and *to know* are to be retrieved or recovered from where they have passively resided, it might as well be in a content our students deserve. The content that does not make them feel inferior in any way but rather the kind of content that informs them, inspires them and eventually helps them build up their self-confidence.

To further illustrate the point in question, I will mention yet another deeply engrained grammatical rule that the majority of students would never question. Namely, if asked to translate a simple question referring to someone's planned or intended actions for the following day, a great majority of them would come up with a question "What will you do tomorrow?". They would substantiate this with the well-rehearsed definition that "will + infinitive" is used to express a future action. No denying that even if they went on using only "will" in every sentence with future reference, they would be perfectly understood. But do they not deserve to learn to explore the finer shades of meaning of these or other grammar choices at their disposal? Most of our students are perfectly familiar with the famous speech of Martin Luther King's, but, for sure, none of them have ever thought about the true meaning of the modal verb *will*, as it is used in it (Huffington Post).

I have a dream that one day this nation will rise up and live out the true meaning of its creed: We hold these truths to be self-evident: that all men are created equal. I have a dream that one day on the hills of Georgia the sons of former slave-owners will be able to sit down together at a table of brotherhood. I have a dream that one day even the state of Mississippi, a desert state, sweltering with the heat of injustice and oppression, will be transformed into an oasis of freedom and justice. I have a dream that my four children will one day live in a nation where they will not be judged by the color of their skin but by the content of their character. I have a dream today.

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Even if a (mental) exercise of this kind proves to be inefficient in shedding more light on the use of will, it might at least be taken as a sort of language awareness activity aimed at acquainting students with the subtleties of a language choice of which they may not have been aware. Or as a means of awakening from the “grammatical lethargy”, towards gaining even more “grammatical self-confidence.”

So far it has been clear that content plays an almost crucial role in dealing with the grammar of historical writing. But where should we look for appropriate content since teaching a foreign language to students of humanities, history in this case, is still an area without its proper place within the existing EFL classifications. Namely, the students in question are now enrolled in a language course designed to meet their academic and professional needs and as such could be tentatively treated as an ESP course. But only tentatively, since it deals with the language of humanities often closely linked to general language and, since it takes place in an academic setting, it certainly has elements of an EAP course too. The scarcity of literature on teaching language to students of humanities (or/and social science) testifies to the obvious reluctance of language experts to find the right place for this area of language within EFL. So, for the purpose of this paper, we will remain within the domain of the imaginary ESP/EAP/GE (General English) triangle that has already been suggested by the author of this paper.

What seems obvious is that searching for grammatical devices on the level of discourse might be an attempt worth making, since historical discourse shows features from which some recurrent grammatical resources may be drawn.

Let us now briefly go back to the questions elicited from our students at the beginning of this paper regarding definitions of history and the purposes of studying it. It is certainly beyond the purview of this paper and the expertise of the author to elaborate on this matter further, but for the purpose of introducing some elements of historical discourse that may have bearing on teaching (or rediscovering) grammar, I will briefly quote the historian A.J.P. Taylor who said that “History is not a catalogue but...a convincing version of events”(All the Best Quotes). So it is the way in which facts or events are presented in the prevailing historical discourse genres that our students should be acquainted with. It was not until Caroline Coffin (2006) published her book on the language of time, cause and evaluation in historical discourse that any serious research of the kind existed. While examining the secondary school history texts which students were required to read and write (in the UK and Australia), she identified three prevailing genres in historical discourse - recording, explaining and arguing, with nine genre subtypes, each having different text structures, vocabulary and grammar. To begin with, acquainting our students with these genres has implications for improving both their reading and writing skills. Taking them along the recording/explaining/arguing genre continuum gradually equips them with the necessary grammatical (and lexical) devices for expressing temporal and causal relations, regarded as crucial vehicles of meaning in historical writing. For “history is not a succession of events, it is the links between them”, as E. Evans put it (All the Best Quotes). This gradual acquisition and awareness of grammatical resources establishing these links leads to gaining the ability to analyze historical writing more critically and eventually to appreciate it and enjoy it more thoroughly.

We will restrict our search for grammatical resources to the recording genre with its four subgenres (autobiographical recount, biographical recount, historical recount and historical account), since time dimension is of crucial importance in historical discourse. A good starting point would be to write a short autobiographical recount (retelling the events of the author’s life) as a way of introducing students to basic temporal conjunctions, indispensable in producing every single recording genre mentioned above, and any other kind of written work for that matter. The following may be turned into a coherent piece of writing, assuming that by this time students have become familiar with the use of basic links and relative pronouns:

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- I was born
- I started primary school
- I moved to
- I enrolled in University
- I became interested in
- I travelled / attended / worked

Having produced an autobiographical recount they can move on to writing biographical recounts, using a slightly expanded version of a chronological data line, as shown below (Mooney 2004, 19):

Constantine I

- 280 BC Born at Naissus on 27 February (son of a military commander Constantinus Chlorus and Helena, a canonized saint)
- 306 BC Proclaimed co-emperor (after the death of his father)
- 312 BC Battle of the Milvian Bridge (had a vision - Christ told him to inscribe XP on his shield, defeated his rival Maxentius - a 'sign from the God of Christians')
- 313 BC Issued the Edict of Milan, with Licinus (de facto legalizing Christianity)
- 324 BC Defeated Licinus (became Emperor of East and West, champion of Christianity)
- 325 BC Council of the Church at Nicea (Nicene Creed - primary prayer for Christian believers)
- 326 BC Founded Constantinople
- 337 BC Died on 22 May, two weeks after being baptized (having had Licinus and his son, and his own wife and son executed) (adapted)

Caroline Coffin identifies six semantic categories for expressing time, viz. sequencing time, segmenting time, setting in time, duration in time, phasing time and organizing through time. The range of resources used for sequencing time (e.g. when, after) and setting in time (in 1975, at the beginning of, soon after) is expected to be used in writing an autobiographical recount as illustrated in the previous task. This range is likely to be expanded by devices expressing duration (e.g. for centuries), phasing (e.g. from the outset, by the time, finally) and segmenting time (most often expressed by nominal groups or nominalization e.g. the First World War, the Golden Age etc.) as students progress towards dealing with historical recounts and eventually historical accounts. The latter, i.e. historical accounts, already containing resources for organizing through time (firstly, secondly etc.), are considered to be of particular pedagogical values since they offer students practice in explaining and not only recording past events. It is precisely in historical accounts that, apart from temporal relations, causal relations gain ground and provide extensive material for students to exploit as they progress towards dealing with more demanding tasks. The tasks that will be based on the remaining two genres – explaining and arguing, presumably in the later phases of their language/grammar learning.

It is the study of basic cohesive devices of a discourse that could greatly contribute to improving students' writing skills in the first place. The related tasks may include writing a simple paragraph based on given prompts as shown in the above examples, combining key ideas of a text into a summary, paraphrasing etc. Editing their own work or rather the collaborative task of editing other students' work has also proved to be an efficient confidence booster.

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The aim of what has been said so far is to trace a possible path along which our students can be taken in order to bring life to the grammar long forgotten – a path from recovering it to rediscovering the grammar they need. All this in an attempt to help them change their perception of grammar and assure them that there is a lot they can do with it. As David Nunan put it: “We need to supplement form-focused exercises with an approach that dramatizes for learners the fact that different forms enable them to express different meanings, that grammar allows them to make meanings of increasingly sophisticated kinds, to escape from the tyranny of the here and now, not only to report events and states of affairs, but to editorialize, and to communicate their own attitudes towards these events and affairs” (Nunan 1998, 101).

Or to return to the beginning of this paper and the definition from the Urban dictionary - to change their perception of a grammar class and help them become “grammorous“ or “grammarliciousgrammarphiles”¹.

¹Urban dictionary (grammorous – to use correct grammar; grammarlicious – being very enthusiastic about grammar; grammarphile – a lover of all things grammar related)

Interactive and Interactional Resources across Basic science and Social Science

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Abstract: As part of teaching and learning foreign language, written language has been regarded as a primary means of communication for several centuries; and academic writing has been viewed as an example of linguistic excellence, mediated mainly through written language. It is suggested that one of the major characteristics of successful academic discourse genres is authors' ability to use metadiscourse resources (MRs) effectively. Metadiscourse facilitates the social interactions which contribute to knowledge production within disciplines and because disciplines are different, its use and meaning varies between disciplines. The present article aims at comparing metadiscourse markers used in two fields of applied linguistics as a social science and mechanic engineering as a basic science. To do this, Hyland's (2005a) model of metadiscourse was employed as an analytical framework to identify the frequency of metadiscourse in these research articles. The results of Independent samples t-Test showed that the articles in applied linguistics tend to use more metadiscourse markers, especially interpersonal ones. The findings of the study can provide a sound basis for the development of pedagogic materials.

Key Words: academic writing; discipline; metadiscourse; research article

1. INTRODUCTION

Among the language skills taught, writing is the most neglected skill in teaching English as a foreign language (TEFL) and teaching English as a second language (TESL) classes. Teaching the patterns and conventions of written text to learners is often delayed until more advanced stages of language learning, and even when they are taught from the beginning they receive little attention. However, for many learners who want to continue their education, writing is definitely an important skill in order to be able to communicate and express themselves appropriately through written discourse (Bazerman, 1988; Marandi, 2003). Since English, nowadays, is used as academic *lingua Franca* for international readership, learners during their academic life are expected to produce and submit their articles in English and they are usually evaluated through their writings. Thus, comprehensive instructions in writing and having knowledge about the rules and patterns of different written genres are crucial for both first language (L1) and second language (L2) learners. In other words, conscious awareness of the rules and conventions that govern written communication is central for effective academic written discourse (Holmes, 198; Faghih & Rahimpour, 2009). It is suggested that one aspect of writing in which learners should receive instruction is the knowledge of metadiscourse resources (MRs) (Hyland, 2000; Hyland, 2001; Hyland, 2008). It is believed that teaching language learners to exploit the metadiscourse functions in the text can improve their reading and writing skills as well as their communication skills. Intaraprawat and Steffensen (1995) have argued that students' writing skill can be improved when it is with an awareness of textual metadiscourse, one of the two types of metadiscourse markers that will be discussed in more details later. Metadiscourse, as the major characteristic of effective writing, allows writers to represent their attitudinal position toward external

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reality, engage their audience in an unfolding discourse, and produce coherent and convincing prose (Vande Kopple, 1985; Crismore et.al, 1993). Drawing on Hyland's (2005a) model of metadiscourse, the present research aims to compare the frequency of the metadiscourse elements in the academic articles of two fields as applied linguistics and mechanic engineering. This model is an improvement over earlier models (e.g., Crisemore et al., 1993; Vande Kopple, 1985) in that it acknowledges the contextual specificity of metadiscourse and puts into account social factors which surround and influence the way writers use language. Substituting Thompson's (2001) terms of interactive and interactional for textual and interpersonal respectively, Hyland (2005a) proposed a model for metadiscourse classification. This model consists of two interactive and interactional resources with each comprising five subcategories. Below only three from each category is explained.

I. *Interactive Resources*: Interactive Resources refer to ways of organizing discourse, assist the readers to know the writers' preferred interpretation, and engage readers in the argument by alerting them to the authors' perspectives both toward a propositional content and readers themselves (Hyland & Tse, 2004). Interactive resources in itself consists of five subcategories from which the researcher has chosen three as follows:

1. *Code glosses*: is the act of defining or explaining words, phrases, or idioms that may be judged to be problematic for readers. (*is called, in other words, that is, this can be defined as, for example, etc*) (Tse & Hyland, 2008)
2. *Frame markers*: signal text boundaries or elements of schematic structure (*my purpose here is to, to conclude, etc*)
3. *Evidentials*: refer to sources of information from other texts by means of which the writers try to support for his argument (*according to X, to cite X, to quote X*).

II. *Interactional resources*: These features involve readers and open opportunity for them to contribute to the discourse by alerting them to the author's perspective towards both propositional information and readers themselves

1. *Hedges*: are devices such as *possible, might and perhaps, likely, mainly* which indicate the writer's decision to recognize alternative voices and viewpoints and so withhold complete commitment.
2. *Boosters*: are words such as *certainly, clearly, obviously, definitely, demonstrate, and know* which allow writers to close down alternatively, head off conflicting views and express their certainty in what they say
3. *Self-mention*: refers to the degree of explicit author presence in the text measured by the frequency of first-person pronouns and possessive adjectives (*I, me, mine, my, exclusive we*) (Hyland, 2005b, pp. 51-52).

To find out the similarities and differences in the frequency of metadiscoursal elements, the present research addresses the following three main null hypotheses:

1. There are not any significant differences in the number of metadiscourse devices used by writers in the two fields of Applied linguistics and Mechanic engineering
2. There are not any significant differences in the number of interactive metadiscourse devices used by writers in the two fields of Applied linguistics and Mechanic engineering.
3. There are not any significant differences in the number of interactional metadiscourse devices used by writers in the two fields of Applied linguistics and Mechanic engineering.

Methods

Data and Data collection procedure

20 articles (10 Applied linguistics and 10 Mechanic engineering) constituted the corpus of this study. The articles were selected from the most leading international English journals namely, *Applied*

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Linguistics, System, Journal of Second Language Acquisition, Elsevier, Science and technology. To gain a better view of Anglo-American community, the articles which were selected for analysis had either British or American authors, and the potential differences between two dialects were overlooked in this study. Due to difficulty with which articles were found, we decided to extend the publication year to ten last years from 2000 to 2010. To invoke Swales' (2004) differentiation of data-based and theory-based articles, all articles were data-based since it makes the corpus comparability valid. He argues that in any study these two groups of articles should be investigated separately since they are composed for separate communicative purposes and different target audiences. Nwogu's (1997) three criteria, namely, *representivity, accessibility, and reputation* were met. This means that efforts were made to ensure that all articles were representative of the field of applied linguistics and mechanic engineering. Those articles which were easier to find were selected. In regard to reputation, all journals in general, and articles in particular were popular all over the world. All articles were electronically stored and were all searched for metadiscourse elements in order to avoid the risk of skipping some metadiscourse elements. In addition to electronic searches, manual analyses were also made to identify the type and frequency of metadiscourse elements to ensure validity. Also meticulous attention was given to make sure that context-sensitive analyses had been carried out. Since the type and appearance of metadiscourse categories are extremely varied and multifunctional, a context-sensitive analysis of each marker had to be carried out before it was finally counted. All English writers' native statuses were obtained through personal communication (e-mails). Applied Linguistics and mechanic engineering were selected as the fields of this article since they deal mainly with social and basic science respectively (Duszak, 1997). All quotations, linguistic examples, footnotes, bibliographies, tables, and figures and the titles of all articles were excluded. Abstract, introduction and result+discussion sections were looked for metadiscourse elements. Thus all articles were checked to make sure that they all had the above-mentioned rhetorical sections.

Categories of Analyses

As mentioned earlier, the present research sought to investigate the similarity and differences in the distribution of metadiscoursal elements in the two fields of Applied linguistic and Mechanic engineering. For the purpose of obtaining the afore-mentioned objectives the researcher needed one powerful metadiscourse model to capture all requirements of academic written discourse. The most up-to-date model of metadiscourse put forward by Hyland (2005a) was employed to investigate the frequency of metadiscourse elements (for the list of metadiscourse elements refer to Hyland, 2005a).

2. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

1: Overall Distribution of Metadiscourse Elements Across two fields:

In order to compare the similarities and differences between two fields of applied linguistics and mechanic engineering in the frequency of metadiscoursal elements, the researcher calculated the frequency of these categories per 1000 words. As it is seen in Table 1, the frequency of metadiscourse per 1000 words in G1 (Applied linguistic articles) is 91.646 and in G2 (Mechanic engineering) is 67.728. The result of Independent samples t-Test did show significant differences in the use of metadiscourse categories between two fields (p -value <0.05). Thus research null hypothesis stating that there are not significant differences in the frequency of metadiscourse categories between two fields as Applied linguistic and Mechanic engineering is not accepted. The first result confirms partially the first hypothesis that social sciences (applied linguistic) use more metadiscourse devices than basic science (mechanic engineering). This divergence in the frequency of overall metadiscourse elements is, once again, shown in Figure 1.

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Table 1
The Independent Samples T-Test to compare distribution of overall metadiscourse categories in two groups of articles (*Italic*=statistically significant difference)

Articles	Metadiscoursal Categories per every 1000	Mean	Sig (p-value)
G1	91.646	9.164	G1/G2= 0.007
G2	67.728	6.117	

Notes: G1: Articles in Applied linguistics G2: Articles in Mechanic engineering

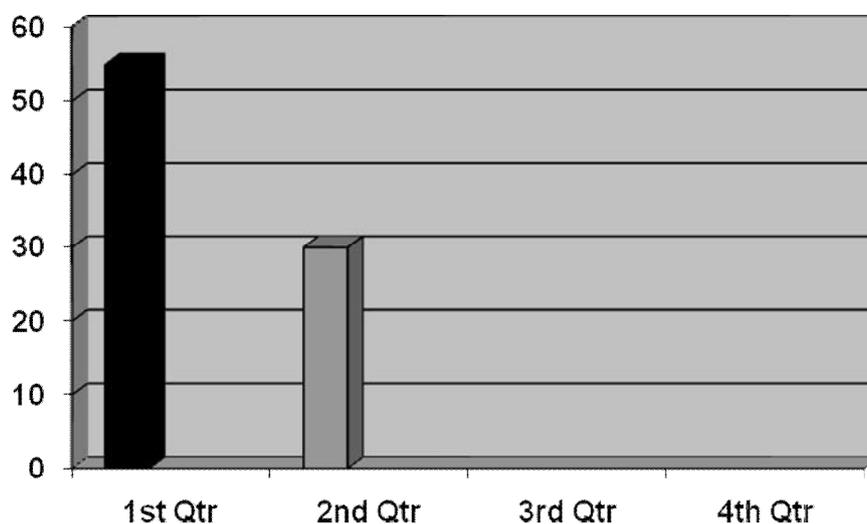


Figure 1: The frequency of metadiscourse in two fields:
(■): applied linguistic (■): mechanic engineering

2: Distribution of Interactive Metadiscourse Across two fields:

Regarding interactive metadiscourse G1 employed 23.868 interactive metadiscourse and G2 31.048 per 1000 words (see Table 2). The result of Independent samples t-Test did not report significant differences in the frequency of these categories (p-value > 0.05) in the sense that both applied linguistic and mechanic engineering use approximately the same number of instances of interactive metadiscourse. Thus research null hypothesis stating that there are not any significant differences in the frequency of overall interactive metadiscourse between two fields is accepted. This similar rhetorical behavior between two disciplines, once again, shown in Figure 2. The result ran for those of Tse and Hyland (2008) who found that writers of two disciplines incorporated approximately the same number of interactive metadiscourse into their texts.

Table 2
The Independent Samples T-Test to compare distribution of interactive metadiscourse in two groups of articles (*Italic*=statistically significant difference)

Articles	Interactive Metadiscourse per every 1000	Mean	Sig (p-value)
G1	23.868	3.38680	G1/G2= 0.875

G2	31.048	3.44948	
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Notes: G1: Articles in Applied linguistics G2: Articles in Mechanic engineering

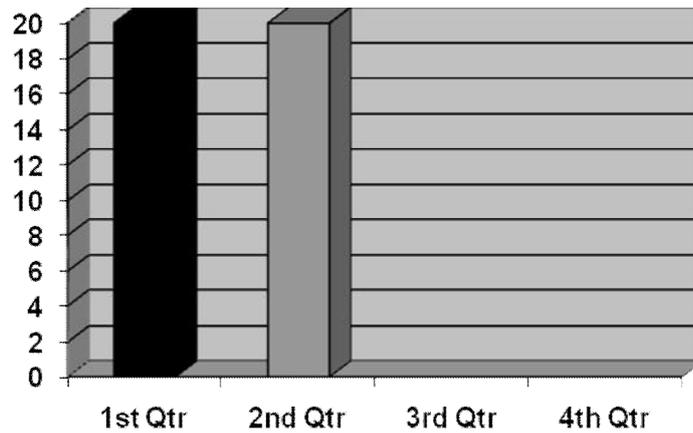


Figure 2: The frequency of metadiscourse in two fields:
 (■): applied linguistic (■): mechanic engineering

Mixed results were obtained regarding interactive metadiscourse subcategories. ‘evidentials’ were the most frequent interactive metadiscourse with ‘code glosses’ and ‘frame markers’ subcategories being the second and the third frequent subcategories. This divergence in the use of these subcategories between two disciplines, one again is shown in Figure 3.

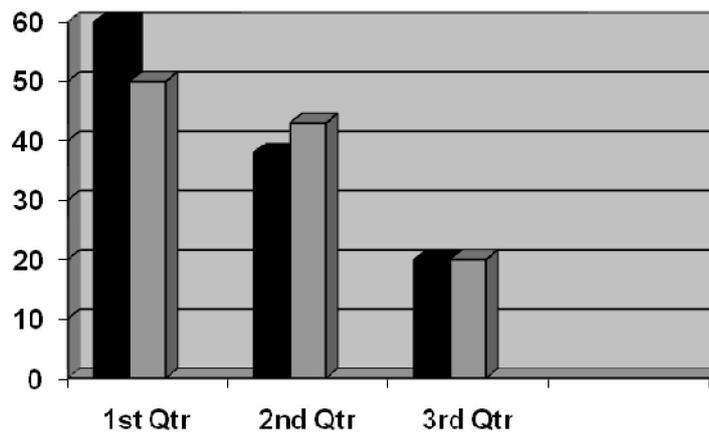


Figure 3: Categorical distributions of interactive subcategories Note, 1: Evidentials 2: Code glosses 3: Frame markers
 (■): applied linguistic (■): mechanic engineering

In relation to ‘evidentials’ G1 used 24.302, but G2 11.73 instances of this subcategory per 1000 words (see Table 3). The result of Independent samples t-Test did confirm significant differences in the

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frequency of this category (p -value < 0.05). The results about the abundant use of ‘evidentials’ in applied linguistic articles are in agreement with the results obtained by Hyland (1999) and Thompson (2001) in which they have analyzed the number of citations in a variety of disciplines from different fields and found that the papers in soft fields tend to use citations more than the other disciplines in their studies.

Table 3
The Independent Samples T-Test to compare categorical distribution of interactive subcategories in two groups of articles per every 1000 words
(*italic*=statistically significant differences.

Categories	REMs per 1000 Words		Mean		Sig (p-value)
	G1	G2	G1	G2	G1/G2
Evidentials	24.302	11.730	1.87488	1.17308	<i>0.005</i>
Code glosses	15.047	19.109	1.50475	1.91098	<i>0.010</i>
Frame markers	4.089	3.636	0.50896	0.46363	0.643

Notes: G1: Articles in Applied linguistics G2: Articles in Mechanic engineering

As touched upon earlier, finding support for one’s arguments and consolidating their credibility by referring to another’s work or by directly or indirectly quoting them is one indispensable part of academic discourse. This way the writer persuades the audience of his or her arguments, obviates any objections on the part of the audience and enriches his contributions to the present state of knowledge by referring to other’s work in the related field as the following examples from the corpus show:

(3) *According to Levinson (1983)*, the single most obvious relationship between language and context is reflected through the phenomenon of deixis, i.e. the means of pointing and indicating.

(Hinkel, applied linguistic, 2002)

(4) *Peachy et al* have used microwave energy to assist enzymatic extraction of selenomethinine from complex yeast samples in 30min using protease/ lipase/ driselase without compromising that analyteextraction efficiency (Moreda-pineiro et. al, mechanic engineering, 2010).

Unlike ‘evidentials’ which were significantly used more in applied linguistic articles, ‘code glosses’ were showed to be used more in mechanic engineering (see Table 3). In the present study, mechanic engineering writers appeared to give a higher priority to glossing whenever they felt that the reader might be burdened with unfamiliar terms or they might not have not enough literacy to grasp what the writer intended to get across. One possible explanation is that by using this much ‘code glosses’, the mechanic engineering writers were inclined to reflect the reader-friendliness of their texts. That is to say, the mechanic engineering writers acted as a ‘friend’ to the reader and they helped the reader whenever they felt that the reader needed help. The following examples from the corpus show this clearly:

(1) Anthony (1999), *for example*, has shown that research article introductions in engineering contain definition of terms, and exemplification of difficult concepts, and evaluation of the research presented, moves not identified by Swales (1990) in his discussion of research article introduction (Samraj 2005).

(2) Nuclear reactions are extensively studied theoretically in the experiments. They are important for many physical phenomena occurring in astrophysical environments, *such as* energy production in stars at all stages of their evolutions (Shakir et. al, 2010).

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Unlike the subcategories of ‘evidentials’, and ‘code glosses’ the subcategory of ‘frame markers’ turned out to be neutral in both groups of articles written by native writers. In relation to ‘Frame markers’ as the least frequent interactive metadiscourse, G1 employed 4.089, but G2 employed 3.636 per 1000 words (see Table 3). The result of the Independent Samples T-Test did not confirm significant differences in the use and frequency of this category ($p\text{-value} > 0.05$). As explained before, the subcategory of ‘frame markers’ are used to frame the elements of the discourse in that they function to “sequence, label, predict and shift arguments, making the discourse clear to readers and listeners” (Hyland, 2005a, p. 51) as the following examples from the corpus show:

5) *In sum*, the quantitative analyses reveal that while overall the group is making progress, at least if progress is defined as becoming more fluent, accurate, and complex from a target-language perspective, each member of the group is following a somewhat different path (Larsen- Freeman, applied linguistic, 2006).

6) Finally, this study only examined two types of account risk and auditor evaluations may be different for other levels of account risk (Arel 2010).

One explanation for this approximately identical use is that framing the discourse and sequencing parts of the text or to internally order an argument appeared to be an integral part of a written. This has also found support in the study of Hyland and Tse (2008). They indicated that their study of writers of two disciplines drew on the same number of ‘frame markers’.

3. Distribution of Interactional Metadiscourse Across two fields:

According to Table 4, English articles in applied linguistics (G1) contain 36.778 and English articles in mechanic engineering (G2) 28.679 instances of interactional metadiscourse per 1000 words (see Table 4). The result of Independent samples t-Test reported significant differences in the frequency of these categories ($p\text{-value} < 0.05$).

Table 4
The Independent Samples T-Test to compare distribution of interactional metadiscourse in two groups of articles (*Italic*=statistically significant difference)

Articles	Interactional subcategories per every 1000	Mean	Sig (p-value)
G1	36.778	3.77784	G1/G2= 0.039
G2	28.679	2.66794	

Notes: G1: Articles in Applied linguistics G2: Articles in Mechanic engineering

Thus research null hypothesis stating that there are not any significant differences in frequency of interactional metadiscourse between two disciplines was rejected. Based on the means, this divergence in the use and frequency of overall interactional metadiscourse between two groups of articles is shown in Figure 4. It appears that applied linguistic writers paid much more attention to how they project themselves into their texts by commenting on the possible accuracy or credibility of a claim, conveying an attitude towards both propositions and readers than mechanic engineering writers.

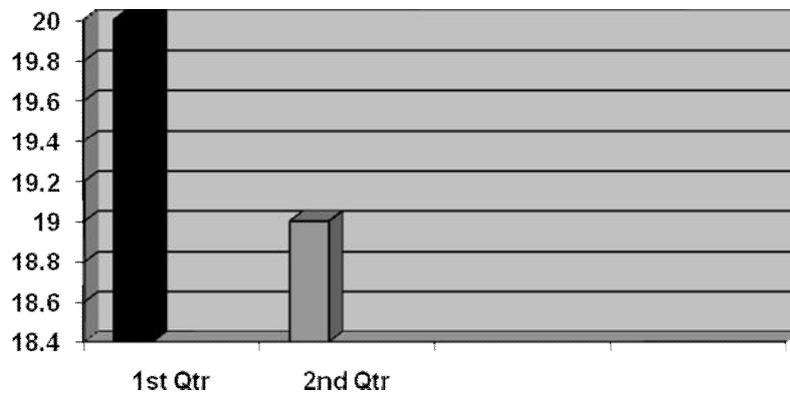


Figure 4: distributions of interactional smetadiscourse
 Note (■): applied linguistic (■): mechanic engineering

Greater use of ‘interactional resources’ by applied linguistic writers can be seen to “represent a very different style of argument, altogether more personal and intrusive, confronting and challenging the reader with a more explicitly committed and engaged stance and expecting more of the reader in working with the writer” (Hyland, 2005c, p. 365). This can mean that the authors in applied linguistics as a social science have been more involved and have tried to connect with their readers more than the authors in mechanic engineering as basic science. The result of the present study was in line with Hyland (2005b) who found that writers in soft fields used more interactional metadiscourse than hard ones.

Regarding interactional metadiscourse subcategories, ‘hedges’ were the most frequent interactional metadiscourse with ‘boosters’ and ‘self-mentions’ subcategories ranking the second and the third. This divergence is shown in figure 5:

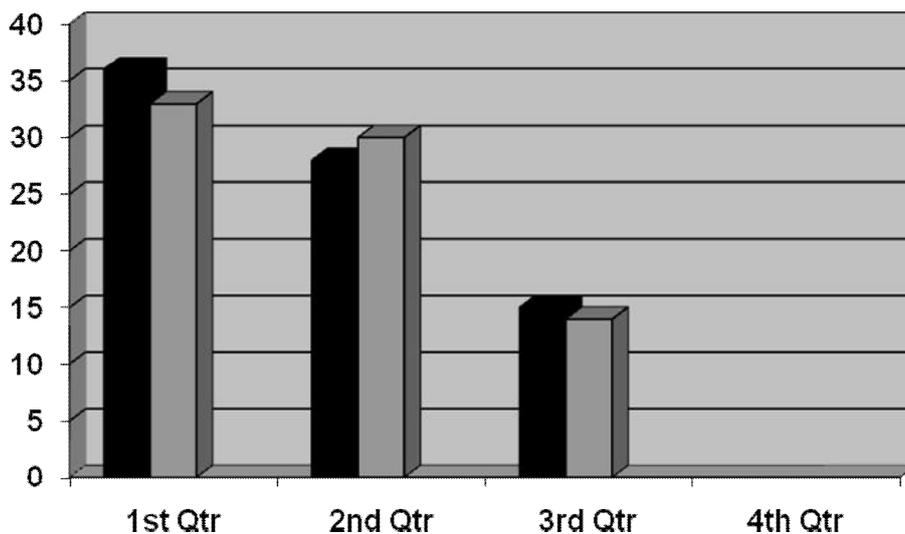


Figure 5: Categorical distributions of interactional subcategories Note, 1: Hedges 2: Boosters 3: self mentions
 Note (■): mechanic engineering (■): applied linguistic

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As the findings of Table 5 clearly indicate, G1 used 27.386 and G2 17.979 hedges per 1000 words. The result of Independent samples t-Test did confirm significant differences in the frequency of this category (p -value < 0.05).

Table 5 - The Independent Samples T-Test to compare categorical distribution of interactional subcategories in two groups of articles per every 1000 words (*Italic*=statistically significant difference)

Categories	Interactional Subcategories per 1000 words		Mean		Sig (p-value)
	G1	G2	G1	G2	G1/G2
Hedges	27.386	17.979	2.73863	1.79792	0.004
Boosters	9.325	13.966	0.93252	1.39667	<i>0.009</i>
Self-mentions	5.066	5.733	0.50669	0.55335	<i>0.0114</i>

Notes: G1: Articles in Applied G2: Articles in Mechanic engineering

As explained in previously, the use of ‘hedges’ makes it possible for the writer to both withhold from full commitment to a certain proposition and leave some opportunity for the reader to reject or accept or comment on the accuracy or inaccuracy of a particular argument raised by the writer. With this conception of ‘hedges’ in mind, applied linguistics articles prevented giving full commitments, provided more amount of space for their readers to recognize alternative voices and viewpoints as the following examples from my corpus shows:

(7) Thus, on the basis of the present results, one *might* conclude that the Correlation between LDV and holistic ratings may be affected substantially by writers’ L1 background (Scott 2002).

(8) Project managers who are subject to obedience pressure are *more likely* to continue failing or unprofitable project managers who are not (Chong & Syarifuddin 2010).

In regard to this subcategory, the result of the present study ran for Hyland’s (2008) study. Unlike ‘hedges’ which were mainly used in applied linguistic research articles, the frequent use of ‘boosters’ reported in mechanic engineering. The most instances of ‘boosters’ per 1000 words belong to G2 who used 13.966 compared to G1 who used only 9.325 (see Table 5). The result of Independent Samples t-Test did show significant differences in the use and frequency of this category (p -value < 0.05). This means that mechanic engineering writers were more quite certain and confident about what they claimed than applied linguistic writers (see Figure 5). As explained previously, these devices are used to obviate any alternative viewpoints on the part of the audience and emphasize the mutual experiences needed to draw the same conclusion as the writer. With this in their minds, both groups of writers capitalized on instances of this category to show both their certainty and confidence and make an interactional relationship with their readers as the following from the corpus clarify the point:

(9) While it is generally agreed that listening requires a combination of both forms of processing, their respective contribution to effective listening is still not *clearly* understood. (2006) applied linguistics, Graham.

(10) *It is clear that* the use of ultrasound energy (both in water-baths and ultrasonic probes) regarded as an increasing approach because increase the efficiency of the extraction and enhances enzymatic kinetics by disrupting cell members allowing the direct contact of cytosolic structures and the enzymes. (Moreda Pineiro et. al, 2008).

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Two possible explanations for the frequent use of ‘boosters’ by mechanic engineering writers could be provided. One might be the view that English mechanic engineering writers have more specialized knowledge of the field that makes able to talk in certainty and confidence (it is necessary to note that this rather tentative conclusion should not be generalized and is worth examining in a little more detail). The other could be accounted for by their inherent inclinations to talk in ‘absolute terms’. In regard to this subcategory the result of the present study supported the results obtained in Tse and Hyland’s (2008) studies. They found that writers in hard fields incorporated more instances of this subcategory in their writings. They attributed this divergence to their confidence in a judgment.

Unlike the subcategories of ‘hedges’, and ‘boosters’ that showed significant differences in two sets of articles the subcategory of ‘self mentions’ turned out to be neutral in both groups of articles written by native writers. In relation to ‘self mentions’ as the least frequent interactional metadiscourse, G1 employed 5.066, but G2 employed 5.733 per 1000 words (see Table 5). The result of the Independent Samples T-Test did not confirm significant differences in the use and frequency of this category (p -value > 0.05). Hyland (2001) attributed the use of self-mention by research article authors to their intention to be closely associated with their work or to mediate in the relationship between their arguments and their discourse communities. Also, as discussed previously, displaying a scholarly and authoritative persona in written discourse is “an act of personal choice, where the influence of individual personality, confidence, experience, and ideological preference all enter the mix to influence our style” (Hyland, 2008, p.158) as the following examples from the corpus show:

11) The relationship between these two domains is somewhat indistinct, but for the purposes of this paper, I will consider rhetorical knowledge as one essential dimension of genre knowledge.

(Tardy 2005)

12) We computed collision strength of O II using the Breit-Pauli R-matrix (BPRM).

(Nahar 2010)

This means that by incorporating this subcategory into their texts, English writers tended to leave more traces of themselves. One explanation is that making author’s presence in any written academic discourse gives a writer a community-approved persona and consolidates his credibility among other practitioners and community members. The result of this study went for the findings obtained in Tse and Hyland (2008) who found same instances of this subcategory in two fields.

3. CONCLUSION

To sum up, apart from the most general similarities in the two groups of writers, namely the very fact that all of them employ all metadiscoursal elements, many more differences were observed. To begin with, there were significant differences in the frequency of overall interactional metadiscourse elements whereas no significant differences were observed regarding the frequency of interactive metadiscourse between two groups of writers. That is to say, applied linguistic writers drew on more instances of interactional metadiscourse elements. This means that English applied linguistic writers appear to pay much more attention to how they project themselves into their texts by commenting on the possible accuracy or credibility of a claim, conveying an attitude towards both propositions and readers than mechanic engineering writers. But as regards interactive metadiscourse subcategories investigated in the present study, ‘evidentials’ were the most frequent interactive metadiscourse with ‘code glosses’ and ‘frame markers’ subcategories being the second and the third frequent subcategories in the corpus. Applied linguistic English writers incorporated more instances of ‘evidentials’ into their articles. Supplying enough evidence about one’s arguments (e.g., by referring to other writers’ works by directly or indirectly quoting them) to convince their readers of their claims

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seems to be more preferred style of writing by applied linguistic English writers than mechanic engineering ones. Unlike 'evidentials' which were significantly used by applied linguistics writers, 'code glosses' were showed to be used mainly by mechanic engineering writers. This indicates that such writers provide additional information for the reader to help him understand the intentions of the writer in case the reader might encounter unfamiliar terms or may not have enough knowledge about a particular point. Unlike the two subcategories of 'code glosses' and 'evidentials' which showed significant differences between two sets of articles, the use of the subcategory of 'frame markers' was not influenced by the discipline.

Regarding interactional subcategories (namely, 'hedges', 'boosters', and 'self-mentions'), mixed results were obtained. Mechanic engineering writers incorporated more instances of 'boosters' than their applied linguistic counterparts. Thus we might argue that the use of 'boosters' seem to be constrained and governed by the disciplines. In relation to 'hedges', applied linguistic writers used more instances of this subcategory. This means that they provide opportunity for the reader to comment on, oppose or approve the writer' argument that is an integral part of any affective writing (at least the finding of the present study are needed to consolidate or reject this claim). Unlike 'hedges' and 'boosters' that showed significant differences between two sets of articles, writers of two disciplines used approximately the same instances in these two disciplines.

Our small study suggest diverse experiences and membership of overlapping communities, including those of class, ethnicity, and gender (Kubota, 2003) influence how we understand our disciplinary participation and how we want to interact with our colleagues in the performance of a professional academic identity. It is worth noting that the ways that writers use a language are not determined by their discipline, but constructed, and negotiated through social practices informed by particular social setting, relations of power, and participation in particular discourse community.

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English for Specific Purposes: a Course Fit for the Educational Needs of the 21st Century Preschoolers

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Abstract: This paper deals with English for Specific Purposes intended for the future preschool teachers. In the College of Professional Studies for Preschool Teachers in Pirot the course of English for Specific Purposes was launched in this school year and its initiation is the result of perennial research and the necessary feedback from responsive parents and various employers engaged in preschool education. The aim of the course is to raise the competence and savvy of the future preschool teachers and make them fit for children's growing needs by building and improving their specialized vocabulary, enlarging their knowledge on the subject matter and teaching them how to independently choose, adapt and apply a large quantity of material suitable for preschool children. The course builds on English for General Purposes, and it is based on the expansion of the existing knowledge of the future preschool teachers by directing them towards more vocational language. The aim of the course is to enable the future preschool teachers to provide the preschool children with professional and conducive English language training regardless of their preexisting knowledge of English. Every student is offered the opportunity to acquire the necessary skills and vocabulary which would help them teach English at a basic preschool level. The course content is based on short forms (nursery rhymes, chants, tongue twisters), games, fables, short stories, tales and fairy tales. Being rather singular in nature, this particular content requires a specific approach to syntax, lexis, discourse and semantics.

Key words: ESP, EGP, preschool teachers, vocational college, English language training, learning-centered approach, holistic approach

1. INTRODUCTION

The importance of language learning need hardly be emphasised. The 20th century introduced English as a global language, but it is the 21st century with its advanced technology and increasing demands which dictates the minimum knowledge necessary to survive in the global jungle. A proper education aimed at particular needs of a modern man is not only a prerequisite for a decent and successful life, but also a precondition for the future. Nowadays children start learning English at a very early age, while preschool institutions are not always in a position to employ English teachers to work with preschool children. Even if they were, the approach that English teachers generally apply is usually focused exclusively on language as such, disregarding children's specific interests, emotions, affinities and needs.

Since preschool children stand at the very basis of every education system it is extremely important that their educators be well versed in those areas of interest which can satisfy their needs for knowledge at the early stage of education. In order to educate a 21st century preschool teacher the College of Professional Studies for Preschool Teachers in Pirot has launched several foreign language courses which have been

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founded on specific needs of our students, as well as on holistic imperatives of our time. One of those courses is an ESP course for preschool teachers.

Well aware of the specific educational needs of our students we have designed a curriculum which would help them not only develop their language skills and become capable of teaching English to preschool children, but also learn something new about teaching methodology at the preschool level.

The purpose of this paper is to present the ESP ideas incorporated into an ESP course for preschool teachers bearing in mind their specific language needs and that which is expected of them when they finally reach kindergartens. In order to develop the right methodology and stay in the realm of the preschool children interests and needs the course has been founded on close collaboration between language teachers, parents, preschool teachers, students, as well as pedagogy and psychology teachers.

2. FROM GENERAL ENGLISH TO ENGLISH FOR PRESCHOOLERS

Since pedagogy is, broadly speaking, a social science which provides general insights into the study and practice of teaching, mentioning Piaget and reading texts about Summerhill or Reggio Emilia was for a long time a poor excuse for a coverage of pedagogical issues within the corpus of a foreign language for preschool teachers. However, it is a long way from knowing how to properly pronounce the names of renown pedagogues or to recognise the examples of good practice to becoming an initiator and generator of innovative approaches to language learning. During the past few years our students attended a single two-semester English course for General Purposes which addressed issues of preschool pedagogy, pedagogical theories and their authors, etc. Essentially, it was an attempt to teach pedagogy-based science vocabulary to future preschool teachers, which would make sense if our students were being educated for teaching the preschool children the significance of the Froebel gifts. However, that certainly is and should not be the aim of a language course at a College for Preschool Teachers, at least not within the basic study programs. Upon the completion of this particular EGP course the only benefit that students could possibly derive would be the recognition of a dozen key words in the field of pedagogy, the ability to discern the notions related to Bloom's Wheel or maybe to properly write the name of Lev Vygotsky.

This EGP course, however, did not deal with the needs of future preschool teachers. It merely dealt with pedagogical theory in English, which is an end in itself. Therefore, not only was there a need for an ESP course, but something needed to be done with the EGP course as well, because in this form it could never have been the proper basis for a potential ESP course. Talking about the relationship between the ESP and EGP Strevens proposed in 1988 that ESP is "in contrast with general English" (Strevens 1988, 2). However, the authors of our course were led by the ideas of Dudley-Evans and St. John who built a lot on Strevens's ideas, but abandoned this particular one. EGP should not be observed as being in contrast with ESP, but as its support, its foundation.

3. GENERAL ENGLISH AS A BASE FOR ESP

Establishing the ESP course would not have been possible without properly designed EGP whose role was to offer a suitable context. Namely, when it comes to language training within vocational education, general knowledge should always offer a necessary broader framework within which it becomes possible to choose and build a specific world of LSP (Language for Specific Purposes). Hence, at the College for Preschool Teachers in Pirot some major changes have been made with respect to EGP with the aim of laying the foundations of ESP.

The changes have occurred as a result of perennial evaluation, self-evaluation and research, as well as a result of meeting the needs of students, parents and preschool children. The results of the quality

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assurance surveys undoubtedly confirmed that the students desired to become trained in performing specific tasks in the field of English language on a preschool level. Furthermore, in a survey employers and parents identified the need for a universal, well-trained preschool teachers who would be able to meet the educational needs of the 21st century preschoolers, but who would at the same time be aware of the significance of a lifelong learning, and who would search, recognise, accept and even become the examples of good practice.

In accordance with the aforementioned results and indicators, language teachers at our College have designed the courses of EGP and ESP which are methodologically, pedagogically and linguistically in compliance. We started from the idea that the content, i.e. its lexical, phonetic, syntactic and semantic issues, should reflect the interests of preschool children and therefore the interests of our students, because those two are inseparable. As a result, we have decided that the content should encompass traditional values as well as current themes interesting for present-day preschoolers with the aim of enabling our students to perform practical work and teach foreign language in preschool institutions. Such content is based entirely on playing games, singing and storytelling. The role of EGP would be to familiarise the students with theoretical aspects and benefits of nursery rhymes, songs, fables, games and fairy tales in preschool education.

Why this particular content? How to choose it? What kind of games should the children play? What sorts of entertaining and educational interactive games are there for children? Why are games, fables and fairy tales important for preschool children? What should we bear in mind as storytellers? How to become a storyteller? How to be creative in designing the props, costumes and other material for the class? The answers to these questions the students should be able to find by attending the mandatory EGP through phonetic text processing, reading, singing and mastering the vocabulary typical for the chosen content. All those who attend EGP should acquire the necessary knowledge and receive guidelines for potential work in a foreign language with preschool children.

For those who wish to learn more, the College offers a new optional two-semester ESP course, which builds directly on theoretical issues necessary for a more practical and concrete approach to language.

4. ESP – CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT AND COURSE DESIGN

Since we have ventured to design a completely new curriculum and approach to vocational English the entire endeavour started by researching and observing the needs of students and preschool children, but also by attempting to anticipate the market demands. Bearing in mind that language teachers do not extensively deal with teaching methodology and pedagogy, the help of pedagogues in the process of the course design was more than precious. The ESP course is basically an authentic HOW TO course – how to teach English to preschool children. The content, aims and outcomes of the course have been defined by the language teachers, and every particular teacher had to search or create particular content items. The content includes nursery rhymes, tongue twisters, chants, games, fables, fairy tales and stories. During the course the students are referred to specific vocabulary which they need to acquire and master, paying special attention to precise, accurate and clear pronunciation, to elocution, intonation, accents, mime, gestures, storytelling, as well as additional material and props without which the entire process would be far more challenging and wearisome. During the course students learn how to develop lesson plans for different curriculum items, how to organise primary and secondary activities, how to distinguish between acceptable and unacceptable content, how to assess the content with respect to age groups, how to adapt the content according to its length and the level of difficulty to fit the requirements and abilities of preschool children. However, linguistic aims and contents are not the only aspect this course pays attention to. Through a comprehensive, holistic approach students learn how to be solicitous about children's emotions, how to activate the shy and calm down the hyperactive, how to establish balance between

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cooperative and competitive activities and to which of these they should give priority. Last but not least, through course exercises the students simulate the class activities they had prepared beforehand, i.e. they represent it in the same manner they would do it in a kindergarten.

Upon finishing such a presentation they perform self-evaluation of their own presentation in order to note down both deficiencies as well as valuable aspects of their class performance.

Students do not only develop a written lesson plan. They also prepare, design and create the necessary props and materials. While preparing the lesson the students should consider the manner of presentation as well as the length of sentences, phrases and words that they plan to use. They are encouraged to repeat key words within the chosen content, to *recycle* vocabulary by associating a song with a game, a game with a fable, or a fable with a fairy tale and by trying to determine similar language focus in order to repeat the language as much as possible to facilitate its acquisition. Students are instructed how to elicit concepts and meanings from children and to learn fables and fairy tales by heart in order to maintain natural atmosphere during the storytelling. The art and craft of storytelling is another important aspect of the course: how to organise a group, which props and materials to use, how to set the rules, how to keep attention, how to use the voice pitch and timbre, mime and gestures, which syllable or a word to stress, etc.

Students are encouraged to write their own original materials (fables, fairy tales, stories) through their essays, seminar and term papers. At the end of a semester they are required to prepare their own material and perform it by using the necessary material. Moreover, students are encouraged to use audio and video materials, to discuss and compare various contents by watching cartoons, films, video and audio clips. One of the course segments is dedicated to contrasting analysis of children contents: the differences between the contents of the 20th and 21st centuries. We also aim to answer the questions such as: is Mary Poppins outdated and why? are avatars, transforms and animatrices a part of an average 21st century kid's interests? how to make a proper selection of materials offered by our digital world?

Hence, the course attempts to cover both cognitive and pedagogical aspects of language learning, and it starts from the interests and benefits of a contemporary child, as well as the professional needs of students.

5. THE ROLES OF A TEACHER/PRACTITIONER IN ESP

According to Dudley-Evans and St.John there are five key roles for the ESP practitioner: teacher, course designer and materials provider, collaborator, researcher, evaluator [cited in K.Gatehouse, "Key Issues in English for Specific Purposes (ESP) Curriculum Development", 2001]. Establishing a course such as ESP requires years of experience, research, evaluation, inquiry, self-evaluation and analysis in order to reach well-grounded and valuable conclusions and obtain necessary information. Bearing in mind that the ESP course at the College for Preschool Teachers in Pirot is rather unique, all language teachers had to work together relying on:

- a) basic theoretical concepts in the field of vocational language in use,
- b) current and acknowledged materials in English,
- c) students' needs as future preschool teachers,
- d) anticipated market requirements in the near future,
- e) the interests of preschool children,
- f) pedagogues, psychologists and experts in performing arts as a methodological support for the course,
- g) parents as extremely important agents and contributors to the profession in question.

However, that which makes the course so singular is the fact that our ESP language teacher/practitioner is at the same time a storyteller, a singer, an actor and a child. Students are not only taught language, which is without a doubt the very essence of the course. They are also encouraged to

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participate in the realisation of the course together with their teacher whose assignment is to teach, give directions, organise activities, and remind the students that working with children implies returning to childhood every so often.

6. WHAT CAN THE STUDENTS DO UPON COMPLETING THE ESP COURSE?

Upon completing our ESP course for preschool teachers the students will be able to prepare lesson plans for their English classes, to choose materials and adapt them bearing in mind the needs and the age of preschool children, to determine key words which they should set as a language focus of their class, to sing and pronounce words, phrases and sentences punctually, clearly and fluently, to tell stories and dramatise texts, and to design activities in accordance with the content they process. In short, the students will have the ability to give lessons in English which the children will enjoy and learn the language at the same time without any excessive effort or pressure. Regardless of their previous knowledge of English the students can master all these activities, because the course has been designed not only to teach the students the craft of teaching but also to make them become aware of the importance of a lifelong learning and keeping-up-to-date with the times. The language taught in this class is neither extensive nor difficult, but it requires precision in expression and presentation. The selected course vocabulary is suitable for preschool children, and so is the length of words, phrases and sentences. Everything is short and concise, and followed by audio-visual content, with a lot of activities which can assist memory and a lot of repetition to facilitate learning.

Last but not least, the students will be able to evaluate their work and to pose questions based on the goals that they had set for themselves. This kind of self-evaluation might help them in preparing their future lesson plans based on the contents they choose by themselves. Their self-evaluation should be based, among other things, on the following questions: have the children memorised the selected language focus items? have they managed to understand a song, fable or a story based on everything that you had shown them? have they enjoyed or have they been bored? were there enough versatile activities and were they challenging and demanding enough?, etc.

Through an EGP course whose function is first and foremost educational and informative, the students would not be able to acquire enough of narrow expertise and they would not have the opportunity to apply such knowledge if there were not for an ESP course. It is not enough to know WHAT, one should also learn HOW to do something, which is precisely what an ESP course offers. Technical vocabulary chosen from those materials which are deemed inevitable regarding preschool education, structures which are easy to remember and teach, exercises on pronunciation which ought to be precise and punctual, and a written form which helps the students to apply what they had learnt are just some of the aspect of this course. Judging from the responses so far and from students' reactions, the ESP course at the College for Preschool Teachers in Pirot was a step in the right direction. Less pedagogical theory *per se* and more pedagogy at work, at least when it comes to teaching English. Hopefully even Piaget would approve of it.

7. CONCLUSION

Bearing in mind that ESP is learning-centred, we have designed a course based on educational needs of our students. One of the most important qualities of such a course is a more than active and willing cooperation of students and their contribution to the course. It is one of the best indicators of the success of the course.

The students invest a lot of energy in it. They play, sing, make materials, draw, write stories and acquire knowledge in the process. They have the opportunity to see for themselves that such an approach is

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almost always successful. If it is instructive, challenging and fun for them, how much more will it be for the children?!

The advantages of ESP are more than obvious. Aside from teaching the students how to learn, master and use technical vocabulary, they also develop a sense of purpose. They know that upon completing this course they will have the abilities to do something concrete, practical, and tangible. They will know HOW to do something, and that is the ultimate goal of education. Students leave the class satisfied and delighted because the class has fulfilled its purpose. Like children, they too are expected to expand and enrich their own mental lexicon and that happens invariably, because the material which they use does not set impossible goals. On the contrary, the content is interesting, educational, and challenging, and every new lesson helps them become better in lesson planning, pronunciation, storytelling, which would later enable the children to learn the language seamlessly, quickly and permanently.

ESP approaches the teaching process from the point of view of the 21st century children and their educational needs. Teacher is the one who finds and designs contents and materials, suggests the ways in which they should be realised and demonstrates how and with what teaching aids the teaching process is going to be successful. Materials and teaching aids encompass everything from the simplest students' hand drawings over PowerPoint presentations followed by audio-visual materials all the way to an IWB, which is especially interesting and useful when working with preschool children.

Aside from numerous obvious advantages it possesses, a course designed in such a fashion is by no means perfect. First and foremost, although we wish all students to obtain the opportunity to learn how to teach foreign language in preschool institutions, the differences in the knowledge of English that the students possess inevitably condition the success and the speed of learning. The course itself implies the combination of modern technology with confirmed materials, although we cannot expect that every preschool teacher have modern technology at their disposal in their future working environments the way that they have it during the course. Though students are taught how to deal with different working conditions and situations, the success of the teaching process depends upon adequate equipment and the means that preschool teachers have at their disposal.

However, the advantages of the ESP course emphasised in this paper are far more conspicuous and significant than its disadvantages. A constant scientific and market research, an obligation to recognise the needs of students and instill the necessity for and awareness of a lifelong learning will help the ESP courses in this field become more successful, creative and effective. Such a course provides the students with practical knowledge, with the purpose of learning and the strategy to use the acquired knowledge. That kind of knowledge and skills equip the students with independence and self-reliance necessary to find and nurture in themselves the idea and sense of purpose for excellence that they wish to achieve in their profession.

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Peripheral Study of Second-Language Acquisition

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Abstract: This paper includes a discussion on the nature of SLA and different approaches towards it. Factors affecting the processes of SLA has been mentioned as vital to the topic. Some key terms related to SLA has been explained so as the reader may feel at ease while going through this paper. The factors influencing the second language acquisition are included in this research as they are to be kept in while dealing with the topic of SLA. The target of research is to enhance the awareness among teachers and learners the essentials of second language acquisition.

Key words: inter-language, sociolinguistic, strategic competence, learning mechanisms fossilization

1. INTRODUCTION

Second-language acquisition or second-language learning is the process by which people learn a second language. It is also a scientific discipline devoted to studying that process. Second language refers to any language learned in addition to a person's first language. Although the concept is named second language acquisition, it can also incorporate the learning of third, fourth or subsequent languages. Second-language acquisition relates to the activities of learners; it does not refer to practices in language teaching.

The academic discipline of second-language acquisition is a sub-discipline of applied linguistics. It is broad-based and relatively new. As well as the various branches of linguistics, second-language acquisition is also closely related to psychology, cognitive psychology, and education. To separate the academic discipline from the learning process itself, the terms second-language acquisition research, second-language studies, and second-language acquisition studies are also used.

Second-language acquisition can incorporate heritage language learning, but it does not usually incorporate bilingualism. Most SLA researchers see bilingualism as being the end result of learning a language, not the process itself, and see the term as referring to native-like fluency. Writers in fields such as education and psychology, however, often use bilingualism loosely to refer to all forms of multilingualism. Second-language acquisition is also not to be contrasted with the acquisition of a foreign language; rather, the learning of second languages and the learning of foreign languages involve the same fundamental processes in different situations.

There has been much debate about exactly how language is learned, and many issues are still unresolved. There have been many theories of second-language acquisition that have been proposed, but none has been accepted as an overarching theory by all SLA researchers. Due to the interdisciplinary nature of the field of second-language acquisition, this is not expected to happen in the foreseeable future.

2. SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION VS FIRST LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

People who learn a second language differ from children learning their first language in a number of ways. Perhaps the most striking of these is that very few adult second-language learners reach the same competence as native speakers of that language. Children learning a second language are more likely to achieve native-like fluency than adults, but in general it is very rare for someone speaking a second language to pass completely for a native speaker. When a learner's speech plateaus in this way it is known as fossilization.

In addition, some errors that second-language learners make in their speech originate in their first language. For example, Spanish speakers learning English may say "Is raining" rather than "It is raining", leaving out the subject of the sentence. French speakers learning English, however, do not usually make the same mistake. This is because sentence subjects can be left out in Spanish, but not in French. This influence of the first language on the second is known as language transfer.

Also, when people learn a second language, the way they speak their first language changes in subtle ways. These changes can be with any aspect of language, from pronunciation and syntax to gestures the learner makes and the things they tend to notice. For example, French speakers who spoke English as a second language pronounced the /t/ sound in French differently from monolingual French speakers. This effect of the second language on the first led Vivian Cook to propose the idea of multi-competence, which sees the different languages a person speaks not as separate systems, but as related systems in their mind.

3. LEARNER LANGUAGE

Learner language is the written or spoken language produced by a learner. It is also the main type of data used in second-language acquisition research. Much research in second-language acquisition is concerned with the internal representations of a language in the mind of the learner, and in how those representations change over time. It is not yet possible to inspect these representations directly with brain scans or similar techniques, so SLA researchers are forced to make inferences about these rules from learners' speech or writing.

3.1 Item and system learning

There are two types of learning that second-language learners engage in. The first is item learning, or the learning of formulaic chunks of language. These chunks can be individual words, set phrases, or formulas like Can I have a pen? The second kind of learning is system learning, or the learning of systematic rules.

3.2 Interlanguage

Originally, attempts to describe learner language were based on comparing different languages and on analyzing learners' errors. However, these approaches weren't able to predict all the errors that learners made when in the process of learning a second language. For example, Serbo-Croat speakers learning English may say "What does Pat doing now?", although this is not a valid sentence in either language.

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To explain these kind of systematic errors, the idea of the interlanguage was developed. An interlanguage is an emerging language system in the mind of a second-language learner. A learner's interlanguage is not a deficient version of the language being learned filled with random errors, nor is it a language purely based on errors introduced from the learner's first language. Rather, it is a language in its own right, with its own systematic rules. It is possible to view most aspects of language from an interlanguage perspective, including grammar, phonology, lexicon, and pragmatics.

There are three different processes that influence the creation of interlanguages:

1. Language transfer: Learners fall back on their mother tongue to help create their language system. This is now recognized not as a mistake, but as a process that all learners go through.
2. Overgeneralization: Learners use rules from the second language in a way that native speakers would not. For example, a learner may say "I goed home", overgeneralizing the English rule of adding -ed to create past tense verb forms.
3. Simplification: Learners use a highly simplified form of language, similar to speech by children or in pidgins. This may be related to linguistic universals.

The concept of interlanguage has become very widespread in SLA research, and is often a basic assumption made by researchers.

3.3 Sequence of acquisition

In the 1970s several studies investigated the order in which learners acquired different grammatical structures. These studies showed that there was little change in this order among learners with different first languages. Furthermore, it showed that the order was the same for adults and children, and that it did not even change if the learner had language lessons. This proved that there were factors other than language transfer involved in learning second languages, and was a strong confirmation of the concept of interlanguage.

However, the studies did not find that the orders were exactly the same. Although there were remarkable similarities in the order in which all learners learned second-language grammar, there were still some differences among individuals and among learners with different first languages. It is also difficult to tell when exactly a grammatical structure has been learned, as learners may use structures correctly in some situations but not in others. Thus it is more accurate to speak of sequences of acquisition, where particular grammatical features in a language have a fixed sequence of development, but the overall order of acquisition is less rigid.

3.4 Variability

Although second-language acquisition proceeds in discrete sequences, it does not progress from one step of a sequence to the next in an orderly fashion. There can be considerable variability in features of learners' interlanguage while progressing from one stage to the next. For example, in one study by Rod Ellis a learner used both "No look my card" and "Don't look my card" while playing a game of bingo. A small fraction of variation in interlanguage is free variation, when the learner uses two forms

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interchangeably. However, most variation is systemic variation, variation which depends on the context of utterances the learner makes. Forms can vary depending on linguistic context, such as whether the subject of a sentence is a pronoun or a noun; they can vary depending on social context, such as using formal expressions with superiors and informal expressions with friends; and also, they can vary depending on psycholinguistic context, or in other words, on whether learners have the chance to plan what they are going to say. The causes of variability are a matter of great debate among SLA researchers.

3.5 Language transfer

One important difference between first language acquisition and second language acquisition is that the process of second-language acquisition is influenced by languages that the learner already knows. This influence is known as language transfer. Language transfer is a complex phenomenon resulting from interaction between learners' prior linguistic knowledge, the target-language input they encounter, and their cognitive processes. Language transfer is not always from the learner's native language; it can also be from a second language, or a third.[23] Neither is it limited to any particular domain of language; language transfer can occur in grammar, pronunciation, vocabulary, discourse, and reading.

One situation in which language transfer often occurs is when learners sense a similarity between a feature of a language that they already know and a corresponding feature of the interlanguage they have developed. If this happens, the acquisition of more complicated language forms may be delayed in favor of simpler language forms that resemble those of the language the learner is familiar with. Learners may also decline to use some language forms at all if they are perceived as being too distant from their first language.

Language transfer has been the subject of several studies, and many aspects of it remain unexplained. Various hypotheses have been proposed to explain language transfer, but there is no single widely-accepted explanation of why it occurs.

4. EXTERNAL FACTORS

4.1 Input and interaction

The primary factor affecting language acquisition appears to be the input that the learner receives. Stephen Krashen took a very strong position on the importance of input, asserting that comprehensible input is all that is necessary for second-language acquisition. Krashen pointed to studies showing that the length of time a person stays in a foreign country is closely linked with his level of language acquisition. Further evidence for input comes from studies on reading: large amounts of free voluntary reading have a significant positive effect on learners' vocabulary, grammar, and writing. Input is also the mechanism by which people learn languages according to the universal grammar model.

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The type of input may also be important. One tenet of Krashen's theory is that input should not be grammatically sequenced. He claims that such sequencing, as found in language classrooms where lessons involve practicing a "structure of the day", is not necessary, and may even be harmful.

While input is of vital importance, Krashen's assertion that only input matters in second-language acquisition has been contradicted by more recent research. For example, students enrolled in French-language immersion programs in Canada still produced non-native-like grammar when they spoke, even though they had years of meaning-focused lessons and their listening skills were statistically native-level. Output appears to play an important role, and among other things, can help provide learners with feedback, make them concentrate on the form of what they are saying, and help them to automatize their language knowledge. These processes have been codified in the theory of comprehensible output.

Researchers have also pointed to interaction in the second language as being important for acquisition. According to Long's interaction hypothesis the conditions for acquisition are especially good when interacting in the second language; specifically, conditions are good when a breakdown in communication occurs and learners must negotiate for meaning. The modifications to speech arising from interactions like this help make input more comprehensible, provide feedback to the learner, and push learners to modify their speech.

4.2 Social aspects

Although the dominant perspective in second-language research is a cognitive one, from the early days of the discipline researchers have also acknowledged that social aspects play an important role. There have been many different approaches to sociolinguistic study of second-language acquisition, and indeed, according to Rod Ellis, this plurality has meant that "sociolinguistic SLA is replete with a bewildering set of terms referring to the social aspects of L2 acquisition". Common to each of these approaches, however, is a rejection of language as a purely psychological phenomenon; instead, sociolinguistic research views the social context in which language is learned as essential for a proper understanding of the acquisition process.

Ellis identifies three types of social structure which can affect the acquisition of second languages: sociolinguistic setting, specific social factors, and situational factors. Sociolinguistic setting refers to the role of the second language in society, such as whether it is spoken by a majority or a minority of the population, whether its use is widespread or restricted to a few functional roles, or whether the society is predominantly bilingual or monolingual. Ellis also includes the distinction of whether the second language is learned in a natural or an educational setting. Specific social factors that can affect second-language acquisition include age, gender, social class, and ethnic identity, with ethnic identity being the one that has received most research attention. Situational factors are those which vary between each social interaction. For example, a learner may use more polite language when talking to someone of higher social status, but more informal language when talking with friends.

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There have been several models developed to explain social effects on language acquisition. Schumann's acculturation model proposes that learners' rate of development and ultimate level of language achievement is a function of the "social distance" and the "psychological distance" between learners and the second-language community. In Schumann's model the social factors are most important, but the degree to which learners are comfortable with learning the second language also plays a role. Another sociolinguistic model is Gardner's socio-educational model, which was designed to explain classroom language acquisition. The inter-group model proposes "ethnolinguistic vitality" as a key construct for second-language acquisition. Language socialization is an approach with the premise that "linguistic and cultural knowledge are constructed through each other", and saw increased attention after the year 2000. Finally, Norton's theory of social identity is an attempt to codify the relationship between power, identity, and language acquisition.

5. INTERNAL FACTORS

Internal factors affecting second-language acquisition are those which stem from the learner's own mind. Attempts to account for the internal mechanisms of second-language acquisition can be divided into three general strands: cognitive, sociocultural, and linguistic. These explanations are not all compatible, and often differ significantly.

5.1 Cognitive approaches

Much modern research in second-language acquisition has taken a cognitive approach. Cognitive research is concerned with the mental processes involved in language acquisition, and how they can explain the nature of learners' language knowledge. This area of research is based in the more general area of cognitive science, and uses many concepts and models used in more general cognitive theories of learning. As such, cognitive theories view second-language acquisition as a special case of more general learning mechanisms in the brain. This puts them in direct contrast with linguistic theories, which posit that language acquisition uses a unique process different from other types of learning.

The dominant model in cognitive approaches to second-language acquisition, and indeed in all second-language acquisition research, is the computational model. The computational model involves three stages. In the first stage, learners retain certain features of the language input in short-term memory. (This retained input is known as intake.) Then, learners convert some of this intake into second-language knowledge, which is stored in long-term memory. Finally, learners use this second-language knowledge to produce spoken output. Cognitive theories attempt to codify both the nature of the mental representations of intake and language knowledge, and the mental processes which underlie these stages.

In the early days of second-language acquisition research interlanguage was seen as the basic representation of second-language knowledge; however, more recent research has taken a number of different approaches in characterizing the mental representation of language knowledge. There are theories that hypothesize that learner language is inherently variable, and there is the functionalist perspective that sees acquisition of language as intimately tied to the function it provides. Some researchers make the distinction between implicit and explicit language knowledge, and some between declarative and procedural language knowledge. There have also been approaches that argue for a dual-mode system in which some language knowledge is stored as rules, and other language knowledge as items.

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The mental processes that underlie second-language acquisition can be broken down into micro-processes and macro-processes. Micro-processes include attention; working memory; integration and restructuring, the process by which learners change their interlanguage systems; and monitoring, the conscious attending of learners to their own language output. Macro-processes include the distinction between intentional learning and incidental learning; and also the distinction between explicit and implicit learning. Some of the notable cognitive theories of second-language acquisition include the nativization model, the multidimensional model and processability theory, emergentist models, the competition model, and skill-acquisition theories.

Other cognitive approaches have looked at learners' speech production, particularly learners' speech planning and communication strategies. Speech planning can have an effect on learners' spoken output, and research in this area has focused on how planning affects three aspects of speech: complexity, accuracy, and fluency. Of these three, planning effects on fluency has had the most research attention. Communication strategies are conscious strategies that learners employ to get around any instances of communication breakdown they may experience. Their effect on second-language acquisition is unclear, with some researchers claiming they help it, and others claiming the opposite.

5.2 Socio-cultural approaches

While still essentially being based in the cognitive tradition, sociocultural theory has a fundamentally different set of assumptions to approaches to second-language acquisition based on the computational model. Furthermore, although it is closely affiliated with other social approaches, it is a theory of mind and not of general social explanations of language acquisition. According to Ellis, "It is important to recognize ... that this paradigm, despite the label 'sociocultural' does not seek to explain how learners acquire the cultural values of the L2 but rather how knowledge of an L2 is internalized through experiences of a sociocultural nature." The origins of sociocultural theory lie in the work of Lev Vygotsky, a Russian psychologist.

5.3 Linguistic Approaches

Linguistic approaches to explaining second-language acquisition spring from the wider study of linguistics. They differ from cognitive approaches and sociocultural approaches in that they consider language knowledge to be unique and distinct from any other type of knowledge. The linguistic research tradition in second-language acquisition has developed in relative isolation from the cognitive and sociocultural research traditions, and as of 2010 the influence from the wider field of linguistics was still strong. Two main strands of research can be identified in the linguistic tradition: approaches informed by universal grammar, and typological approaches.

Typological universals are principles that hold for all the world's languages. They are found empirically, by surveying different languages and deducing which aspects of them could be universal; these aspects are then checked against other languages to verify the findings. The interlanguages of second-language learners have been shown to obey typological universals, and some researchers have suggested that typological universals may constrain interlanguage development.

The theory of universal grammar was proposed by Noam Chomsky in the 1950s, and has enjoyed considerable popularity in the field of linguistics. It is a narrowly-focused theory that only

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concentrates on describing the linguistic competence of an individual, as opposed to mechanisms of learning. It consists of a set of principles, which are universal and constant, and a set of parameters, which can be set differently for different languages. The "universals" in universal grammar differ from typological universals in that they are a mental construct derived by researchers, whereas typological universals are readily verifiable by data from world languages. It is widely accepted among researchers in the universal grammar framework that all first-language learners have access to universal grammar; this is not the case for second-language learners, however, and much research in the context of second-language acquisition has focused on what level of access learners may have.

6. INDIVIDUAL VARIATION

There is considerable variation in the rate at which people learn second languages, and in the language level that they ultimately reach. Some learners learn quickly and reach a near-native level of competence, but others learn slowly and get stuck at relatively early stages of acquisition, despite living in the country where the language is spoken for several years. The reason for this disparity was first addressed with the study of language learning aptitude in the 1950s, and later with the good language learner studies in the 1970s. More recently research has focused on a number of different factors that affect individuals' language learning, in particular strategy use, social and societal influences, personality, motivation, and anxiety. The relationship between age and the ability to learn languages has also been a subject of long-standing debate.

The issue of age was first addressed with the critical period hypothesis. The strict version of this hypothesis states that there is a cut-off age at about 12, after which learners lose the ability to fully learn a language. This strict version has since been rejected for second-language acquisition, as adult learners have been observed who reach native-like levels of pronunciation and general fluency. However, in general, adult learners of a second-language rarely achieve the native-like fluency that children display, despite often progressing faster in the initial stages. This has led to speculation that age is indirectly related to other, more central factors that affect language learning.

There has been considerable attention paid to the strategies which learners use when learning a second language. Strategies have been found to be of critical importance, so much so that strategic competence has been suggested as a major component of communicative competence. Strategies are commonly divided into learning strategies and communicative strategies, although there are other ways of categorizing them. Learning strategies are techniques used to improve learning, such as mnemonics or using a dictionary. Communicative strategies are strategies a learner uses to convey meaning even when she doesn't have access to the correct form, such as using pro-forms like *thing*, or using non-verbal means such as gestures.

6.1 Affective factors

The learner's attitude to the learning process has also been identified as being critically important to second-language acquisition. Anxiety in language-learning situations has been almost unanimously shown to be detrimental to successful learning. A related factor, personality, has also received attention. There has been discussion about the effects of extrovert and introvert personalities.

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However, one study has found that there were no significant differences between extroverts and introverts on the way they achieve success in a second language.

Social attitudes such as gender roles and community views toward language learning have also proven critical. Language learning can be severely hampered by cultural attitudes, with a frequently cited example being the difficulty of Navajo children in learning English. Also, the motivation of the individual learner is of vital importance to the success of language learning. Studies have consistently shown that intrinsic motivation, or a genuine interest in the language itself, is more effective over the long-term than extrinsic motivation, as in learning a language for a reward such as high grades or praise.

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“If You Give a Man a Fish...”

Valentina Yordanova

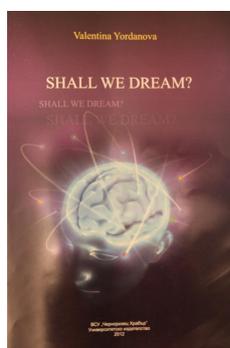
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Abstract: The paper aims at sharing experience how to write an attractive contemporary course-book for psychology students following the motto “If you give a man a fish, you will feed him for today; if you teach a man to fish, you will feed him for a lifetime.” It focuses on the structure and model layout of a lesson in the course-book “Shall We Dream?”. Emphasis is placed on the specifics of creating a specialized language course-book in accordance with the terminology-functional approach. First, the paper provides a brief overview of the tasks which each author of such books faces: thematic selection of texts and structure of each unit. Then it concentrates in detail on the suggested unified structure of each unit as to help students get easily oriented: Pre-reading, While-reading and After-reading tasks; “I love rules” grammar section; Writing tasks (summaries), as well as a number of enjoyable activities (e.g.crosswords) keeping the learners interested. Finally, follow-up activities are suggested which include Listening and viewing tasks (Webwatch section), offering freely available from the Internet extractable videos with exercises to develop listening skills through authentic English materials in the field of psychology; students’ comments on the quotations placed at the beginning of each unit to express their own opinions using the key vocabulary, etc. During the presentation, handouts of some activities will be provided. Some extracts from the video materials may be shown.

Key words: psychology, specialized English, author’s course-book, Shall We Dream?

“If you give a man a fish, you will feed him for today; if you teach a man to fish, you will feed him for a lifetime.”

Strongly convinced in the significance of the wise man’s insight dating a few centuries ago, as well as desiring to teach my students how to “go fishing” on their own in order to cope with the infinite world of literature on ESP, I started creating the course-book “Shall We Dream?”.



One of the biggest challenges an author of a course-book for specialized studies faces is the list of topics to be included. As Lynne Flowerdew mentions, “needs analysis, carried out to establish the

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“what” and the “how” of a course, is the first stage in ESP course development, followed by curriculum design, materials selection, methodology, assessment, and evaluation. However, these stages should not be seen as separate, proceeding in a linear fashion. Rather, as noted by Dudley - Evans and St John (1998) , they are interdependent overlapping activities in a cyclical process.” (Flowerdew 2013, 326) At Varna Free University psychology students study a broad range of disciplines. The text material should express the specifics of the main subjects whereas the number of topics is limited by the workload. Apparently it is impossible to cover all the interesting to the students issues, and this is not the objective of foreign language teachers. In fact, their task is to familiarize students with the basic terminology and typical style of scientific English language used in the field of psychology. That is why the first step is determining the topics, which is influenced by the subjects already studied. In this particular case, they encompass mainly students’ knowledge in the field of Cognitive Psychology and represent the three types of mental processes – cognitive, independent and emotional-volitional. As a result of these factors the following topics were identified, which became titles of the units:

Unit 1. Introduction to Psychology

Unit 2. Biological Roots of Behaviour. Divisions of the Nervous System

Unit 3. Memory

Unit 4. Thinking

Unit 5. Sleep and Dreams

Unit 6. Motivation

Unit 7. A Hierarchy of Motives

Unit 8. Emotion

There are also three review units.

The sources are from the Internet, as well as from books available in the University library. A considerable amount of the texts have been processed (which includes shortening some of the sentences, combining texts by different authors), at the same time keeping the terms and the common collocations.

The second step was to structure the units in accordance with the functional-terminological approach and the students’ different levels of competence (Боян Алексиев, Добромира Хичева, Калина Байчева 2011). The course-book is suitable for students at B1.1 – B1.2 levels according to the European Language Framework.

Each unit follows uniform layout, which helps students get easily oriented during their studies: Pre-reading tasks, While-reading tasks, After-reading tasks. The Pre-reading tasks prepare students for the topic by means of a key words section and specialized multilingual online dictionary: <http://analogical-dictionary.sensagent.com/mf4951359/ML-en-bg/> (it is particularly valuable when teaching foreign students). The While-reading tasks section encompasses skimming, scanning, paragraph matching:

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WHILE-READING TASKS

1. Look at the text. Which part is about motivation? Which part is about the biological “pushes” and the cognitive and cultural “pulls”?

2. Tick the topics that you think will be mentioned in the first part.

- What motivates us to achieve?
- What is an instinct?
- What did Sigmund Freud suggest about biologically based sexual urges?
- What is a motivation?
- Is naming a behaviour the same as explaining it?
- How can motivation be viewed?

3. Read the first part quickly. Check your predictions. Number the questions in the chronological order they appear in the text (match them to the paragraphs).

The After-reading tasks division focuses on the consolidation of the active vocabulary and grammar learning material in the form of diverse and entertaining exercises. The reading comprehension questions are only part of the proposed activities. The rest of them include:

- matching key words and phrases from the text to their definitions, which are selected to describe most precisely the particular concept in the field of psychology and to be as short as possible. Appropriate for such definitions are Dictionary of Contemporary English. Pearson, Longman; Oxford Advanced Learners Dictionary; APA Dictionary of Psychology. American Psychological Association:

Match the words and phrases from the text with their definitions.

- | | |
|----------------------|------------------|
| 1/ memory | 5/ retrieval cue |
| 2/ short-term memory | 6/ rehearsal |
| 3/ long-term memory | 7/ chunk |
| 4/ sensory memory | |

- | | |
|--|-----|
| a/ a meaningful grouping of stimuli that can be stored as a unit in short-term memory | ___ |
| b/ the repetition of information that has entered short-term memory | ___ |
| c/ a stimulus that allows us to recall more easily information that is in long-term memory | ___ |
| d/ the process by which we encode, store, and retrieve information | ___ |
| e/ memory that stores information on a relatively permanent basis | ___ |
| f/ memory that holds information for fifteen to twenty-five seconds | ___ |
| g/ the initial, momentary storage of information, lasting only an instant | ___ |

- there are also tasks concerning terminological collocations:

Match the two halves to make word pairs from the text.

- | | |
|--------------|----------------|
| 1/ skeletal | a/ heartbeat |
| 2/ human | b/ input |
| 3/ spinal | c/ arteries |
| 4/ dilate | d/ tissue |
| 5/ motor | e/ muscles |
| 6/ mental | f/ blood sugar |
| 7/ character | g/ cells |
| 8/ focus | h/ existence |
| 9/ raise | i/ cord |

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- | | |
|-----------------|----------------|
| 10/ composed of | j/ traits |
| 11/ conduct | k/ abilities |
| 12/ accelerate | l/ output |
| 13/ brain | m/ attention |
| 14/ sensory | n/ electricity |

Use some of the collocations above to complete the sentences below.

1. As per phrenology our _____ and _____ depend on the bumps on our skulls.
3. Our body is _____. Some of them are called neurons.
4. Researchers need small samples of _____ to compare a person and a monkey.
5. The central nervous system includes all the neurons in the brain and _____.
6. The somatic NS transmits _____.
7. The voluntary movements of our _____ are called motor output.

- word formation tasks:

Use the word given at the end of each line to form a word that fits in the space in the same line.

1. None of the _____ can be rejected at this stage. **hypothesis**
2. He trusted his wife's _____. **judge**
3. In _____ reasoning we work "top down." **deduct**
4. Lots of evidence supports his _____. **assume**
5. There is no simple _____ to this problem. **solve**
6. Winning the title again has become a _____ for him. **fix**
7. She was surprised by the _____ of their previously held views. **refute**

- of particular interest to students are the exercises for detecting homonyms in order to enhance the terms, which are essential for the corresponding topic:

Think of ONE word only which can be used appropriately in all three sentences.

- a. It's difficult to how long the journey will take.
 - b. She is a good of character.
 - c. Don't the book by its cover.
-
- a. We spend an enormous amount of time in a dreaming
 - b. He is willing to his view.
 - c. They have announced salary increase for workers.

- the grammatical exercises are preceded by I Love Rules section, which reminds the advanced students of the grammatical rules and increases the language competency of the less advanced learners:



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THE PASSIVE VOICE

The passive voice is used when it is not important *who* or *what* does the action. It is common in formal writing, for example scientific writing.

It is formed by the verb **to be in the correct tense + the past participle**.

Warmth is conserved by blood vessels.

In most passive sentences, **by and the agent** (the subject of the active sentence) are omitted because the agent is obvious or not necessary.

They conduct experiments every month.

Experiments are conducted every month.

Modal verbs (*can, may, must, might*) follow the pattern: **modal verb+be+the past participle**.

Emotions can be easily detected.

- the exercises for translation emphasize on the terminological vocabulary and the so called „discourse markers”, i.e. words and phrases, which serve as a logical connection between different parts of a text (linking expressions);

- in academic listening, particularly in lecture comprehension, learners need to learn to recognize specific types of discourse cues in extended discourse, take notes and integrate incoming messages with information from other sources such as lecture notes and reference materials (Flowerdew 1994 ; Flowerdew and Miller 2005 ; Richards 1983). That is why the suggested listening activities are aimed at developing “the core comprehension skills that effective listeners use either singly or in combination in order to achieve their desired comprehension goals” (Vandergrift and Goh 2012), such as Listening for details, Listening for main ideas, Listening and predicting. The listening and watching tasks (Youtube Webwatch), requiring multimedia environment, offer free-download Internet materials with exercises for developing listening skills via original oral texts in English in the field of psychology:

a. Visit

<http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=YyW1KFnDqYo&feature=related>

What are emotions?

Answer the questions:

According to the presenter:

1. How many are the arousal states?
2. Which arousal state do fear and disgust belong to?
3. Which arousal state do depression and care belong to?
4. When do people start getting a panic-response?
5. Which are the two basic movements that each organism makes?
6. What kind of emotion is rage?
7. What kind of emotion is panic?
8. What kind of emotion is dislike?
9. Can you name some more complex human social emotions?

- the Writing tasks suggest writing summaries;

- each unit ends with a discussion, concerning the quotation, following the title, thus giving students an opportunity to express their own opinions and to debate, using key terminology:

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Read the quotation at the beginning of the unit and decide whether you agree or not. Why/ why not? Express your opinion:

*“Great minds discuss ideas;
Average minds discuss events;
Small minds discuss people.”*

Eleanor Roosevelt

As a result, the new information is consolidated with the prior knowledge and the interests of the learners.

Last but not least, supplementary activities in the form of games have been designed to revise the vocabulary taught during the previous lesson:

Dominoes. Students should work in pairs (or small groups). The cards are distributed and placed face down. One student puts down a card in the middle. In turns students add a card to either side (matching situations to adjectives). The first player to put down all their cards is the winner.

(The idea is taken from Speakout Pre-intermediate Teacher’s Resource Book, 2011, Pearson Education Limited.):

Your friend has some problems at home. You feel sorry for him.	PERSISTENT	A friend of yours has lost his job. You care about him.	PERSISTENT
You are shy. You’re at a party and become the centre of attention.	REJECTED	You’ve made a silly mistake and are worried what other people think of you.	REJECTED
You lose all your money and become jobless. You don’t know what to do.	FURIOUS	You are in a very bad situation. You are ready to do anything to change it.	FURIOUS
Your room-mate has forgotten to tell you about an important call from your boss.	GUILTY	Your brother has used your car without your permission.	GUILTY
You have applied for a job. They refuse to accept you.	EMBARRASSED	You have conflicted your family. They don’t want to see you any more.	EMBARRASSED
You are experiencing some difficulties at work, but you’re determined to succeed.	DESPERATE	Your colleagues warn you not to do something, but you continue to do it.	DESPERATE
You have revealed a friend’s secret to other people.	SYMPATHETIC	Your friend asked you for help, but you didn’t find time to give him a hand.	SYMPATHETIC

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To sum up, the listed activities provide students with skills and strategies, needed to become effective and independent scientific literature users in the field of psychology.

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English Vocabulary for Serbian Hospitality Professionals

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Abstract: Knowing how to write or pronounce a specific word in English is distinct from being engaged in an English-speaking environment. The work requires extended knowledge of the language, regardless of profession. Professional terms are specific in every situation, both in bilingual and monolingual conversations. Hospitality employees use a wide variety of professional terms which are not represented in basic nor advanced English curriculum. These terms usually come as an error in communication when the time is of the essence. Since both work efficiency and effective communication is an important segment of doing business, it is in the best interest of every manager and employee to advance their knowledge of these specific terms. Significance of English in Serbian hospitality is shown by the fact that numerous tourists from English – speaking countries, or tourists who speak English as their second language, visit our country every year. However, English is also essential to tourism industry worldwide, as it has prevailed as a universal language. This article suggests that five aspects of learning and comparing the usage of the terms should be applied. Firstly, the subdivision of main terms is done with some precision. Secondly, the practical simulation method in this manner is suggested. Thirdly, the basic, intermediate and expert vocabularies are suggested. Fourthly, the article suggests adequate comparison of terms in Serbian and English. This is for the reason that sometimes terms have a different meaning, or they overlap and two terms of one language can be explained with one term of the other language, etc. In the end, the article shows a flowchart of the hospitality specific professional English, and comparison with Serbian terms in this field.

Key words: English, Serbian, hospitality English, culinary English, professional English.

1. INTRODUCTION

Throughout history, professional language has been a central part of professional communication, and across the globe, differences of language in use are vast. A substantial body of research has emerged on specific language use, showing that those with specific professional language knowledge, communicated easier than others. English, long considered both internationally recognized as worldwide language and high in communication error risk is paradoxically the most misused and most often wrongly used language, especially in Hospitality. This is strongly linked with cultural conceptions of professional English use. However, scant attention has been paid to perceptions of those who abstain from use of specific professional English. How general and professional language differs to one another and what this implies when it comes to communication is the main subject of this paper. Specific guild has specific terms which are used to both separate experts from laymen, as well as to specify the communicational specifics during the performing of activities.

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Since the entire contemporary Hospitality is derived from French hoteliers and restaurateurs, its specific language is mostly derived from French. Serbian, on the other hand, did not have much influence on specific Hospitality English.

Teaching English to professionals should start in accordance with other professional education. After explanation of tourism industry, the lessons should follow with job descriptions, hotel facilities, reservations and reservation system, CV writing for hospitality positions, understanding of positions in hotels, welcoming customers, menu explanation (foodservice), airport services, holiday packages, resort facilities, cultural respect, giving information, bookings, dealing with money, check-in communication, tour guide comments and itineraries, tips for travelers, event descriptions, health and safety instructions, dealing with complaints, ecotourism, adventure holidays and finish with marketing and promotion (Wood 2003). Some other issues should be added to this list: staffing and internal organization, off-site services, business travel specifics, conference organization and tour-organization planning and execution. This should be added in order to improve the contents of education, and in accordance with authors (Harding and Henderson 2000) it should be provided in classes for professionals. Other authors also did address in mostly similar way with professional English education in Hospitality and Tourism as in Pohl (1996), Duckworth (2000), Pogrud and Grebel (1997) and others.

In the Hospitality Industry specific terms may be found in different literature (Pizam 2010), (Clarke and Chen 2007), (Jones and Martin 2005), (Lashley 2000) and (Barrows and Powers 2009) especially in their index section. This can be a great source for widening the professional Vocabulary.

2. MATERIAL AND METHODS

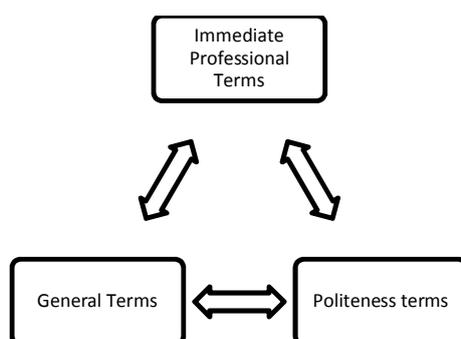
In making of this paper the literature overview was primarily used. The analytical approach to learning through objectives, and expected outcomes of learning methods was applied. Five-step approach to this language specific is done. This was done through subdivision of major terms, practical simulation method, improvement of Vocabulary suggestion, and term comparison and flowchart of specific hospitality terms in both Serbian and English languages in the end.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Results of the subject analysis gave some perspective towards better understanding of general use of the English language in the Hospitality Industry.

3.1 Subdivision of major terms

Major terms in hospitality have three classes: immediate professional terms, general terms, and politeness terms.



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Fig. 1. Term subdivision in Hospitality specific English.

Immediate professional terms are subdivided into categories in accordance with departments in hotels and tourist offices. It is important to understand one's share of terms in order to follow the communication throughout the hospitality operation i.e. when someone orders Crème brûlée, it is not common for receptionist to understand the customer, but stewarding and cooking staff should certainly understand the demand. Major terms are, as mentioned, subdivided in departmental categories: culinary terms, restaurateur terms, hotelier terms, tourism terms, etc. There are plenty of specific terms in each of these categories.

When it comes to politeness, it is important in English to prefer tag questions to direct statements and modal tags request information when one is uncertain. Use of softeners and facilitative tags can reduce the force of what would be a brusque demand. It is important to know how to express uncertainty and ambiguity through hedging and indirectness. One should be able to impose polite lying with use of euphemisms. Also, the affective tags indicate concern for the listener.

General English language and terms are used in day-to-day communication and understanding of one another. General terms do not consist of any guild-specific terms with most of the communication made on day-to-day basis.

3.2 Practical Simulation Method

The communication in everyday situations is best practiced in real-life simulations. This may be done in the classroom or in the field of study, e.g. at the reception, in the kitchen, etc. In direct situation simulation it is very important to understand the urgent communication and its possible outcomes. It is also good training for the professionals so they will not do this when it comes to last minute request. Options for this method are as follows: active on-site language training; passive on-site training; passive off-site training; and active off-site simulation.

Active on-site language training may be done by introducing the English speaking environment in the hotel department. This is expensive, since it is done directly in the production and service process.

Passive on-site language training may be done by introducing the English speaking during the breaks and after or before the working hours.

Passive off-site language training is currently the most used type of English education. This type uses classic classroom system of education.

Active off-site language simulation may be done by introducing real-time, real-life situations in the classroom. In this manner it is recommendable to first explore the direct need of communication, which is done on-site, and then to introduce the language situation simulation in the classroom environment.

3.3 Improvement of Vocabulary

The Vocabulary in use by hospitality professionals in Serbia is not even close to something that may be called the satisfactory level. At the very beginning of learning professional English terms, some basic translation errors should be made clear. These are: *srb. priloz*, eng. adverbs should be referred to as side dishes; *srb. lica sa posebnim potrebama* eng. handicapped as assisted living; *srb. recepcija* eng. reception should as check-in; etc.

In the advanced stage of understanding professional English, subsequent to term replacement, should be the improvement of the conversance. This should be done by progressively introducing some specific professional words and communication aspects within the scope of the profession. This may be done as follows: term deluxe restaurants should be changed to upscale restaurants (*srb.*

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restorani više klase); wellness and therapeutic massage instead of the general term Spa; refreshment break instead of coffee break; self service technologies instead of buffet; etc.

At this stage, an English speaker should understand and improve their language use. This should be enough for basic communication in areas where foreign guests are not so frequent. Nonetheless, there are some areas of Serbia that Anglophone guests and other visitors that speak English as a second language visit more often. In these areas (authors mainly think of Belgrade, Novi Sad, Kopaonik, etc.) the Hospitality professionals should become vastly aware of width and depth of English language and its professional synonyms, acronyms and other similar words that should provide these professional with sufficient vocabulary to use in everyday communication with guests.

In the third stage of English professional improvement, the English speaking person should become more focused on their own and neighboring departments of the hotel. Therefore, the complex education of these professionals should impose issues to them through which they could improve and overcome the language difference to undeviating smoothness. This stage is frequent and intense. More complex words, special dialects, vast number of synonyms, etc. should be introduced in this stage.

3.4 Term comparison

Different terms in Serbian may be explained by one term in English, and vice versa. Since there are a lot of these terms, they are shown here through examples.

TABLE I

Examples of English and Serbian terms overlapping and synonyms in Serbian explained with two words in English

Heat treatment methods			Toplotna obrada	Heat treatment methods			Toplotna obrada
Method	Medium	Equipment	Method (srb)	Method	Medium	Equipment	Method (srb)
Dry-heat methods			Suva toplota	Moist-heat methods			Vlažne metode
Broiling	Air	Broiler	Gratiniranje	Poaching	Water	Stove	Barenje do 82
Grilling	Air	Grill	Pečenje na roštilju	Simmering	Water	Stove	Krčkanje do 96
Roasting	Air	Oven	Pečenje u pećnici	Boiling	Water	Stove	Kuvanje
Baking	Air	Oven	Pečenje peciva	Steaming	Steam	Stove or Oven	Parenje
Sauteing	Air	Stove	Sotiranje	Combined heat method			Kombinovane metode
Pan-frying	Air	Stove or large frying pan	Prženje u tiganju	Braising	Oil and water	Stove	Dinstanje krupnih komada namirnice
Deep-frying	Air	Deep-fryer	Prženje u fritezi	Stewing	Oil and water	Stove	Dinstanje sitnih komada namirnice

Source: (Božović 2009).

In the table (Table I) it is shown the term differentiation between professional terms in Serbian and English. This is an example from the kitchen procedures, and it may be done in other divisions of the hotel.

3.5 Flowcharts of specific terms in Serbian and English

In the following figure (Fig.2) it is shown the term differentiation between professional terms in Serbian and English and their eventual overlapping or integration of terms.

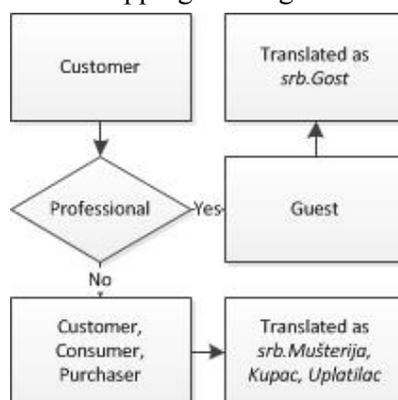


Fig.2. Shows the Flowchart diagram of Hospitality specific term for Customer in Serbian and English and their relation to one another.

This is the reason for the next term professionally translated to become more complex, and very translation process to differ. In that manner not only the translations but communication becomes complicated too. Therefore, in Figure 2 the explained word – the Occupancy becomes more complicated for its interpretation and translation.

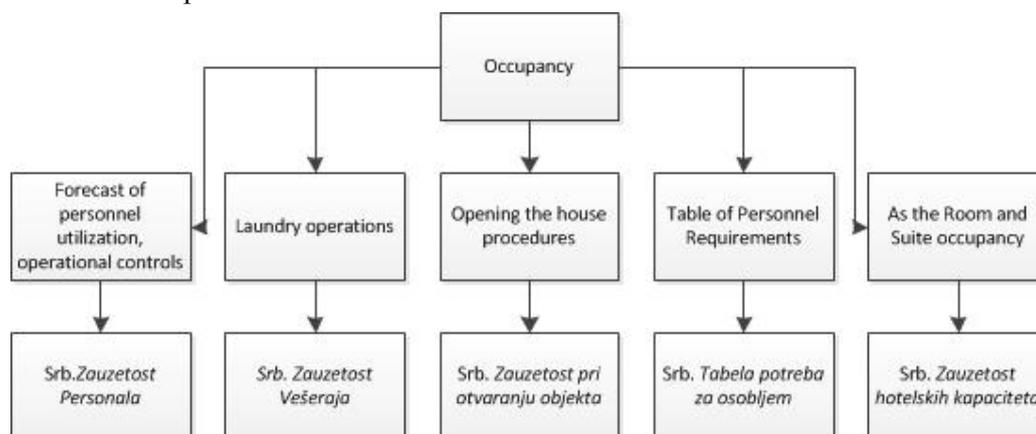


Fig.2. Shows the Flowchart diagram of Hospitality specific terms in Serbian and English and their relation to one another.

This is for the reason of multiple meaning possible for occupancy. As shown in Fig.2 it is common and usual for words in hospitality to have different meanings in different departments and sections in hotel.

4. CONCLUSION

The specific English for hospitality is in use every day in every situation imaginable. Therefore, it is important for the professionals in this guild to be prepared and familiar with the specific language. The only concern is finding the proper word meaning as well as its specific use in the Hospitality Industry. As such, it is strictly a tool for the analysis of language in use. It enables the language lecturer or other teaching staff to understand necessity of professional English specifics. It is also important to be able to see connection between general knowledge and professional knowledge in English. The bilingual relationship is never homogeneous but rather hybrid. Each interpreting person may distort the word or meaning through the translation process. Analysis indicate that language differences can and must be

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surpassed, especially in the example of the Hospitality Industry, where the human contact makes for up to 80% of all actions. This article has shown how language differences must be overcome and obliterated. The comprehension of total interpersonal communication must be achieved in the most intense form possible. For the language differences, both lecturing and auditing staff must become energetic, and they must understand the sheer importance of flawless communication. Flawless communication can lead to flawless operation in every aspect of the Hospitality Industry. It is only as the question of intensity and quality of that flawlessness in communication, as it is in other aspects of operational knowledge.

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Learners' Needs Analysis Required before Teaching English for Tourism

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Abstract: The following paper deals with the importance of establishing learners' needs framework when teaching English for Tourism Industry. It focuses on the outcomes of the learners' needs analysis which influence the decisions made about the overall course design and more specifically, the course goals and individual lesson objectives before setting up the framework for Tourism English teaching. First, it is differentiated between the pre-experience students' needs and job-experienced learner' requirements. These would be analyzed concerning the variables such as age, gender, and proficiency level of the course participants as well as the context of the teaching regarding time framework dedicated to the course, learning situation (language school or in-company training), learners' job skill requirements (e.g. English needed for developing skills of handling international meetings, presentations, negotiating or socializing) and learners' professional status in the company (whether he/she is a graduate trainee or a manager of the Sales Department in a hotel). Only after the thorough learners' needs analysis has been carried out, the instructor can make decisions on what to include or exclude from the course design, i.e. only then he can set up both short- and long-term goals intended to be achieved during the course. When an instructor knows what his/her students need to perform when dealing with their customers or business partners in their tourism-related setting, it would be much easier for him/her to refine and choose what skills, strategies, structures or vocabulary to teach the students. The correlation between the needs' analysis and course design is shown by the real-life examples deduced from the author's experience in teaching English language for Tourism. The needs analysis is based on the data collected after having conducted the questionnaires, structured interviews, observations and discussions with both groups of learners in order to identify their needs.

Keywords: English for Tourism, learners' needs analysis, course objectives, and course design

1 INTRODUCTION

Nowadays tourism has become not just an industry that provides the secure part-time or full-time jobs, but also a leading industry that employs more service providers than any other industry, which in turn generates the revenue desperately needed by many countries to add to their ailing budgets at the time of crisis. No wonder that the demand for English for Tourism, being the language of international communication and business, is constantly on rise. Before taking up such a task to teach, or as businesspeople put it more aptly – train, the professionals working in this industry or aspiring tourism students for their future jobs, you are required to understand

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their industry and act promptly in order to meet the learners' needs. How you will do that depends on your skill to recognize the fact that although you have all the necessary equipment i.e. diploma that states you can teach in a sense that you know English and how to transfer knowledge by using different methods and techniques, you are out there alone on the unknown territory, knowing virtually nothing about the business of tourism. After initial panicking, it is advisable to take your fate in your hands and do small-scale survey which would tell you what activities, functions, notions, structures to include in your curriculum and what to omit. The initial step is to conduct a questionnaire and an interview with your potential students and/or with their sponsors about their working lives and their daily English requirements and then to analyse the answers in order to suggest a plan for mastering the problematic areas of their day-to-day English use needs.

Our aim is to show why the needs analysis is important, what tools to use in order to obtain the necessary information, what factors influence the learner's needs, and how to relate the information obtained before and during the course to the course objectives, its design and specific activities performed on a Tourism English course. Before moving on to discuss these issues, we should try to establish which position English for Tourism would occupy on the scale of English for Specific Purposes.

2. DEFINITION OF ENGLISH FOR TOURISM (ET)

The role of English as lingua franca has grown considerably in recent years because international tourism and hospitality industry has gained ground in people's everyday lives due to their increased disposable income and more leisure time to spend on travelling. More and more English is used today in the business of tourism by non-native speakers of English talking or writing to other non-native English speakers. The need for having a common means of interaction is mostly emphasized in tourism sector. Therefore, English can be seen as a language tool used for communication across different tourism industry situations and contexts being mutually intertwined and increasingly interdependent.

English for Tourism (ET) can be described as a portion of English language used in tourism industry for different tourism-related purposes e.g. at meetings when negotiating prices between travel agents and hotel managers, tourists travelling via rail or air, in marketing the tourist destinations or taking bookings of the accommodation, writing statistical reports on accommodation sales by hotel sales and marketing director, etc.

In English teaching literature, English for Tourism is defined from two perspectives: first, as an area of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) or more precisely Specific English at an intersection between English for General Business Purposes (EGBP) and English for Specific Business Purposes (ESBP) on one hand and secondly, it is an area within English teaching spectrum at an intersection of English for Occupational Purposes (EOP) and English for

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Academic Purposes (EAP) on the other¹. Some authors define English for Tourism as English taught at vocational course which are specially designed for people that are training for or are employed in the business of tourism². Sometimes it is very difficult to draw a strict or clear-cut demarcation between Business English and English for Tourism because their users need to develop certain skills that are common both to business and tourism. Moreover, they both share many communicative expressions, functions and vocabulary with General English, but the main purpose of the training is to teach the professionals Vocational/Occupational English for their future or present careers in tourism. English for Tourism borders English for General Business Purposes which is being taught at institutions of higher education and these English courses are offered to the first- or second-year students who need to master the general English interspersed with tourism terminology set in a general business-related contexts. English for Tourism is adjacent to English for Specific Business Purposes when the English course is aimed at the job-experienced learners who bring business knowledge and skills to the language-learning environment. Its goal is to teach their learners particular skills, for instance the language of chairing and participating in meetings or report writing³.

The whole concept of English for Tourism refers to the purposes for which the learners would use the language i.e. to their job requirements. If the course is focused on achieving the specific goals like socializing with the overseas clients by using English language, then the course should concentrate entirely on the advancement and development of the learners' overall communication skills such as negotiations, meetings, written correspondence such as e-mails, letters and report writing along with building of the vocabulary needed in the world of tourism, discussing of the tourism-related topics (destination marketing, National Tourism Organizations (NTOs), Hotel management, Event management, attractions promotion, quality in tourism, sustainable tourism, etc.). In addition to the skills development, language structure (grammar) and lexis (vocabulary) should also be included in the teaching plan. In the end, it would be useful to bear in mind that the principal goal of any ESP course is to enable students to communicate effectively in the specific job-related contexts, but not necessarily totally accurately.

3. THE NEEDS ANALYSIS FOR TOURISM ENGLISH LEARNERS

The starting point of any meaningful language instruction is the learners' needs analysis because the curriculum, course short-term and long-term objectives, and materials are determined by the prior analysis of learners' requirements for the particular communicative situation. The analysis is the decisive criterion which helps the teacher decide upon the approach, methodology, activities, materials, etc. These courses tend to be learner-centred rather than course book- or teacher-centred. It helps the teachers to understand their learners and understand their communicative events in which they will participate⁴. In the Tourism English courses, teachers will certainly need to develop different approach based on the importance of four distinct

¹ Elvira M. Montanes Brunet, "English for Specific Business Purposes: English for Tourism," In *Words for Working: Professional and Academic English for International Business and Economics*, ed. Rosa Gimenez Moreno (Valencia: Universitat de Valencia, 2010), 140.

² Keith Harding, *Going International: English for Tourism: Teacher's Book*. (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1998), 2.

³ Mark Ellis and Christine Johnson, *Teaching Business English*. (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1994), 56.

⁴ Elena B Abarca, "English for General Business Purposes," In *Words for Working: Professional and Academic English for International Business and Economics*, ed. Rosa Gimenez Moreno (Valencia: Universitat de Valencia, 2010), 102.

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language skills that ought to be mastered to a varying extent by tourism professionals. Sometimes only listening and speaking skills need to be brought to the fore and instructed, but in other cases reading and writing skills take more prominent role in the overall course design. Teaching of these four skills have to be adapted to meet particular student's needs.

When you compile a Tourism English course, you have to select key components like materials and activities which will help you achieve the objectives. There are certain factors which affect the learners' response to the training. These are: their educational background, knowledge of other languages, language attitudes and students' learning style⁵. Other characteristics that can determine the success of the course are: the purpose of the training, learning situation (who decided a person should attend the course or where it would be held), whether your students are pre-experience or job experienced learners, the type of job they are doing, and finally, the status/position they occupy at the company. The last three factors play the crucial role in designing the successful course.

3.1 Learners' Needs based on the differentiation between pre-experience and job-experienced learners

As an international language of worldwide communication, trade and tourism, English language has been widely taught at primary, secondary and tertiary level of education in Montenegro. Developing language skills has become the part of life-long learning process as many people today invest their time and money in studying English at many private language schools in the country. The needs of the students at tourism colleges and those already working for the tourism companies can generally complement each other, but these are in many ways different. Hence it is possible to make the distinction between the pre-experience and job-experienced learners' needs.

The category of the pre-experienced learners consists mostly of the students and job trainees, whose knowledge of both the tourism sector and English language has been obtained from the books and can be considered as being more theoretical rather than practical one. They are often less aware of their future language needs because the business situation in which they are going to plunge in still seems far away and blurred. Their needs have been already decided for them and are determined by the school's curriculum and objectives previously adopted by the institution of the higher education. The objectives of these academic English courses depend on the type of the qualification students pursue to get, which aims to prepare them for their future working life in tourism. They have limited influence on the decision-making process like which topics will be covered on their English course. Performance objectives are linked to their academic life needs on the one hand, and to their practical aspects of their future jobs on the other. For example, they will be instructed the general business (and tourism) English skills like taking part in the meetings, compiling meeting agenda or taking down minutes, but they will also be taught general English in order to be able to listen to the lectures, write seminar papers in English, etc.

⁵ Mark Ellis and Christine Johnson, *Teaching Business English*. (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1994), 72.

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In contrast, job-experiences learners are professionals in their field of activity. They have some experience in communicating in English in real-life situations; therefore they will have special set of needs that should be met by their English instructor. Moreover, they would be totally involved in negotiating the content of the course and steering the course objectives and design, so that the course would be tailored based on their job-related language needs. With time constraint and limited budget in mind, they would be well aware of their objectives they want to achieve during the course. The business concept ‘value-for-money’ applies even to their learning situation. They would evaluate the materials the teacher brings to their course thoroughly with the same eagerness and toughness they employ when doing what they know best. The groups of job-experienced learners are smaller, or they insist on the individual tuition if the company’s budget permits this. The difference between these two categories of learners can be aptly shown in the following table :

Table 1. The difference between two categories of the English learners in tourism industry.

Teaching variables:	Pre-experience learners	Job professionals
Context	tourism-related often imagined context	professional training at workplace
Learners in tourism context	young adults pursuing their diploma degree (bachelor, specialist, master degree)	adults, both young and elder, pursuing career advancement or professional development
The teaching venue	mostly at faculty premises	mostly in-company training less frequently at language school
Duration of the course	one-semester course with certain number of lessons a week up to three-year course	intensive courses (one week –every day up to several months)
Materials	course book proposed by the faculty syllabus	possibly course book or special material, tailored according to specific needs of the participants; more time-consuming to devise.

In this article we will pay attention to the job-experienced learners’ needs as a varied group within the tourism sector. To illustrate the needs of the job-experienced learners in tourism sector, we will take into account the needs of the candidates who are directly employed in the Local Tourism Organization, which covers five distinct Tourist Information Centres on the coast of Montenegro. Our candidates occupy different positions at this state-owned company. Our aim is to show how we can relate their job responsibilities to their language needs, but before we do so, there are two more factors that have an impact on putting together the tailor-made English-for-Tourism course.

3.2 Learners’ Needs according the position they hold and the department they work for at a company

Ellis and Johnson⁶ offered their descriptions of jobs in business-related fields. The aim of their distinction was to offer an insight into the needs of the learners at different hierarchical positions in a firm. They divided the jobs in three broad categories: managerial, technical and secretarial/clerical positions within a firm. According to their classification, managers as learners almost always ask for individual tuition because they do not want to waste time trying to adapt to other people’s programmes. Therefore, the teaching process must be very flexible to fit in their tight schedules and to follow their time constraints. According to their experience, most managers are proficient in the target language and require language refinement in terms of

⁶ Mark Ellis and Christine Johnson, *Teaching Business English*. (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1994), 57.

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accuracy. They will need functional language related to chairing meetings, participating in meetings, negotiating, giving formal presentations and socializing, sometimes telephoning, and report-writing skills. Technical staff is comprised of different types of engineers, mostly coming from IT sector. Their language training priority will be focused on communication strategies in order to develop speaking skills along with their need to learn appropriate terminology⁷. Furthermore, they would need to learn how to effectively participate in meetings and give presentations as well as how to describe and explain things or give instructions to others.

According to the level of the company they occupy, secretaries need to know how to take minutes, make and type agendas, write letters in English or make frequent contacts with visitors, either face-to-face or on the phone with the people with other countries, using appropriate levels of politeness. The broad category of clerical workers includes receptionists, switchboard operators, book-keepers, accounts clerks, sales support staff, etc. They may need basic language training first, then learning the more special parts of language, like specialist vocabulary, reading manuals, answering the phones and taking messages, etc.

Ellis and Johnson⁸ categorized the learners' needs according to the department the learners work for at a company. They differentiated between marketing and sales, human resources, finance, production departments and their requirements placed on the language learners. Their job analysis based on the department is very comprehensive, so that teachers can use it to predict some of the skills and training requirements of the learners. For example, the job of the marketing and sales department is to propose the ways in which their product can be developed, to analyse the market to boost the sales, make decisions about marketing strategies, promote the image of the company/product, deal with a lot of different clients, meet and negotiate contract terms and conditions with their business partners - to name just a few.

These distinctions will be very useful when considering the tourism sector jobs and departments in our case study below. The author applied these insights on tourism-related situation, which helped her devise the course structure by understanding the job requirements related to the departments her students work in.

4. NECESSARY PREPARATIONS BEFORE THE COURSE BEGINS

As in any other industry, the outcomes of the Tourism English course you are teaching or intend to teach entirely depends on the thorough preparations that should be made before the course takes place. These courses are often tailor-made to meet the participant's needs and therefore the teacher should obtain the initial input before deciding on the skills, materials and activities to be covered during the course. Because of the nature and diversity of the tourism industry, needs analysis is even more fundamental in English for Tourism. First and foremost, teachers need to do a small-scale research on the type of tourism industry their learners belong to, company they work for and, if possible, learners' job skills requirements. This can be achieved by visiting the company's homepage website, reading through the brochures or company's promotional material where they would mention their history, mission statement, type of business dealings they

⁷ Ibid., page 57 -62.

⁸ Ibid, pages 63-70.

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engage in, or simply by visiting the company and talking to the person (sponsor) who ordered the course in the first place. Most effective way to obtain information is to talk directly to your future students and discuss with them their language needs related to their job requirements. The core premise and the ultimate reason for conducting the research is that the student should provide the content (what to teach) and the teacher would obtain the language (how to do something by means of foreign language).

Furthermore, there are some additional factors that influence the success of the course such as time framework dedicated to mastering the necessary skill(s), individual job requirements that impose diverse needs priorities to be met by the instructor, learner's professional status, their age and expectations, attitudes towards learning process, the learning environment where the teaching takes place, and their educational background. Along with these inputs, learners' previous knowledge assessment with the variety of the placement tests and detailed needs analysis, the teacher should be able to predict what would be useful to include or exclude in their course design.

In order to provide the meaningful and logical information about their needs, teachers should prepare the detailed needs analysis survey that can include needs questionnaires and/or interview questions – all carried out before the course begins. The essential enquiry questions that any teacher should begin with by asking himself/ herself are:

- Who are your students?
- Where will the course take place?
- What will be the content of your course?
- What strategies and materials will you use to achieve the set goals?⁹

The basic tool that will help the instructor to carry out the analysis is to devise a questionnaire with different questions trying to elicit the information needed to put the course together. The questionnaire should include the questions about the learners' activities and tasks i.e. what they do in English, how often they communicate with customers in English and the topic(s) of these conversations i.e. what they communicate about, tone they use and like to convey (formal/informal, polite, tentative, not certain), mode of interaction (letters, telephone calls, face-to-face, video-conferencing). These questionnaires are easily manipulated, could be stored in your computer indefinitely and adapted to any given situation. They can be sent to your participants by fax or e-mail so he/she can fill it in whenever he/she finds it convenient and then returns it to you. They can also be carried out as a telephone interview where you yourself check the answers, or it could be printed out and filled in when you come to the company's premises or at language school. The questionnaire, the formant and questions, which was suggested by Donna¹⁰, is particularly suitable to start with before you devise your own based on your teaching situation. It consists of the three separate sections. First section includes the list of language areas a learner finds problematic (using the telephone or describing the facilities at a seaside resort), the second column addresses their opinion on how good they are at performing the suggested skills on the scale from 0 (no ability) to 5 (proficient) and the last column states the urgency of

⁹ Adapted from Debbie Barton et al., *The Business English Teacher: Professional Principles and Practical procedures*. (Surrey: Delta Publishing, 2010), 7.

¹⁰ Sylvie Donna, *Teach Business English*. (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2000), 11.

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instructing the proposed skills/ functions / vocabulary on the scale from the most to the least urgent.

Another very useful tool for obtaining information is a structured interview which should be carried out with the students' managers and/or their sponsors and students themselves. If it is possible, it would be very useful to record these interviews on your smart mobile phone for the future reference so that nothing would be overseen or left out. Managers or directors can give you a valuable insight into real students' needs and job requirements, confirm priorities and give you firms' written resources such as typical business letters, reports, memos, agendas, brochures, promotional material, newsletters etc. Oral resources like the real-life conversations between the employees and their clients during a business meeting or when negotiating a deal would be much more difficult to obtain because either they are not recorded in the real-life settings or they are confidential and cannot be revealed to the participants in the course. Interviews with individual learners that can be carried out face-to-face with one person at the time or with a whole group at the same time can help both your students and you. You will receive the necessary information and specifics about their working lives, their language expectations and job requirements. Interviews that are carried out before the course starts can also serve as motivation tool to your students, because it will make clear to your students that you are interested in improving the language they use at work.

As Donna¹¹ proposed, you ought to prepare a few questions beforehand for these groups to answer, such as:

Questions to sponsors or directors:

- What do you want your staff to be able to do?
- In what specific situations will they be doing these things?
- Which language areas are priorities?
- What are your staff's most urgent short-term needs for English?

To students:

- What do you find most difficult about English?
- Which area is most important for your job: speaking, writing, reading, listening?
- What exactly do you need to do in each skill area? (e.g. what kind of speaking, writing, etc.)
- Which skills are your priorities? (e.g. speaking about and listening to attending in meetings – very much, reading and replying to faxes – not so much.)

The time dedicated to carrying out such questionnaire or interview is invaluable because students would perceive that the course would be tailored according to their needs, not your assumptions about what they need to do with the language. The needs analysis could be particularly rewarding because it would appeal to your learner's motivation because the language covered by the course will be helpful to them in the near future. Referring back to the needs structure during the course would prove very beneficial for your students, especially if the teacher does that on a regular basis, for example after each lesson. As a consequence, the students can perceive that they are actually making the progress. This does not mean that the needs once set at the beginning of the course cannot be altered or revised. They would be constantly evaluated after each lesson during the course. Some objectives would be changed, some more prioritized, and some left out for another time. The success of your course depends

¹¹Ibid., pages 12-13.

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on the fact that your students perceive that the English course they are taking part in helps them do their job better and with more ease.

5. CASE STUDY: LOCAL TOURIST INFORMATION CENTRE NEEDS' ANALYSIS

Tourism is a service industry that generates a wide variety of job opportunities and thus any comprehensive list of job descriptions in tourism will necessarily be incomplete. Today there are many tourism service providers ranging from travel agencies and tour operators through hospitality services to airlines and cruise lines operators that offer highly-structured and diverse job opportunities and thus increase the employment rate. According to Donaldson et al. (2003: 76)¹², tourism industry consists of seven components: Travel Agents (independent, multiples, business travel), Tour Operators (long-haul, short-haul, specialist operators), Tourist Information and Guiding Services (regional tourist board, local tourist board), Accommodation and Catering (hotels, bed and breakfast), Attractions (historical attractions, theme parks), Transportation (air, rail, sea, road) and Online Travel Services (websites, Internet). All these stakeholders have created their hierarchies of jobs in tourism industry.

One of the highly respected and most wanted jobs' opportunities lie in the sphere of Tourist Information Centres (TIC), Local Tourism Boards (LTB) and National Tourism Organizations (NTO) in Montenegro. The staff employed in this sector assists more than a several thousand people during a year. One of their principal aims is to develop, promote and publicize the tourism of Montenegro. They exist to offer information about the tourist attractions and leisure activities in a particular town or country. Their job is to organize and run special events like festivals and music concerts and thus draw both tourists and business people's attention to local tourism businesses, local amenities, and visitor attractions in that area.

The director of one of the local tourism boards offered the author of this article to help them improve their English language skills and prepare them for the challenges they are facing when dealing with international tourists, clients and business partners. Despite the fact that the author did not have any experience or knowledge about their job requirements, she set out to help them achieve their goals. First, she searched their website to find out information that would tell her what their business is about and what they are expected to do at work. Then she turned to the LTO director for further information of what they want to do in English. Finally, she conducted a learners' needs questionnaire in order to see what the learners feel their priorities regarding English training would be, where their main difficulties lie and what they want to achieve by using the English language. They also took a written placement test in order to identify what language knowledge the learners lack and what they already have as well as to see whether they need any general English instruction before starting up with tourism-related course. Then she comprised a list of her students, their job responsibilities, departments they are employed in and what they do in English. After these initial steps, she could devise the course

¹² Cited from Elvira M. Montanes Brunet, "English for Specific Business Purposes: English for Tourism," In *Words for Working: Professional and Academic English for International Business and Economics*, ed. Rosa Gimenez Moreno (Valencia: Universitat de Valencia, 2010), 145.

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plan and decide on teaching materials and tasks they would need in order to achieve the teaching objectives.

The overall number of respondents was nine - one of them was a senior manager (director), three learners worked for Marketing department, two were in Finance department, one was responsible for secretarial and administrative work and two learners were tourist information officers located in other two local information offices. The course lasted for three months with two one-hour lessons a week. The instruction was scheduled to take place at company's premises. They were divided into three groups according to their affiliations (and budget): a) LTO director received individual tuition, b) one group consisted of six staff members who shared the interests and had common job requirements (the secretary was placed in this group as well due to her language proficiency and previous educational level), and finally, c) the other group was made up of the two remaining staff members put together according to their proficiency level and job description. Even though the author divided them in the groups based on their job responsibilities, it should be borne in mind that these are very fluid across these jobs and mutually intertwined because the majority of workers should be able to provide the same information to their visitors.

Then the author created three separate needs' questionnaires, one to be given to the TIO director, the second to be distributed to the managers and a secretary at TIO premises and the third targeted at the tourist information officers and their needs. The questionnaires represented the four skills that needed improvement and different language sub-areas to be further developed on the course. The format of the questionnaire was adopted from Donna (11), but the author devised her own skill questions based on the job responsibilities checklist. They were given the questionnaires to decide which needs should be addressed first.

After the author carried out a placement test and a questionnaire about the skills and areas of English to develop, she made a list of priorities. All the students agreed that their priority would be to improve their speaking and listening skills such as responding to their customer needs by telephone or in the face-to-face interaction. They placed reading and writing skills secondly. The decision on the choice of vocabulary, expressions, functional language and grammar to include in the course curriculum was made before and during the course as the need for refinement on these language areas occurred.

Individual tuition to the director and instruction to the group of managers concentrated on teaching the students giving information about the attractions, their description and how to find them; recommending places to visit and what to do in the area; making and receiving telephone calls from different stakeholders in tourism; advising and describing facilities; language of calming and dealing with a crisis situation; booking a hotel and transport via telephone or Internet; listening to telephone messages, oral instructions, responding to the various tourist enquiries (such stated in their Frequently Asked Questions on their website); giving presentations and chairing meetings and negotiating with international partners on project budget discussions; reading business letters, letters of enquiry, letters from the tourism project partners (IPA projects), newspaper articles on Montenegrin tourism sites (Lonely Planet and New York Times comprised a list of recommended places for 2013 in which Montenegro featured a prominent place), reading business reports (monthly, budget, and audit reports from their partners in IPA project), reading texts on new marketing methods and about their competition. Finally, they were interested in writing short statistical reports about marketing and sales data, composing the

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brochure's entries (for which we worked on the vocabulary, especially on compound nouns the adjectives to vary the register and economize on the space in the brochures), the memos and agendas about the meetings.

The learners' group which consisted of two tourist information officers scored poorly when they took the placement test. They struggled with the elementary English language. Therefore, the focus was on mastering the basic language skills like greetings, giving directions, understanding job-related tourism enquiries, simple descriptions of attractions, bus/train schedules reading and giving information of when the bus or train leaves/arrives, car hire information and prices, numbers (cardinal and ordinary), telling the times, answering to basic written enquiries via e-mails, reading and understanding of the brochure and leaflets information in English, giving information about accommodation, entertainment and leisure facilities, visitors attractions (the prices, tickets, etc.). One of their job responsibilities was to take the tourist tax payments and process them on their computer, so first they were instructed how to read the tourist tax list in English and then how to ask questions about the necessary information so that they could confidently help the foreign visitors to fill it in (the list is in Montenegrin language and asks for the personal data).

All the students were dedicated to learning the necessary skills, language functions and structures. They were very intelligent, goal-oriented, and highly motivated. They were focused on their progress and performance i.e. acquiring the necessary skills for dealing with international tourists and other stakeholders in tourism. The teacher was constantly referring them to their initial needs, which kept their motivation steadily high. Every time they succeeded in face-to-face interaction with the tourists or business partners or achieved the goals in negotiating the funding for some of their projects, they felt proud of themselves and informed the teacher immediately of their success. This helped them see the meaning of all the teaching objectives inside the classroom. They realized that their actual use of English in their business environment helped them easily achieve their business goals (like get the funding from NGOs or EU funds, efficiently promoting the destination at the tourism fairs and boosting the website visits, etc.). The improvement of the English skills helped their practical needs.

6. CONCLUSION

The aim of this article was to show the ESP teachers how to conduct the research about the learners' needs and confidently develop the course plan based on their students' needs analysis. The emphasis was put on the needs analysis regarding English language for professionals pursuing the tourism career. The author tried to establish the reasons why it was important to carry out the needs' analysis before starting with the teaching process and to adapt the course content to the learners' needs structure and refer constantly to it. The author wanted to demonstrate:

- why it is important to differentiate between two categories of learners (pre-experience and job-experienced) pointing out to their diverse sets of needs;
- what the analysis of job responsibilities will indicate to the instructor and how to address them successfully;
- why it is necessary to understand how company's departments operate, so that the teacher can relate these information to the learners' language needs;

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- why it is useful to prepare needs questionnaire and/or needs interview before the course begins;
- what the analysis of the information obtained via survey will tell the instructor about his/her students (what actions to take concerning the skills, functions, language structure and lexis);
- how to relate the information gained by the job analysis to the items that appear in needs' questionnaires;
- how to interpret the needs questionnaires and set up priorities for your students based on different data (questionnaires and interviews with your clients, searching through the website, reading company's brochures and other manuals);
- why it is significant that a teacher and his/her job-experienced learners work closely together in order to tailor the specific English course that corresponds to the learners' needs.

Every meaningful learning as well as teaching should proceed from a well-designed course plan. The participants in the 'learning situation' can infer the meaning of the established plan only if it complements their job-related requirements. Moreover, the learning outcomes and the success of any language course lies in the fact that teachers should pay close attention to their students' professional needs and tailor their teaching accordingly. If the students do not perceive the significance of their course objectives or fail to match them with their individual job-requirements, little learning will occur in the classroom and the overall motivation will be low. Ultimately, the learners' satisfaction with the course can have a huge impact on the favourable outcomes and the success of the whole language course. It is just one more reason why the teacher should give his/her students more prominent voice in creating the course and being more involved in selecting the teaching materials and activities.

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Creating YouTube videos in an ESP classroom with Net generation students in a cultural briefing activity

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Abstract: Teaching foreign languages for general or specific purposes tends to show few results without providing real-life situations in the classroom. For that purpose we have initiated a project by which the third year students of Mediation in tourism program at The Faculty of Tourism Studies – Turistica in Portorož, Slovenia, and the students of Cultural tourism course at the San Diego State University (SDSU), USA, were enabled to share their views. The courses at both faculties were culturally oriented and therefore the students were given an instruction to choose parts of their culture that foreigners might find interesting and show it in a short video clip. The videos were afterwards posted on You Tube and watched by the other group. This part was followed by exchanging comments and questions. It allowed the Slovenian students to use English in a creative and meaningful manner and afterwards get a feedback from the American and international students at SDSU. The goal of the project was also to enhance creativeness and general competences development in the classroom, as well as to show the students that the internet can as well be a learning tool. This is often neglected due to the 'seriousness' of today's learning processes.

Key words: cultural briefing, NetGens, YouTube, English for specific purposes

1. INTRODUCTION

Nowadays teachers of English as a foreign language are often faced with boredom of their students. Particularly so in the tertiary education, where on the one hand most students resent playing games and role play, but on the other hand they frequently complain that they are not engaged in many interesting and creative activities. Since studying tourism involves also learning about other cultures and becoming inter-culturally competent, and since one of the teachers involved spent one semester teaching at SDSU in San Diego, we started cooperation between two groups of tourism students in different parts of the world. The group of students at SDSU consisted of American, Chinese and European students, whereas the other group included Slovene students. The project started in October 2012 and was concluded by the end of the same year.

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1.1. The Dumbest Generation

The title of this paragraph is taken from the book *The Dumbest Generation: How the Digital Age Stupefies Young Americans and Jeopardizes Our Future*, written by Bauerlein in 2008. There have been thousands of concerned people making predictions of similar kind as to what technology may do to young brains due to the fact that the youth spend huge quantity of time immersed in digital technology. Bauerlein (2009) claims that in comparison to other generations, the current generations, referred to as Net Geners, have experienced numerous technical enhancements, but yielded so little mental progress. However, Tapscott (2009, 118) is not convinced and on the contrary thinks that Net Geners are using technology in order to become smarter than their parents. He mentions the evidence suggesting that the brightest students are nowadays reading more than previous generations and performing spectacularly well in school.

Unlike them, the bottom students are failing and falling behind not for the extensive use of the Internet, but due to a failing educational system and for social causes as for instance poverty. The author points out (2009, 74) that Net Geners are different from other generations and mentions eight norms tested in nGeners survey of 6,000 Net Geners around the world. The eight norms are freedom, customization, scrutiny, integrity, collaboration, entertainment, speed, and innovation.

1.2 Eight Net Gen Norms

Net Geners are believed to revel in freedom. The Internet gives them the opportunity to choose what to buy, where and when to work, and even who they want to be. They seem to be on a quest for freedom and this may at times infuriate their elders. Many younger employees expect their employers to accommodate them with flexible hours and telecommuting. The search for freedom is transforming education as well. With access to much of the world's knowledge, learning for them should take place where and when they want it. Attending a lecture at a specific time and place, given by a mediocre professor, and being a passive recipient may seem oddly old-fashioned to them.

Net Geners are also used to customizing. This is most evident in the case of different appliances that are customized in order to suit their needs. Half of them are believed to immediately customize the purchased product to reflect who they are. They have grown up with personalized mobile phones and personalized online space. Similarly Net Geners may want to customize their jobs and work offsite. The same may be noticed in education where they expect the acquisition of knowledge customized to their needs.

Tapscott (2009, 80) believes that Net Geners are the new scrutinizers and thinks that the today's youth have to be able to distinguish between facts and fiction, given the numerous sources of information. He illustrates this with an extremely good example. In his opinion, today Orson Wells would convince nobody that *War of the worlds* (1938) is the truth and none of the

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citizens would flee their homes. According to Tapscott, the motto for today's youth is 'Trust but verify'. The same may be said about education and it is not uncommon that Net Geners provide correct or up-to-date facts to their teachers and professors.

Net Geners seem to care about integrity by being honest, considerate and transparent. Although Twenge (2006) calls them Generation Me and considers them to be the most narcissistic generation in history, Tapscott (2009, 84) believes they display more tolerance and wisdom than previous generations due to the enormous quantity of information available to them. On the one hand Net Geners judge companies by a very strict ethical standard, but on the other hand they also tend to download music for free. Net Geners generally value the act of doing good. It may be noticed in many environments that an increasing number of youngsters are willing to volunteer. Net Geners want schools and universities to be accountable and open, and to a certain extent considerate of their interests.

Tapscott (2009, 89) is of the opinion that Net Geners are natural collaborators, particularly online, and that they are the relationship generation. Most of them have the eagerness to collaborate and want to feel that their opinion counts. As Net Geners are collaborators in every part of their lives, this goes for education as well. The current model of pedagogy tends to be teacher focused and as such may isolate students in the learning process. However, many Net Geners are believed to learn much more by collaborating with teachers and with each other.

For Net Geners see no clear dividing line between work and play, to some extent work should be fun. The Internet offers plenty of opportunities for fun and entertainment from around the world. The best products for them seem to be those that are useful, but at the same time offer some entertainment. Similarly Net Geners expect education to be useful and partly entertaining at the same time. It is no surprise that Net Geners expect speed, not only from computers, but also from the people they get in touch with. For this reason they may find working in an office hard and too slow. This may lead to a culture clash between youngsters and bosses, who tend to be older. In education this may be most evident in the need for the immediate performance feedback.

Not only have this generation been raised in the culture of innovation, but it also happens very fast. In the workplace this may lead to rejection of traditional hierarchy. In education it means that the newest inventions should be implemented and used in the process of learning.

1.3 Video and YouTube in the higher education classroom

Using multimedia tools in higher education is one of the ways for universities in the third millennium to adapt to the new fundamental changes in the world itself and consequently in the generation of students. It is now demanded of students to learn how to be “competitive, productive, innovative and ethical” (Forristal, 2012). The mentioned skills will enable them to

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respond to “significant societal and industry changes” (Sheldon, Fesenmaier, Woeber, Cooper and Antonioli, 2007). This shift in classroom teaching techniques can provide “compelling, tangible applications that help breakdown classroom walls, expose students to the external world” (Miller 2009), and provide the ability for education to move from teacher-centered to learner-centered. And it has never been cheaper, easier and more copyright violation free than nowadays. In the past, employing media resources in college courses was certainly “burdensome and time-consuming” (Miller 2009) for the lecturer as well as it was impossible to include students’ creativity.

YouTube allows people to upload, view and share video clips via an internet website. It has quickly jumped from being very popular to the most widely used resource for online video (Burke and Snyder, 2008). Although YouTube was not created to be used in the classroom there have been numerous mentioning of how educators may use it. Topics discussed in the literature that Snelson (2001) examined, include, but are not limited to, uncovering the experience of YouTube users (Lange 2007), how YouTube is used in politics (Carlson and Strandberg, 2008; Duman and Locher, 2008), the use of YouTube videos in the medical field (Farnan, Paro, Higa, Edelson and Arora, 2008; Gomes, 2008), methods for harvesting and using data on YouTube (Shah, 2009), and possibilities for teaching with YouTube (Burke and Snyder, 2008; Snelson, 2009; Tamim, Shaikh and Bethel, 2007). In his research Snelson (2001) pointed out that a total of 39 (20.7%) of the 188 articles and papers included discussions of teaching methodologies for YouTube videos. He based his survey on assessing the articles and papers that included the name YouTube in their title. Hence, plenty has been written about using YouTube in education and it can be claimed that most papers employ a positive perspective on the topic. A vast selection of studies from numerous fields assesses that the video use in the classroom can in fact be in favor of students and educators (Richardson and Kile, 1999; Seago, 2003; Sherin, 2003; Wang and Hartley, 2003; LeFevre 2003; Brophy, 2004; Moreno & Valdez 2007; Borko, & Pittman, 2008; Pryor and Bittner, 2008). More specifically, authors speak of “increasing evidence of effectiveness of a multimedia approach to teaching (Berk, 2009), of “growing use of YouTube among academics for effective instruction in disciplines ranging from nursing to political science” (Snelson, 2011). In more general terms, they agree that learning in the pictorial conditions (video and audiovisual) tested to be superior to learning in the solely verbal (audio) conditions (Berk, 2009).

Among other, research papers also point out that allowing the media to enter the educational environment can enhance comprehension “by employing mixes of sights and sounds that appeal to variable learning styles and preferences” (Miller 2009), and also by inspiring, engaging and support learners’ digital learning styles” (Burke and Snyder, 2008), which is especially promising when dealing with today’s generation of students – the Net Gens. They are often described as preferring the visual communication over the text-only environment (Oblinger, 2008a). In order to provide a best fit to their general characteristics and their learning needs, as well as tap their multiple intelligences and learning style, Berk (2009) suggests to use verbal and visual components. The whole process of employing computers and the internet comes as natural and every-day-like to them since they are often referred as “the native speakers of the language of computers, video games and internet” (Berk 2009).

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2. YOUTUBE IN ENGLISH FOR TOURISM PURPOSES CLASSROOM

This paper focuses on the employment of YouTube video in English for tourism specific purposes classroom. Two lecturers employed two groups of students from different countries (one at The Faculty of Tourism Studies - Turistica in Portorož, Slovenia and the other at The San Diego State University in the United States of America, where apart from American students also Chinese, and European students took the course). Both groups were a part of tourism studies programs, in Slovenia they participated in English for tourism purposes class, whereas in the USA students were a part of a Cultural tourism class. The emphasis was put on creating and sharing cultural content, in Slovenia the foreign language aspect was considered as well.

The students of both groups involved were given the instruction to create a short video for the group of foreign students in which they had to choose and present one aspect of their culture. They were given two weeks to complete the task and post the video on YouTube. Afterwards both groups watched the posted videos in class while commenting and writing down questions for the other group of students. Due to time difference the direct exchange of comments and questions via Skype was not possible and hence the two lecturers sent the comments and questions to the other group via email. The last stage of the process involved discussions in class.

To reach the maximum results in education, goals and objectives must be set. Our main four objectives were:

- to create an environment where students who were non-native speakers of English were given the opportunity to use the English language with a purpose and motivation,
- to consider the special characteristics of the new generation of students (NetGens) by allowing them to create videos and contribute to the educational content; to use technology and the internet as well-known source of communication to them; to introduce a shift from teacher to student-focused method of educating.
- to provide intercultural content important in the multicultural and interdisciplinary aspects of tourism,
- and to touch upon their emotional intelligence as an important but often neglected factor in tourism education.

One of the objectives was also that the eight norms, freedom, customization, scrutiny, integrity, collaboration, entertainment, speed, and innovation, should be considered when setting the goals. In order to give students the opportunity to choose the topics freely, scrutinize, express what they believe in, work together, have fun at the same time, work at their own speed, and also to innovate, all the details of the execution of work were for the students to decide.

2.1 Why also creating videos and not just watching them?

The embodied technique differs from the ones mostly enumerated in the literature which describe the procedures of choosing YouTube videos, watching available topic-specific videos and commenting on them. It differs from most other attempts mentioned in the literature in the fact that the students of the two included classes (one from the USA and one from Slovenia) were given the opportunity to create their own video clips. By that we used the main YouTube's ability to share information easily around the globe which Snelson (2011) states is neglected in most of the video using techniques. Even though the literature gives examples of video production techniques in which students create videos to show the understanding of the knowledge, they do not use the possibility to transfer information further than inside the classrooms' walls.

2.2 The importance of emotional intelligence in tourism

Videos can tap verbal/linguistic and visual/spatial and even musical/rhythmic intelligences (Veenema & Gardner, 1996; Gardner, 2000). Golema (1998) ties videos also with the emotional intelligence, which is an important factor especially when dealing with future workers in tourism. Such work involves constant human contact and communication. Video creation about the students' own culture demanded extensive effort in exploring and learning about their own cultures and hence about themselves. Deciding which aspects are intriguing enough to be presented in videos, on the other hand, demanded to search inside other cultures and try understanding others. Students were developing also awareness of cultural differences and their inter-cultural competence. At the end of the creative process came the task of watching the videos that students created, which was used "to communicate with learners at a deeper level of understanding by touching their emotions" (Berk, 2009).

2.3 Targeted NetGen characteristics

By giving the opportunity to create internet content we allowed the NetGens to explore one of their characteristics which Berk (2010) enumerates as the main one. They simply prefer learning by doing what they choose to do than by being told what to do or reading about it. Berk (2010) defines them as kinesthetic, experiential, hands-on learners. First-person learning, games and stimulations are supposed to be the key elements in their education (Tapscott, 1999; Oblinger & Oblinger, 2005; Mastrodicasa, 2007). With the desire to be engaged these students are the major contributors to the online content by commenting and rating the web material. Oblinger (2008) even states that they use the capturing of images with mobile phones or video cameras, afterwards shared on social media, as their way of communication. The NetGens are referred to as a participatory culture and not as simple spectators (Jenkins, 2006), hence the creation method became an essential element in learning promotion. It allows students not only to develop a

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deeper understanding of the knowledge provided in class, but it gives an opportunity for experiential learning. It does not involve only the content creation, but the technology used as well (Burke & Snyder, 2008). It has the potential for students to engage in content exchange which brings new insights and skills.

2.4 Multiculturalism in tourism

While enumerating the above stated characteristics of the NetGens pampered in our classroom one cannot go past the fact that times change and hence should also education. Once a chalk and blackboard sufficed, but nowadays the need to go further is greater than ever before. Higher education must become a part of today's world and education should not exist in bubbles trapped inside classrooms. Tourism studies are one of the fields that need to respond quickly to the changes around the globe hence a shift in tourism education needs to happen in order to answer to global challenges impacting tourism at its fundamental level (Sheldon, Fesenmeier, & Tribe, 2011). Forristal (2012) proposes a balanced and future-oriented tourism curriculum which "embraces a multidisciplinary approach to tourism pedagogy" because tourism as a study is specifically interdisciplinary and gets elements from a vast number of academic fields (Gunn, 1991; Echtner & Jamal, 1997; Jamal & Jourdan, 2008). Whereas in the past tourism mostly focused on its business perspective, nowadays the multicultural dimension is slowly entering the curricula.

All students must become aware of the worldview of others (Arredondo, 1996). Without specifically saying, this is also true for tourism students. When combining this general fact with the NetGens' strong social tendency and a need for interpersonal interaction, both online and face-to-face (Junco & Mastrodicasa, 2007; Ramaley and Zia, 2005; Strauss & Howe, 2006; Tapscott, 2009; Windham, 2005), a cultural exchange videos via YouTube idea was born. In teaching about these multicultural dimensions the role of the educators is to raise the awareness, knowledge and skills of students (Sue et al, 1982; Pedersen, 1988; Arredondo et al 1996; Robinson and Bradley, 1997; Steward, Wright, Jackson & Ik Jo, 1998). On the one hand creating videos, as already mentioned, gives the students an opportunity for experiential learning of their own culture. These experiences affecting the experiential level will, according to Tyler and Guth (1999), "have a greater influence on the behaviour and attitudes of the individual involved because they will be more readily accessed. The authors also pointed to the fact that several authors in the literature concluded that training focused merely on developing cognitive understanding will not suffice for developing multiculturally competent individuals and hence suggested a more experiential learning process. On the other hand, watching the creations of other students from across the globe presents a chance to experience the cultural experiences of others. Tyler and Guth (1999), who researched the effects of watching films in the classroom, stated that exposing students to perceptions and views of others might bring a better understanding of "the limits of their experiences and the far-reaching impact their own cultural biases have on their interpretation of the world."

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2.5 English language

The two participating groups of students were a part of two different courses. The USA group participated in the Cultural tourism course whereas the Slovene students participated in the English language for tourism purposes course. Therefore the English learning component was present only in the Slovene class of students and in the international part of the SDSU group of students. This interchanging activity allowed the Slovene students to use English in an effortless manner but with a clear motivational goal - to communicate with the SDSU students.

The Slovene students were given an opportunity to use English to communicate also to native speakers of English language without leaving the classroom. Usually communication in a foreign language teaching courses goes between a teacher, who is more often than not a nonnative speaker of English, and students, creating a situation in which a foreign language is used in an unnatural manner. This activity, however, stimulated the Slovene students to use the English language with a purpose, which additionally motivated them to speak and communicate in proper English.

At the end of the activity the Slovene students also reported to have checked certain English expressions used in their videos and to explore the vocabulary they needed to present the Slovene culture and tourism. This proved to be especially important tourism as they are future tourism workers and need to be able to present their culture to guests from foreign countries.

3. CONCLUSION

Using the activity of creating YouTube videos in an ESP classroom proved to be beneficial for many reasons. Firstly, the students were able to participate in the content creation which boosted their creativity and motivated them to learn English as a foreign language. On the other hand, it helped them develop their intercultural competence skills. The results and the feedback of both groups of students were outstanding. Students participated throughout the whole project with great effort and made enthusiastic comments on the procedure as well as on the results. This favourable response speeded up the process of learning English as a foreign language for the international students involved in the project. However, all of the students involved started getting to know foreign cultures and becoming inter-culturally competent. This made the process of learning effortless and enjoyable.

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Content and Language Integrated Learning: English Language and Tourism Management

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Abstract: The paper seeks to explore possibilities of integrating content and language learning in a foreign language course designed for students of tourism at the Faculty of Geography, University of Belgrade. It presents some of the materials and activities designed to help students develop their foreign language skills and acquire new knowledge in tourism management. It also specifies some of the main teaching benefits of a CLIL teaching module, such as creation of an interactive learning environment with the emphasis on social communication (pair / group work, peer tutoring, peer assessment, etc.), development of linguistic competences, development of cognitive and academic skills, development of learner autonomy, etc.

Key words: CLIL, English language, tourism management, linguistic competences, cognitive skills, academic skills

1. INTRODUCTION

Content and language integrated learning (CLIL) refers to every learning situation when there is an integrated learning of a foreign language (additional / vehicular language) and the content of a non-language subject. CLIL approaches vary greatly depending on the number of subjects and foreign languages included and the combinations are almost limitless. The term CLIL, which was coined in Europe in 1994, is broad enough to include different forms of bilingual or multilingual education, various immersion programs, language showers, CLIL camps, family stays, international projects, student exchanges, work study abroad programs and CLIL modules (Mehisto, Marsh and Frigolis 2008, 9). CLIL programs take place in a number of different teaching situations and are organized at all levels of education: primary, secondary and tertiary.

2. INTEGRATING CONTENT AND LANGUAGE LEARNING: A HOLISTIC VIEW

A fundamental issue in all forms of content and language integrated learning and teaching is to identify the main focus and the main objectives. CLIL educational settings have dual focus and the following types of approaches can be distinguished:

- a) subject-led (content-led) approach when the focus is on the content and when language learning is included in content classes,
- b) language-led approach when the focus is on the foreign language i.e. when content from non-language subjects is used in language-learning classes (Mehisto, Marsh and Frigolis 2008, 11; Seradjoto, Prnjat and Guljelmi 2008, 41; Coyle, Hood and Marsh 2010, 33).

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In the first case the language is the vehicle i.e. a foreign language is used as an instrument for learning non-language matter, whereas in the second it is the content that is used as a vehicle for language promotion. A good example of the second type is the language class based on a thematic unit or a language class where content is used for language practice. Language teachers choose single topics of a particular discipline and expand on them creating modules where the content is exploited for language development. However, language teachers are not considered responsible for the teaching of disciplines other than their own. It is the subject teachers who teach the subject content through a mother tongue of students before the language teacher start their teaching of separate subject topics (Prnjat 2007, 371).

Apart from this dual learning, CLIL educational approaches enable students to develop their learning skills as well (Mehisto, Marsh and Frigolis 2008, 11). CLIL activities enhance students' responsibility and work habits, organization and collaboration skills, independent and self-study work, initiative, motivation, confidence, etc. CLIL practice is realized in a way that provides a more holistic educational experience for students (Coyle, Hood and Marsh 2010, 1).

3. SELECTING, EVALUATING AND CREATING MATERIALS AND TASKS FOR CLIL EDUCATIONAL SETTINGS

CLIL has proven to be the most natural way of developing foreign language ability because it resembles the way we originally learn our first language. Language learning is enhanced through increased motivation. Students like the participatory nature of CLIL activities - concrete tasks, project work, hands-on activities, etc. When the content is current, interesting and relevant, students are motivated to learn the language in order to understand the content.

In order to increase students' motivation and participation teachers should try to choose topics that are interesting and familiar to students or topics that they have recently studied in their mother tongue with their subject teachers. Familiarity with the subject enables students to pay closer attention to semantic, lexical, syntactic or discourse aspects of the text (Coonan 2006, VI; Prnjat 2007, 372). The term 'text' denotes the following forms of authentic material: various articles from textbooks, newspapers or magazines; video or audio materials; different types of company-specific materials such as annual reports, product brochures and catalogues, manuals and written instructions, newsletters, business correspondence, reports and memos, minutes of meetings or contracts; different types of public information materials such as official documents, brochures, leaflets or videos published by governments or national institutions, etc. (Ellis and Johnson 2005, 157-185; Prnjat 2007, 379).

3.1 The use of Web materials

Foreign language teachers are often compelled to use authentic materials that are not specifically created for the purpose of language learning and teaching. Such materials, modified or unmodified in form, are used both as examples of natural language use and as stimuli for various communicative activities. In order to be able to use such materials language teachers should:

- develop effective research skills needed to manage the enormous amount of information available on the Web;
- select the material that is appropriate to the objectives of the school curriculum, the course or particular tasks (information on the Web is presented in different formats - written, spoken or multimedia);

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- modify the material and teaching techniques (the kind and degree of modification depends on the age and language proficiency of the students).(Prnjat 2007, 372; Seradjoto, Prnjat and Guljelmi 2008, 41-42).

3.2 Hypertextuality and multimedia

The Web material has some particular features - hypertext and multimedia- which distinguish it from more traditional material such as newspaper texts or videos. The organization of hypertexts is quite different from that of traditional texts. Hypertexts are relational and non-linear and therefore can be read at various levels of depth and speed according to students' linguistic skills and learning styles (Prnjat 2007, 372). They also help students develop 'relational thinking and hierarchical structuring' and encourage them to 'reinterpret, reorganize and reconstruct prior knowledge in light of the new' (Kramsch 1993, 200). Therefore, the Web appears to be an indispensable teaching tool to any instructor looking for specialized materials and can be of great help to teachers faced with classes at varying levels of the target language proficiency (Prnjat 2007, 372).

3.3 Factors to be considered when selecting and creating materials and tasks

Ways of exploiting materials depend on the type and content of materials, on the needs, motivation and interests of learners, on their language proficiency and their prior education and experience (Ibid., 373). Before selecting and modifying materials, teachers should draw up a course plan and define precisely the objectives. They should:

- perform class observations of a content subject in order to study the methodology, classroom practices, teaching materials;
- select shared themes and topics (e.g. investment possibilities in tourism industry in Serbia) trying to avoid duplication of the information provided;
- perform the needs analysis and select a subject according to the students' interests and needs; a topic should be as narrow as possible (e.g. particular aspect of tourism management, such as incentives or government subsidies for foreign investors);
- assess the level of students' language proficiency by using placement tests or interviews in order to form groups of similar language level; then search for the appropriate text having in mind the level of language proficiency and the length of the teaching module (e.g. how much time is to be spent on reading / listening / speaking / writing, or on grammar and vocabulary practice, etc.);
- take account of the date of publication - a text should be up-to-date with recent data;
- list the main language areas that need to be covered (functional, grammatical and lexical) and find the best way of exploiting the text i.e. decide on appropriate tasks and activities;
- design different kinds of activities to maintain students' motivation and enable enough practice of all language skills; if necessary, delete some of the original material or add some follow-up exercises to help draw attention to linguistic features of the text and elaborate on difficult vocabulary or grammar points (e.g. some material may be superfluous or too detailed or some parts may be too difficult to understand); pre, while and post-reading exercises can focus on the content of the text or on the lexis of the text, since understanding new words and phrases leads to better understanding of the content itself (Ibid.);

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- decide how much time will be spent on each language area (the time can be adjusted later if needed) and set the sequence in which they are to be covered (there should be a progression from easy to more difficult tasks and some time should be allowed for revision of language points);
- decide how these areas can be best practiced i.e. choose appropriate methodology (many learning tasks and activities, such as role-plays, are the same as in General English courses, but some as problem-solving or decision-making are more typical of ESP courses) (Ellis and Johnson 2005, 215-218);
- select several main performance skills and set the objectives (e.g. giving presentations, giving descriptions and explanations, participating in discussions and meetings, negotiating, telephoning, socializing, reading and writing different kinds of professional documents, etc.); use consistent terminology and make a balance between the time needed for introducing new language and the time needed for practicing both new and known language.

4. BENEFITS OF CLIL EDUCATIONAL SETTINGS

Different CLIL programs exist in both mainstream school education and within pilot projects in most European countries. CLIL modules range from those covering the full education cycle (e.g. bilingual education systems in some European countries, such as Luxembourg and Malta, or regions within some countries such as Valle D'Aosta or Trentino Alto Adige in Italy), a school level or part of a school level (e.g. bilingual sections in Germany, Austria, France, etc.) to a course, a project or individual CLIL lessons (e.g. CLIL-type projects in Austria, Spain, Italy, Sweden, Hungary, Bulgaria, Serbia, etc.) (Serragiotto 2003, 33-36; Eurydice 2006, 13-28; Seradjoto, Prnjat and Guljelmi 2008, 37). Since 2004, twenty schools (ten primary and ten secondary) have been granted permission by the Ministry of Education to design and implement various types of CLIL programs in Serbia.¹

All these programs and modules represent 'tailor-made' forms of bilingual or multilingual education since they take into account the social, political, historical, geographical, educational and linguistic circumstances of the country. Their main educational aim is cultural enrichment and development of linguistic pluralism (Eurydice 2006, 3; Prnjat 2007, 371).

4.1 Development of linguistic skills

In CLIL educational settings, students are presented with a discourse and a more sophisticated register of the target language (vehicular language) and the professional features of the language connected to the specialization of the school or faculty they attend. Thus, when students are educated for jobs in tourism industry or when they study for jobs in marketing or financial sector, they are presented with the themes and language associated with various aspects of their future professions.

Furthermore, research has shown that CLIL approaches facilitate content acquisition and that CLIL students perform as well and very often outperform non-CLIL students in terms of learning content (Mehisto, Marsh and Frigolis 2008, 20). They also outperform their peers in regular programs on reading, writing and listening tests. This is partly because CLIL learning and teaching techniques enable them to develop metalinguistic awareness. This means that they can compare languages more easily and choose their words more precisely when communicating. They are much better at checking

¹ These data were presented at the English Book's Conference *CLIL and Bilingual Education* held in Belgrade on 17 November, 2012

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whether their message is accurately received and are able to guess meaning of words from context (Ibid.) Their foreign language ability is more effectively developed through CLIL than conventional foreign language teaching (Deller and Price 2007, 7).

4.2 Development of cognitive skills

Apart from developing and improving students' linguistic and academic skills, CLIL also helps develop their cognitive skills. Students become better at perceiving, recognizing, judging, reasoning, conceiving, etc. When they analyse facts and figures, different perspectives and understandings, articulate and conceive plans, assess or judge progress in meeting planned outcomes, think about the learning process itself, students simultaneously develop their cognitive skills (Mehisto, Marsh and Frigolis 2008, 30).

4.3 Promotion of effective learning styles

CLIL approaches to teaching and learning offer a variety of different teaching and learning styles. Many foreign language instructors, as well as teachers of other subjects, have noticed that their students react in different ways to the activities done in the class. Some students, for example, enjoy working in groups, while others prefer to work alone. Research has shown that each learner has a preferred method of processing information. That preference is recognized as one's own 'learning style' (Prnjat 2008, 215).

Therefore, teachers need to include various activities into CLIL classrooms to ensure that everybody's preferences and needs are catered for. In particular, those teachers who work with large mixed ability classes have to make sure that learners of all abilities find learning a foreign language and non-language content motivating and rewarding. They should adopt appropriate teaching techniques in order to help their learners study at their own pace. For example, exceptionally talented learners will have to learn to work independently so that they can continue on their own, while less competent learners are engaged in other, less demanding activities. These slower learners may need special support and appropriately challenging tasks to keep them motivated and to ensure some success (Ibid.). By providing guidance and scaffolding, teachers facilitate accommodation of cognitive challenge i.e. enable learners to acquire new knowledge through learning which is challenging, yet within their reach (Coyle, Hood and Marsh 2010, 29).

Besides, by observing how students react to different activities and tasks, teachers may discover what type of learners their students are, and thus customize their teaching materials (e.g. if a majority of students are visual learners, they may try to use more often various visual aids such as pictures, photos, graphs, power point presentations, etc). Most researchers and educationalists recognize the following three types of learning styles: auditory, visual and kinesthetic. Auditory learners use mainly the auditory sense (talking and listening) and learn best when given verbal explanations and instructions. Visual learners predominantly use imagination, while kinesthetic respond positively to physical interaction (Prnjat 2008, 216-217).

In CLIL educational settings, linguistic intelligence, which is prevalent in language teaching, is supported by other intelligences: logical / mathematical (e.g. in problem solving, predicting, collecting data, classifying, etc.), visual / spatial (e.g. the use of charts and graphs) and interpersonal (e.g. in discussions, cooperative learning, pair and group work, peer teaching, peer assessment, etc.), intrapersonal (e.g. in individual study and projects) (Ibid.).

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4.4 Promotion of interactive learning environment

Interactive teaching and learning in a CLIL classroom helps the learners understand the content more easily, since it engages their interest and enhances their motivation. When students find the non-language subject complicated, boring or unappealing and the vehicular language (foreign language) difficult, both teaching and learning become strenuous and discouraging. (Deller and Price 2007: 8). Therefore, teachers should create stimulating and varied activities and tasks to include whole-class, group, pair and individual work.

Project work, for example, provides excellent training for the real-life situations in the workplace (Ibid.,133). It helps develop learners' confidence and independence, and gives the opportunity for students of mixed linguistic ability to show their different talents and creativity. It also promotes peer teaching and peer assessment (Lucietto 2006, 127-128). Peer assessment, which can be carried out in discussion between two partners, in small groups or in front of the whole class, provides the necessary feedback on the learning process and allows students to take some responsibility for their own assessment.

Project work is focused on content learning rather than on specific language points; it is cooperative rather than competitive; it leads to authentic integration of skills and processing of information from varied sources; it culminates in an end product thus giving the project a real purpose; it is motivating, stimulating and challenging (Fried-Booth 2002, 18-24). Projects can be carried out intensively over a short period of time or extended over several weeks, a full semester or during the whole academic year.

The most suitable form of a project work depends on a variety of factors such as curricular and course objectives, students' interests and proficiency levels, and availability of materials. The Internet as a learning tool provides resources necessary to carry out authentic projects and allows teachers to design varied activities by using meaningful and challenging material.

5. EXAMPLE OF A CLIL MODULE

In the second part of this paper, we present a CLIL module that combines teaching of English and teaching of some fundamental issues of tourism management.

This is an experimental CLIL module devised and implemented at the Faculty of Geography, with the second-year students of Tourism department. The module comprised four teaching sessions of 120 minutes and was carried out as an extracurricular course during four weekends. The classes took place in the computer lab, since most of the activities demanded the use of computers (MS word and the Internet). The group consisted of 20 students, who had voluntarily enrolled at the module, and whose knowledge of English was at B1 – B2 level. The instructor was the English language teacher.²

² Coonan distinguishes two categories of various CLIL scenarios: in the first, it is the subject teacher who assumes responsibility for teaching content through a foreign language, usually as a part of the school curriculum, while in the second, it is the language teacher who teaches some non-language content often in the form of extracurricular CLIL classes (Coonan 2002, 114)

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5.1 Prerequisites for attending the module

- previously acquired knowledge of the subject: all students have finished their first year and have passed final exams in Cultural and Heritage Tourism and Tourism Economics as compulsory courses, while four of the following courses have been taken as elective: Mountain Tourism, Seaside Tourism, Spa Tourism, Nautical Tourism, Rural Tourism, Archeological Tourism and City Tourism;
- knowledge of the language of instruction (vehicular language): all students have had English courses for 8 years at their primary and secondary schools.

5.2 Teaching aims

- creation of interactive teaching and learning environment in which students use authentic materials presented through the language of instruction (vehicular language): English;
- acquisition of non-language content: Tourism Management;
- development of linguistic competences (the four language skills);
- acquisition of new vocabulary (e.g. income, revenue, GDP, VAT, FDI, rise, raise, etc.);
- grammar revision: parts of speech, tenses, passive forms, numbers, etc.;
- development of cognitive and academic skills;
- development of IT skills (e.g. use of the Internet search engines, finding, selecting and retrieving information, use of online dictionaries, etc.).

5.3 Teaching units ³

Session 1

Students are given four (modified) texts to read from SIEPA's brochure *Tourism Industry in Serbia*.

Task 1 (whole-class work)

Read the title of each of the following four texts. What information do you expect to find in each text?

Text 1:	Global tourism trends
Text 2:	Tourism in Serbia
Text 3:	Serbian tourism workforce
Text 4:	Tourism infrastructure in Serbia

Work in pairs / small groups and discuss

1. What do you know about global tourism trends?
2. Where can you find information on global tourism trends?
3. Which are the principal emitting countries / regions in the world / Europe?
4. Which are the leading receiving countries / regions in the world / Europe?
5. Why is South East Europe / Serbia attractive for foreign tourists?

³ For purposes of brevity, only materials and tasks of the first teaching session are presented in the paper.

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Task 2 (individual work)

Use a dictionary and translate the following words and phrases into Serbian

GDP (Gross Domestic Product)	revenue (n)	VAT (Value Added Tax)	emergence (n)	FDI (Foreign Direct Investment)	upswing (n)
employ (v)	demand (n)	exhibit (v)	market share (noun phrase)	account for (v)	fertile (adj)
				capitalize (v)	unique (adj)

Task 3 (individual work)

Now read the first text **Global Tourism Trends** and do the exercises

1. The world tourism industry has grown at **double** the pace of global **GDP** over the last 30 years. This rapid **growth** of tourism is expected to continue in the future, too. Tourism creates employment, generates **value added tax (VAT) revenue**, and attracts foreign investment. It is one of the major global industries. It **accounts for** around 5 % of the world's **GDP** and **employs** over 200 million people worldwide. In over 150 countries, tourism is among the five industries that have generated the largest export **revenues**. In over 60 countries, it is the number one industry in terms of exports.

2. Traditionally, developed countries in Western and Central Europe have been the destination of choice for many travellers, but the **emergence** of travel to developing countries is slowly **gaining market share**. In 2004, Europe was the number one tourist destination in the world, **accounting for** 55 % of all international arrivals, with Eastern Europe **accounting for** only 18 % of the total number of arrivals. However, Eastern Europe **exhibited** 8 % growth in **revenues** over the previous year, thus being the region with the highest growth in Europe.

3. Tourism industry is inevitably linked to the health of the overall economy. In that respect, Europe – especially Southeastern Europe (SEE) – offers a **fertile** ground for development of tourism industry. In 2004, the European economy **grew** at the annual rate of 3.3 %, while Eastern and Central Europe **exhibited** 5.2 % annual growth – the largest annual growth rate in Europe. The SEE region is a new and **unique** destination for international tourists. Recent global **Foreign Direct Investment (FDI)** statistics show that, from the investors' point of view, the SEE is one of the most attractive regions for investment.

4. New trends have **emerged** in tourism industry in the last decade of the 20th century. Today most travellers are looking for something new, such as cultural authenticity. Clearly, the **demand** for tourist services is on the **upswing**, and in order to **capitalize** on this, investments in this industry sector are necessary.

Refer to the passages and

a) decide whether the following statements are TRUE or FALSE according to the passage.

b) write out the true statement expressing the most central idea.

Paragraph 1

- The world tourism industry has grown twice as fast as the global GDP over the last 30 years.
- Tourism creates unemployment, generates VAT revenue, and attracts foreign investment.
- It is one of the minor global industries accounting for around 5 % of the world's GDP.
- In over 150 countries, tourism is among the five industries that generate the largest import revenues.

Paragraph 2

- In 2004, the European economy grew at the annual rate of 3.3 %, while Eastern and Central Europe showed 5.2 % annual growth – the largest annual growth rate in Europe.
- The SEE region is a new and unique destination for domestic tourists.
- Recent global FDI statistics show that, from the investors' point of view, the SEE is one of the least attractive regions for investment.

Paragraph 3

- Traditionally, developing countries in Western and Central Europe have been the destination of choice for many travellers, but the emergence of travel to developed countries is slowly gaining market share.
- In 2004, Europe was the number one tourist destination in the world generating 55 % of all international arrivals.
- Eastern Europe exhibited 8 % increase in revenues over the previous year, thus being the region with the highest growth in Europe.

Paragraph 4

- New trends appeared in tourism industry in the last decade of the 20th century.
- The demand for tourist services is rising, and in order to capitalize on this, investments in this industry sector are necessary.

Task 4 (individual work)

Read the dictionary explanations on the use of the following verbs and do the exercise

Match each phrase on the left (1-6) with its closest synonym on the right (a – f).

1. drop by 50 %	4. get worse	a. rise	d. increase
2. rise by 100%	5. gain	b. deteriorate	e. improve
3. get better	6. grow	c. double	f. halve

Task 5 (whole-class work)

Practice reading the following sets of numbers and numerical expressions

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The package tour costs around \$250 per person.

22, 600 persons per square kilometer

1,550 tourist agencies

500,000 residents; 465,283 tourist

7.5 million citizens; 150 million people

3rd March 1989; 21st June 2008; By 1900; in 1987, 2004, 2010, 2050; in the 1950s; in 4th century BC; in 20th century

Henry VIII; Queen Elisabeth 2nd

10 to 20 percent; 5.2 % annual growth; 47.25 %; 29.567 %; It's 6.45 a.m.; It's 8.00 p.m.

0.55%; 0.375; 3.458; 25.679;

Invoice No. R3120/SCK

\$2,2 bn a year; € 6.5 bn debt

Tel. No. 0044 533 125697; 38111 44 44 283

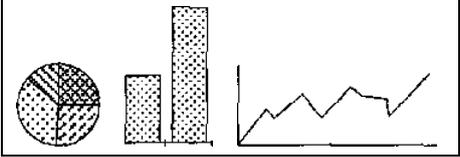
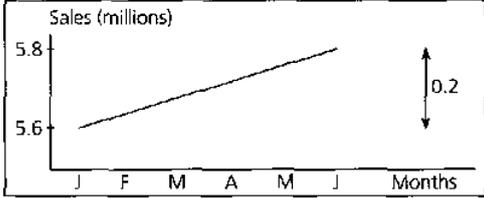
44.5 x 17 m², 58 x 72 cm

It's 18.00;

½; ¼; a half; a quarter; ¾; 9 ½; 6 ¾; 5%

Task 6 (individual work)

Label these charts with words from the box and circle the correct words in the presentation extract

line graph bar chart pie chart	
	

Look at the graph showing online air ticket sales worldwide in the first half / quarter of this year. The vertical / horizontal axis represents sales in millions / billions. As you can see from it, sales rose / fell from 1.6 m in January to a figure / number of 1.8 m in June. In other words, sales decreased / increased by 0.2 m.

Task 7 (pair / small group work)

Read the following extract and then draw a **pie chart** that will show the percentage of overnight stays generated by tourists from six major markets

In 2002 three quarters of overnight stays by foreign tourists were generated by tourists from six major markets: Austria 17%, Croatia 6%, Italy 18%, Germany 21%, the Netherlands 4% and the UK 5%.

Task 8 (pair / small group work)

Read the following extract and then draw a **bar chart** that will show the fall in total number of overnight stays from 1986 to 2002 and the rise of overnight stays generated by domestic tourists in the same period.

The total number of overnight stays in 2002 was 8% lower than in 1990 and 20% lower than in 1986. The number of overnight stays by domestic tourists in 2002 was 12% higher than in 1986 and 26% higher than in 1990.

Task 9 (pair / small group work)

Read the following extract and then draw a **line graph** that will show the rise in foreign currency earnings due to the increase in overnight stays by foreign tourists from 2002 to 2007

According to figures from the Central Bank, foreign tourists contributed almost half a billion euros to foreign currency earnings in 2007. This is four times higher than 5 years ago when foreign currency earnings were € 127 m. In 2003 (€ 132m) and 2004 (€ 139) there was a slight growth and earnings jumped in 2005 (€265m). They soared in 2006 (€ 389m) and peaked in 2007 (€ 480 m).

Task 10

Homework (individual work):

choose one of the following topics, find the information on the web and write a short text (500 – 600 words)

1. the most visited European tourist destination / capital city
2. the most visited Serbian destination / spa resort / national park
3. a career in tourism and hospitality sector that you would like to pursue

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6. CONCLUSION

Successful CLIL practice requires teachers to engage in rather demanding and sometimes even daunting task of creating appropriate teaching materials and classroom activities. Therefore, many teachers are deterred from developing their own materials since it is very time consuming. However, the pedagogical benefits of using authentic materials in a content and language integrated programme are evident: students become more motivated, especially when using new technologies, such as the Web, and participate enthusiastically in class activities and assignments. Their linguistic, cognitive and academic skills develop as they engage in learning new content through a foreign language.

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Activity Based English Teaching for Communication.

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Abstract: The traditional lecture based learning model, being a teacher –centered pedagogical approach is being discarded as it promotes superficial learning. Language teaching, which involves features like interaction in the target language, selected reading materials, games and activities in the classroom is deemed as an acceptable and beneficial form of instruction. The purpose of this paper is to explore how English for communication can be taught through various activities and create a curriculum that can be redesigned and structured to suit the learning styles of the students. It is important to do two assessments in this method1. Learning styles 2) to judge the level of comprehension in English. This is done to group the students according to their learning styles and language competence. In the next stage the students are taught the basics of the language through activities that suit their learning styles. Activities that promote both written and speaking skills are introduced. Most of the students these days are very techno savvy (Digital Natives) and hence respond to methods that involve the use of cell phones, computers and the internet. The method applied here for teaching English can be used to teach students from any branches of study.

Key Words: Pedagogy, Digital Natives, curriculum redesign.

INTRODUCTION

Teaching the Generation Y is the biggest challenge of our time. The pedagogy used to teach the earlier generation seems to be lacking in some elements. The divide between the teachers and students is growing. The new generation, known as Generation Y by the Americans and Digital Natives by Marc Prensky, find it difficult to follow the pedagogical approach of their teachers. While the new generation is too techno savvy and learn quickly through gadgets it must be remembered that one shoe doesn't fit all. A healthy mix of some techniques used earlier in the direct teaching method along with a new approach for practice where tools like computers and cell phones can be used, seems to be the most effective way of teaching language for communication.

Teaching English involves the learning of the four skills namely listening, speaking, reading and writing (LSRW). Generally language learning proceeds from hearing and speaking to reading and writing. But in the case of second or foreign language acquisition this order is often violated. The learners begin with writing and reading and come to speech only towards the end of their learning. Very little curriculum time is given to teaching speaking skills. It is therefore not unusual to find a large number of English learners who are fairly proficient in reading and writing but cannot speak well. Distinguishing between acquisition and learning, Stephen Krashen says that learning is a conscious knowledge of a second language and acquisition is a matter of unconscious picking up of language. It relates to the gradual development of ability in a language by using it naturally in

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communicative situations. Learning involves a conscious process of accumulation of knowledge and vocabulary of a language. If we consider mother tongue as L1 and second language as L2 the two major barriers that come up in L2 learning are Mother tongue interference (in forms of code switching and code mixing) and the age barrier. Hence, activities that include a great deal of practice ,helps to remove both the barriers as there is scope for constant correction and improvement.

Activity based teaching approach will always depend on tasks that include

1. Drills

2. Practice of phased listening

3. Activities that would develop vocabulary, practice speaking and writing.

It is a good idea to identify the learning styles of the students before giving them the activities. After identifying their learning style it is easier to group them accordingly and make them work through the activities effectively.

Learning styles:

The activity based approach is most effective because takes care of the different skills of the students within the classroom. But an awareness of the different learning styles of the students allows the teacher to design the activities in a way that it addresses the preferred learning styles of all the students in a given classroom. An inventory on different learning styles will help to subgroup the students accordingly. (kinesthetic (tactile), auditory, visual) The four different ways learning can be accomplished can be further seen as

- Concrete experience
- Reflective observation
- Abstract thinking
- Active experimentation

(While creating a learning profile of the students to see how they learn, it is also important for the teacher to understand her/his own preferred learning style because that's going to her preferred teaching style too.) The tasks or activities can be then assigned to the various subgroups that will reap the most benefit out of it. Creating images with words is an activity that will be most effective for Abstract thinkers. Finding words and creating games in a class room is for the Concrete experience. Recalling stories and words associated is for the reflective learner. Finding new ways of learning and experimenting in the classroom will be done by Active experimentation. Students who learn through this method learn the least through drills and teacher oriented classrooms.

Theories behind Task (Activity) based learning approach:

To promote language learning one of the most practised method in India is the Task based approach. Task based approaches focus' on a form that uses pedagogic tasks to draw the learner's attention to particular aspects of the language code which is naturally embedded in the tasks.(Long and Robinson 1988). The inclusion of some type of instruction on the formal aspects of the target language can be found in most recent formulations of task based language instruction (e.g. Skehan, 1988; Willis, 1996). Tasks also provide input to learners and opportunities for meaningful language acquisition (Swain, 1995). Opportunities for production may force students to pay close attention to form and to the relationship between form and meaning. It is assumed that this combination of contextualized,

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meaningful input and output will engage learners' general cognitive processing capacities through which they will process and reshape the input. In other words tasks are likely to create a rich linguistic environment capable of activating the learners' intuitive heuristics which are natural cognitive processes, used both consciously and unconsciously for developing the somewhat separate rules systems that underlie language comprehension and production (Kumaravadivelu, 1994). In addition, form function relationships, are more readily perceived by the learners because of the highly contextualised and communicative nature of the tasks. (Mac Whinney, 1997)

Today English language is taught with a purpose. In order for the requirement of the learner to be met the curriculum has to be more 'context' based with a content that supports the 'content' and aims at

- Communicating with others(both written and oral)
- Giving information to others.
- Sharing feelings.
- Persuading others.
- Dealing through words in special situations.
- Telling things that interest others such as stories, shared experiences.
- Making formal or impromptu speeches.
- Getting ideas across, out loud.
- Understand /comprehend what is being said/ or has been written.

Task Based Approach

History: In 1939, the University of Michigan established the first English Language institute in the USA. The primary aim of the Institute was to train teachers of English to teach *English as a foreign language* or as a *second language*. Charles Fries who was the director of the institute, was trained in structural linguistics and he applied the principles of structural linguistics to language teaching. According to Fries, grammar or the structure was the starting point of teaching language. The structure of the language was identified with its basic sentence patterns and grammatical structures. The language was taught by intensive oral drilling of the basic sentence patterns. Systematic attention was paid to pronunciation. Teaching techniques concentrated on repetition of a pattern a number of times so that the learner became perfect in the use of pattern. Systematic courses and materials were developed based on important patterns to teach English as a second language.

While the structural approach developed by linguists at and other universities was gaining ground, the applied linguists and methodologists of Britain were developing the oral approach to teaching English as a second language. The two traditions developed independently. Two prominent linguists in this movement were Harold Palmer and A.S. Hornby. They developed a more scientific foundation for the oral approach than was seen in the direct method, and by 1950s the oral approach was accepted British approach to English language teaching. Situational Approach (Hornby) suggests that any language item, whether it be a structure or a word, should not be presented in isolation. It has to be introduced and practiced in a situational context.

The Structural –Oral –Situational Approach(S-O-S): This approach is used as an alternative to the direct method of teaching English in the classroom.

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Theory & Background

The S-O-S approach is the presentation and practice of carefully selected and graded grammatical structures of English in effective meaningful situations, initially through speech and later through reading and writing. Language is viewed as structurally related elements for the encoding of meaning, the elements being phonemes, morphemes, words, structures and sentence types.

Structures of teaching items are selected and graded by language teaching experts and methodologists. For the purpose of grading structures the following criteria are taken into account:

- Whether the items are frequently used by the users of the language.
- Whether the items are useful for the purposes of learning the language.
- Whether the items can be easily taught and learnt.
- Which items can be grouped together for the purpose of teaching.

Similarly, the vocabulary items are also selected and graded.

The S-O-S approach is based on the following principles:

- Language is primarily speech.
- A language is a set of habits.
- By using situations the use of the mother tongue can be avoided.

The characteristics of the S-O-S approach can be summarized as follows:

- Speech is the basis of language teaching- new language items and vocabulary items are presented orally before they are presented in the written form.
- The language items which are commonly used by native speakers in their day to day language are selected for teaching.
- The items are also graded according to their usefulness, frequency and teachability.
- The language items thus selected are presented and practiced in meaningful situations.
- Vocabulary items are selected with reference to the General Service List.
- Reading and Writing are based on items which have already been introduced and practiced orally.

Methodology & Practice:

Drills:

Call- word Technique- Substitution:

In this drill the teacher writes a pattern on the blackboard. Learners are asked to read it a few times and once they have mastered the pattern, the teacher calls words to be substituted in the right places in the sentence.

For example:

The book is on the table.
Teacher: Floor
Learner: The book is on the floor.
Teacher: Bench.
Learner: The book is on the bench.

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Incremental Drills:

In this drill learners are asked to add a word/words to a sentences given by the teacher. The teacher supplies the word/words to be added. It is as given:

Teacher: I saw him.
Learner: I saw him.
Teacher: Yesterday.
Learner: I saw him yesterday.
Teacher: at ten
Learner: I saw him yesterday at ten.

Backward Chaining Technique:

This technique is useful when someone is not able to repeat long a sentence. In this drill words or phrases from the end of a sentence are taken and repeated. The movement is from the end to the beginning.

For example:

Teacher: in the morning
Learner: in the morning.
Teacher: at ten in the morning
Learner: at ten in the morning.
Teacher: yesterday
Learner: yesterday at ten in the morning.
Teacher: saw him
Learner: saw him yesterday at ten in the morning.
Teacher: I
Learner: I saw him yesterday at ten in the morning.

Completion:

In this the students were given a part of a sentence and asked to complete the sentence by adding a meaningful part or clause.

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1. He worked so hard(first class).
2. If you drive fast(accident).
3. Unless you know the skill..... (well).
4. If he had known my address..... (not miss).

Transformation

In this technique the learners were required to change a statement into a question, an affirmative statement into a negative statement, active into passive sentence.

1. This is a table. (statement)
Is this a table? (question)
2. We shall play a game. (affirmative)
We shall not play a game. (negative)
3. I drew this picture. (active)
This picture was drawn by me. (passive)

Combining sentences or parts of a sentence

In this technique, two sentences are given and learners are asked to combine them. A joining word is given for help (and, but, either, or, neither, nor because, which, also). As this leads to the formation of complex or compound sentences, it is best to keep it to the next phase of learning. A list of linking words that help develop certain coherence within a paragraph can be found in the internet.

Teaching Listening

There are two major reasons for teaching listening. The first is called Listening for Perception. In this the learner is given practice in identifying the different sounds, sound combinations, stress and intonation patterns of the English language. The second is called Listening for Comprehension. In this the learner is given practice in developing listening for understanding by using listening materials and conducting listening activities which take into account the real life needs of the learner.

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Listening for perception

Listening for perception is practiced more at the primary level where learners are being introduced to the language. The focus of the listening activity is aural perception. Comprehension is of secondary importance. The listening exercises do not use visuals so that the learners concentrate on the sound of words or intonation patterns. The learner has to rely on his/her ear to repeat these sounds. The methodology involves repetition of short, discrete items. The teacher demonstrates the sounds which she wishes to teach while learners are encouraged to imitate and identify them using drill and choral repetition.

Listening for comprehension:

In this, the listening material is based on a particular context and the learner is given practice in specific areas of listening which are related to his/her needs. The learner is most often expected to make short, quick responses as a part of the listening exercises. Learners usually find these activities challenging, as effective listening activities have an element of game playing or problem solving built into them.

Listening Tasks: The listening tasks are effective if the learners have a well designed, interesting and carefully graded activity to complete. Some of the tasks are to express agreement or disagreement, take notes, make a picture or a diagram according to the instructions or answer questions. Listening tasks can be of two types

- a. Extensive listening
- b. Intensive listening.

Extensive Listening:

During Extensive listening the learner listens to an interesting story, radio programme or anecdote. The listening material may be lengthy. The learner listens for pleasure and is not expected to complete a worksheet or task. Extensive listening may take place anywhere.

Intensive Listening:

During intensive Listening the learner listens very carefully. E.g. while listening to directions. Such listening material is short and has a special worksheet designed on it. There is some amount of challenge so that the learner feels motivated to complete the task. It is through the completion of this task that the learner gets practice in specific listening skills.

The Three Phases of a Listening Class.

There are three phases of a listening class. But a great deal of planning goes in before that. The size of the class, the arrangement of the furniture, availability of the cassettes and recorder have to be taken care in advance.

The Pre-Listening Phase: In this phase the teacher sets up the activity which gives the learner a purpose for listening. A quick look at the listening exercise helps the learner to understand the context and what s/he to listen for. Clarification of doubts is done by the teacher. The pre-listening activity is a very short phase. At times the learner may be asked to predict what they will hear.

The While – Listening Phase: During this phase the learner completes the task based on listening material. S/he concentrates on the listening activity rather than worry about grammar or reading. The learners are encouraged to gather as much information as they can from the passage while listening. If they fill the information later it becomes a memory task and not a listening one. The focus of the task is on the message of the listening task.

The Post – Listening Phase: This activity occurs after the learners have completed their listening activity. The information or completed chart which has been filled during the While –listening phase can now be used for integrating with other skills. E.g. exchange of information to fill missing information

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Listening activities practiced in the classroom.

Dictation, Listening and following a route, Listening to music, Listening to a sports commentary, Listening to instructions and marking a ground plan, Evaluation

General Activities in the Classroom that Promotes Communication

The following activities were designed and practiced in the classroom.

- Games emphasizing the use of different parts of speech.
- Spotting the odd words from a group of words.
- Use of synonyms, antonyms, homonyms, suffixes and prefixes.
- Learning to figure out the meanings of words from context.
- Making friends with new words.
- Becoming aware of idiomatic expressions.
- Using literature to clear diction and introduce new words and phrases.
- Sentence building games.(Each student adds on a word till the sentence is complete)
- Build stories.
- Picture Reading.
- Create images with words.
- Problem solving and working on puzzles so that they discuss with each other.
- Teaching each other.
- Finding information about each other based on a format.
- Giving and following directions.
- Improvisations and role-plays based on some clues and stimulus.
- Question and answer sessions based on a text.
- Show and Tell.
- Identifying Passive Vocabulary.
- Improving Articulation and areas that need focus were then put to greater practice.

Today language classrooms have to be more student driven. Group work provides a framework whereby the learner can learn through maximum participation. The safety of small groups of similar learners reduces the hesitation and inhibition. A healthy competition also builds up in the form of intergroup rivalry. Communication builds when the physical distance between individuals is reduced. Group work also allows the teacher to move out of the constraints of the role and act as a manager, facilitator and guide.

Speaking skills may be developed through video presentations and taught the language through Imitation ----- Practice-----Reinforcement.

Conclusion

The current scenario of English teaching world over is such that everyone is looking at a quick method that will give language competence to our students. A right combination of content and procedure will hopefully yield the desired results.

Note

Marc Prensky coined the term “Digital Natives” for today’s learners. Prensky used the term Digital Natives to describe the generation born after 1980, brought up in the age of digital technology and therefore familiar with the digital gadgets, computers and internet, from an early age. He finds them

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responding to quick methods of learning that involve their own inputs as they are different from their teachers who were born much earlier and not so adept with the technological innovations.

Prensky defines this new generation with certain distinctive characteristics.

1. They receive information fast.
2. They think parallel and not in a linear fashion.
3. They are adept to multitasking.
4. As fast processors they prefer hypertext.
5. They function best when networked
6. Thrive on instant gratification.

The new syllabus can use technology and the social sites (facebook, second life) available in the virtual world to create a space for interaction. The virtual space makes it a safer place for interactions and learning. Perhaps we could creatively use their love for technology to design tasks and activities.

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A Summary of Essential Principles for Development of Efficient ESP Syllabi and Teaching Materials

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Abstract: The purpose of this paper is to summarize the crucial specific principles for development of the two basic segments of ESP – syllabi and teaching materials as prerequisite conditions for quality ESP teaching.

The first principle is to apply the recognized ESP theoretical achievements in practical terms as a foundation for structuring syllabi and teaching materials. In spite of globalization tendencies, there is an absolute necessity to incorporate the corresponding language translations of terminology equivalents as well as corresponding cultural models of communication (Anglo-American vs. native). This implies a great advantage of local textbooks over global world-wide applicable ESP textbooks. Also, it is important to design syllabi and materials in ESP courses from the very beginning level to the most advanced one. Special attention and methodology should be applied for elementary courses.

The “all inclusive” principle should provide quality motivation of ESP teaching concerning all language skills, both EOP and EAP segments, communicative, scientific, functional and all other aspects of language learning at all levels. Since ESP teaching and learning assumes correlation of the knowledge of the specific professional field and a foreign language, it is absolutely necessary to adjust curriculum of ESP students to their professional/academic studies. This very often refers to introduction of ESP courses at senior years of professional studies (which is often not the case in practice).

When preparing ESP teaching materials, teachers and textbook writers should almost always use authentic sources of materials. That is the safest and most adequate method for ESP teachers. Likewise, cooperation between linguists and experts from the particular professional field (twinning) is required and can take various forms.

Eventually, the authors of this paper suggest that these principles should be adopted as standards prescribed for ESP syllabi design and materials development.

Key words: Syllabus Design, Teaching Materials, ESP Teaching Standardization, Glocalization

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1. INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this paper is to summarize the crucial specific principles for development of syllabi and teaching materials as the two basic segments of ESP teaching. The study and implementation of the essential principles are prerequisite conditions for improving the quality and effectiveness of ESP teaching.

The study of principles is very significant considering the fact that ESP teaching is a relatively young discipline of applied linguistics, with a tremendous and fast development, becoming a dominant discipline of applied linguistics and ELT in particular.

This paper concentrates on principles for development of ESP syllabi and teaching materials because those segments are not only crucial, but they are segments with the greatest need for theoretical and scientific intervention. The selection and treatment of the suggested principles presented in this summary are based upon theoretical ESP achievements and long, rich experience in ESP teaching of both authors of the paper.

2. THE PRINCIPLE OF “ESP THEORETICAL FOUNDINGS IMPLEMENTATION”

The principle of “ESP theoretical groundings implementation” is based on application of recognized ESP theoretical achievements in practical terms as a foundation for structuring syllabi and teaching materials. This means that ESP syllabi designers and material developers have to be familiar with traditional and contemporary ESP theoretical achievements in this field before they start their work on planning ESP courses. Although this principle can be seen and understood as an implied ESP training fact, it is not always the case that ESP practitioners have thorough and wide knowledge of the matter before getting into practical ESP activities. Moreover, the principles that we discuss and emphasize in this paper are sometimes completely unknown (or even disregarded as irrelevant) to many ESP teachers. Therefore, it is our opinion that obtaining good knowledge of recognized ESP theoretical achievements makes a crucial point of departure for any practical work (some of the must-have classics in this field of interest are, for instance, Hutchinson & Waters 1987, Dudley-Evans & St. John 1998, Flowerdew 1990, Nunan 1997, Gatehouse 2001).

The implementation of theoretical groundings implies the necessity for introduction of special ESP teacher training programmes. The present state of affairs indicates that there is a considerable lack of theoretical ESP expertise among ESP teachers in this country and surrounding region. This is due to the fact that academic programmes designed for education of English teachers have not included courses of ESP methodology within their curricula.

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3. “THE ESP GLOCALIZATION” PRINCIPLES

3.1. The inclusion of translation and cultural models

Unlike globalization tendencies in ELT which have brought about the need to minimize the presence of translation as a part of syllabi and teaching materials (although this modern principle and approach can be justified in EGP field), it is an absolute necessity to incorporate translation segments in ESP teaching and learning. This requirement is based on the specific features of professional/occupational English, in particular terminology and comparative cultural models in certain professional areas. The teaching and learning of terminology is almost impossible without translation and all accompanying problems, such as finding equivalent terms in L1 and L2 and treatment of Anglicisms in the mother-tongue language. Translation is also inevitable for effective acquisition of cultural models implying the comparisons of L1 and L2 cultures. In other words, how is it possible to compare cultures and cultural models without translation, especially in certain professional fields (for instance, marketing, management, medicine and some other fields with substantial communication dimension)? This principle of translation inclusion has been neglected by the contemporary theoretical considerations. This is probably because most of the leading ESP theoreticians, writers of teaching materials and syllabi designers are Anglo-American. They are inspired by globalization ideas and all the resulting issues.

ESP textbooks: think globally, design locally

The above mentioned principle, among other things, imposes the resulting need for application of locally developed ESP textbooks and other materials. There are obvious advantages of such materials, including both L1 and L2 components, over global world-wide applicable ESP textbooks and teaching materials. With all due respect for famous publishers of ELT and ESP materials of unquestionably great quality standards, there is no way that these materials can meet the needs to include comparative culture insights and comparative terminology issues as crucial segments in ESP teaching and learning. Therefore, locally developed syllabi and materials are a better option, of course, provided they satisfy high quality standards. The authors of this paper are fully aware that the above mentioned publishers will not appreciate such a standpoint as it may jeopardize their global markets and financial effects. But, arguments speak for themselves.

Both of the subprinciples mentioned could be encompassed within one generic notion called “The ESP Glocalization”.

4. THE “ALL LEVEL ESP COURSES” PRINCIPLE

The next important principle to be applied in developing efficient ESP syllabi and teaching materials is that each level of language learning, including the beginner and elementary ones, should be designed as ESP. There are still a considerable number of ESP practitioners and theoreticians that will disagree with such a view. For a long time there has been a strong belief, and even a prejudice, with regard to the correlation between EGP and ESP, that a prerequisite condition for ESP learning was a very good grounding in EGP. This practically meant that ESP students needed to attend a number of EGP

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courses before starting any ESP courses. However, the practice of ESP (both EOP and EAP) has proved not only the necessity for beginner and elementary ESP courses, but the existence of unquestionable arguments for designing all level ESP courses.

The beginner and elementary levels, within ESP syllabi and materials design, ask for special attention and carefully elaborated methodology. It is important to mention that the chosen approaches will very often differ from one field to another. If the purpose is to achieve a greater efficiency of ESP learning and teaching, it is inevitable to include “all level ESP courses” principle despite the difficulties and delicacies of teaching ESP at the very early levels.

5. THE “ALL INCLUSIVE” PRINCIPLE

When designing efficient ESP syllabi and teaching materials it is important to follow the so called “all inclusive” principle. This principle assumes the involvement and combination of versatile language elements classified in both vertical and horizontal fashion. Vertical segmentation refers to all language skills included, whereas horizontal stratification relates to various segments of the ESP concerned (a combination of EOP/EAP with the scientific part, communicative dimension and other aspects of language learning) depending on the level of study and concrete professional field. One of the additional purposes of this principle is to provide a greater motivation of ESP students. An analysis of the existing ESP materials has shown that a considerable number of them concentrate on partial segments of ESP materials development. Therefore, it is necessary to point out the need for “all inclusive” principles in development of efficient ESP materials.

6. THE “PROFESSION & ESP CORRELATION” PRINCIPLE

Since ESP teaching and learning processes assume a correlation of the knowledge of the professional field and ESP language competence, it is necessary to adjust the curriculum of ESP students to their professional academic studies. This principle of correlation specially refers to EAP. An overview of academic curricula in our country and surrounding region indicates that very few study programmes have ESP courses throughout all school years. Most of them have ESP courses only at the first one or at the first two years of studies. In this way, the necessary correlation between ESP and the knowledge of the academic field concerned, as a prerequisite condition for effective ESP learning and teaching, is not provided. Therefore, ESP teachers should plead for an introduction of ESP courses at senior years of professional academic studies if, for various reasons, it is not possible to incorporate ESP at all years of academic education.

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7. THE PRINCIPLES OF “MATERIAL AUTHENTICITY AND TWINNING”

7.1. Authentic materials priority

When preparing ESP teaching materials, the priority should be given to the selection of materials from authentic sources in the field of expertise, in addition to relevant pedagogic materials. This is the safest and most adequate approach for ESP teachers since they are primarily linguists and not experts of the concrete professional field. ESP teachers do not teach students their profession; they teach them the language of their profession.

7.2. The twinning process

Likewise, the twinning process, i.e. the cooperation between linguists and experts from the particular professional field, is the last mentioned (not the least in importance) principle of ESP syllabi design and materials development. This cooperation should take various forms and stages, such as: course and syllabus planning, needs analysis, selection of materials, decisions concerning the scope of terminology register, etc.

8. CONCLUSION

Instead of conclusion, the authors of this paper suggest that these principles should be adopted as standards prescribed for ESP syllabi design and materials development. In order to standardize these principles it is necessary to undertake more elaborate and thorough considerations of each individual principle. They definitely deserve professional attention since they can significantly contribute to ESP development in both, theoretical and practical terms. Therefore, we propose a special ESP conference (with the following possible title: “Towards Standardization of ESP Teaching”) to be organized and dedicated to this endeavor.

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Teaching Grammar in ESP context

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Abstract: Teaching grammar within ESP courses has received diverse and sometimes even opposing treatments. For some ESP practitioners the nature of ESP courses is such that a systematic and explicit grammar instruction is an imperative. At the other extreme, though, there are ESP practitioners who display much stronger preference for developing ‘the four main skills’ of their students (reading, writing, listening and speaking) than for developing their grammar skills. The aim of the paper is twofold. Firstly, it seeks to address the current state of teaching grammar within ESP courses in the Republic of Macedonia. More precisely, it seeks to find out ESP teachers’ practical experience and attitude to teaching grammar, on the one hand, and ESP students’ perceptions and beliefs regarding grammar learning, on the other hand. To that end, the study employs questionnaires and classroom observations as research instruments. Secondly, it aims to validate our position that not only grammar teaching and learning should be a mandatory segment of ESP, but also, as each ESP course is unique, it should be context and needs specific. Consequently, the manner and the extent to which grammar is included in the ESP courses should be based on both cautious appraisal of all circumstances and contributing factors as well as detailed planning of the course of actions.

Key words: grammar, ESP, teaching, learning

1. INTRODUCTION

In general, ESP courses concentrate more on language in context than on teaching grammar and language structures. However, the unwavering truth is that students’ inadequate command of grammar inevitably results in hardly intelligible English utterances, irrespective of their possibly rich vocabulary or their profound knowledge of the main subject matter.

Bringing the prominence of grammar instruction in ESP context to the fore, the paper primarily aims at providing insights into the current situation concerning teaching and learning grammar in ESP context in the Republic of Macedonia. More precisely, the paper investigates Macedonian ESP teachers and their students’ attitudes towards grammar instruction and acquisition. The research is carried out by means of two separate questionnaires specifically designed to tackle teachers and students’ positions, respectively.

This research was triggered by our role of ESP teachers and authors of some of the ESP courses we teach, which entails the challenge of diligently selecting materials suitable for developing students’ four main skills (reading, writing, speaking and listening) as well as grammar skills. Thus, we have witnessed first-hand that maintaining the delicate balance between these two is never an easy task. In addition, what makes the entire endeavor even more intricate is the selection of appropriate grammar points suitable for a particular ESP course and the decision on the depth to which those grammar points should be pursued.

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In that context, the paper also displays our efforts as ESP practitioners to bring grammar instruction closer to our ESP students by contextualizing it as much as possible, i.e. by completely incorporating and submersing it in the subject matter of the ESP courses we teach. In particular, in this paper we lay out some instances of grammar contextualization within the ESP course designed to meet the needs of computer sciences students.

The findings presented in this study will, hopefully, reaffirm the importance of teaching and learning grammar in ESP context, and will, subsequently, inspire ESP teachers to aspire towards creating more 'well-rounded', capable and proficient users of English, irrespective of their major field of interest.

2. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Teaching grammar has always provoked a lot of deliberation and different standpoints which, in turn, have spurred many heated discussions and debates. Thus, for instance, 'in the last 40 years grammar has gone through three main stages: absolute prominence, exclusion and reintroduction with caution' (Saraceni 2007, 164), which implies that teaching grammar has stood the test of time and proved to be the main thread of the fabric called language acquisition.

Consequently, nowadays there is no doubt that all committed language teachers, including ESP teachers, are well familiar with and make full use of all available approaches, methods and techniques which alleviate the process of teaching grammar.¹ Thus, depending on their own natural inclination, their students' cognitive styles and the other accompanying circumstances, language teachers equally benefit from the availability of both the inductive and the deductive approach. The deductive approach, which is also known as *rule-driven learning*, allows them first to present grammar rules to their students explicitly and then to offer exercises in connection with those rules. Some teachers, however, prefer the inductive approach, which is normally referred to as *rule-discovery learning* as it encourages teachers to take the opposite direction by motivating students to participate actively in discovering the rules on the basis of the exercises previously provided for them (Eisenstein 1987; Brown 2000 in Widodo 2006, 128).

Being at the very base of teaching and learning grammar, the inductive and the deductive approach have instigated the occurrence of numerous teaching methods and techniques. Accordingly, teachers of English, and ESP teachers for that matter, avail themselves of various methods and techniques. Thus, for instance, for the sake of convenience, the large number of teaching methods could be classified into two broad categories. The first category subsumes all those grammar-oriented methods where students learn the rules, but are seldom or never required to use them in meaningful communication. The other category includes methods that focus on language usage, i.e. communicative methods where students immediately begin using the language in order to acquire it (Larsen-Freeman 2001 in Savage et al. 2010²). Finally, within all these methods, depending on their

¹ Edward Anthony (1963: 63) differentiates among these three terms: approach, method and techniques. Namely, he claims that 'the arrangement is hierarchical. ...The organizational key is that techniques carry out a method which is consistent with an approach... An approach is a set of correlative assumptions dealing with the nature of language teaching and learning. An approach is axiomatic and it describes the nature of the subject matter to be taught...A method is an overall plan for the orderly presentation of language material, no part of which contradicts, and all of which is based upon the selected approach. A method is procedural. Within one approach, there can be many methods...A technique is implementational - that which actually takes place in a classroom. It is a particular trick, stratagem, or contrivance used to accomplish an immediate objective. Techniques must be consistent with a method, and therefore in harmony with an approach as well.'

² Savage et al. (2010) summarizes the most popular teaching methods as follows:

1. Grammar – Translation Method (19th – mid 20th century) which is based on translation and explicit teaching of grammar rules, but it lacks communicative practice.
2. Direct Method (first part of 20th century) which is also in favour of teaching grammar. Lessons begin with a dialog or a story in the target language and the inductive approach is being applied. However, the inductive presentation is unsuitable for some adult learners who may benefit from overt explanation of rules.

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distinctive features, there is an abundance of various techniques which range from brainstorming, reading aloud, pair work, group work etc.

In a nutshell, the existence and utilization of all these different approaches, methods and techniques used in teaching and learning grammar, merely consolidates the position that grammar instruction is an undeniably salient segment of language instruction and language acquisition, which should never be overlooked.

3. ANALYSIS OF THE RESULTS OF THE QUESTIONNAIRES

Ten teachers, who teach English for Specific Purposes at different state higher education institutions³ in the Republic of Macedonia, participated in this study. The questionnaire which they were asked to complete consisted of 7 questions tackling various aspects of teaching grammar within ESP courses. The same questions (except for the last one which was only in the ESP teachers' questionnaire), with some slight modifications where necessary, were included in another questionnaire intended to shed light on the students' perspective of learning grammar within ESP context. To that end, this second questionnaire was distributed among sixty university students at the Faculty of Technical Sciences and the Faculty of Administration and Information Systems Management in Bitola.

The analysis of the questionnaire reveals a general tendency of teachers abandoning the long-held view that teaching grammar in ESP context is less relevant compared to teaching technical vocabulary and data connected to students' major study field. Namely, with the exception of one teacher who professed that it was absolutely unnecessary to attach such a great importance to grammar, as the main focus should be on teaching specific terminology, the rest of the interviewed teachers unanimously agreed that *teaching and learning grammar was of a paramount importance in ESP context* (Fig.1). In that respect, some of the most insightful explications that teachers brought to the fore, run as follows: "grammar helps students acquire professional knowledge more efficiently"; "it helps students achieve greater clarity of thought and precision of expression which are especially crucial for professional interaction" etc.

TABLE 1

Results of the ESP teachers and students' questionnaires

	QUESTIONS	ESP TEACHERS	ESP STUDENTS
1.	Is teaching grammar necessary in ESP context?	90% YES 10% NO	93% YES 7% NO
2.	What is your students' attitude/your attitude towards learning grammar in general?	NOT enthusiastic about learning grammar	60% LIKE grammar 40% DISLIKE grammar

3. Audio-lingual Method (ALM) (1950s-1970s) which puts emphasis on the oral production, with teacher modelling pronunciation and using drills to reinforce grammatical patterns.
4. Cognitive Approach (1970s) which propagates that grammar must be taught, either inductively or deductively with the emphasis being put on analyzing structure at the expense of communicative practice.
5. Natural Approach (1980s) which presents language in a natural sequence: listening, speaking, reading and writing. Grammar is not overtly taught, yet many adult learners need and want grammar instruction.
6. Communicative Language Approach (1970s-today) in which the communication is the main goal of instruction. However, focusing on communication can result in ignoring grammar. In fact, emphasis on fluency at the expense of accuracy can result in many students never attaining correct grammar.

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3.	What grammar points have you studied within your ESP courses so far?		tenses, passive voice, various parts of speech (nouns, verbs, prepositions, conjunctions, adjective, adverbs and the articles), conditional sentences, relative clauses, phrasal verbs, modals, synonyms and antonyms
	How do you decide what grammar points you should teach and to what extent?	55% - follow ESP coursebooks 45% - create their own teaching materials	
4.	How do you normally go about learning grammar during your ESP lectures?		Inductively-based methods Deductively-based methods
	What methods do you use when teaching grammar?	Inductively-based methods Deductively-based methods	
5.	What are some of your favorite techniques when you teach/learn grammar during your ESP lectures?	matching exercises filling in the missing parts of grammar definitions introducing stories, pictures, videos, songs individual, pair and group work playing grammar games	matching and fill-in-the-gaps exercises oral vs. written practice playing grammar games using videos and pictures role-playing listening activities creating PP presentations multiple choice exercises true or false exercises
6.	How do you feel about receiving corrective grammar feedback by your teacher?		96% - LIKE grammar correction 45% - DISLIKE grammar correction
	What is your standpoint when it comes to correcting your students' grammar mistakes?	Postponed grammar correction (90%) Immediate grammar correction (10%)	
7.	Can you suggest any Internet fun pages suitable for learning grammar with ESP students?	http://www.eslcafe.com/grammar.html ; http://www.bbc.co.uk/worldservice/learningenglish/language/ ; http://learnenglish.britishcouncil.org/en/grammar-and-vocabulary ; http://www.usingenglish.com/teachers/lesson-plans/grammar-topics/ ; http://www.agendaweb.org/ ; http://www.englishraven.com/grammar_games_kit_2_3_88576.pdf	

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Despite its importance, ESP students, from their teachers' perspective, do not seem to be particularly enthusiastic about learning grammar. Terms such as "a complete waste of time", "learning just for the sake of learning", "confusing", "boring" etc. were used to depict ESP students' attitude to learning grammar. However, two of the teachers went to greater lengths explicating that students' general lack of enthusiasm, in fact, could be drastically transformed into a very favorable mood when grammar structures are practiced via grammar games and when they are closely linked to authentic and real life situations (Fig.2).

Surprisingly, the question which tackled students' opinion concerning the importance of including grammar in ESP courses, was answered favorably by 93% of the interviewed students (Fig.1). In other words, almost all of the students took a rather definite stand that *learning grammar was absolutely necessary and crucial* as it enabled them: "to make meaningful sentences", "to avoid ambiguity and misunderstanding", "to understand technical vocabulary and texts better", "to express themselves correctly" etc. Incomparably smaller percentage of the students (7%), denied the importance of learning grammar and argued in favor of enriching their technical vocabulary as well as enhancing their speaking skills.

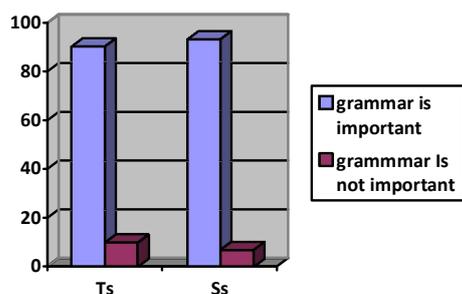


Fig.1 How important is grammar for ESP students?

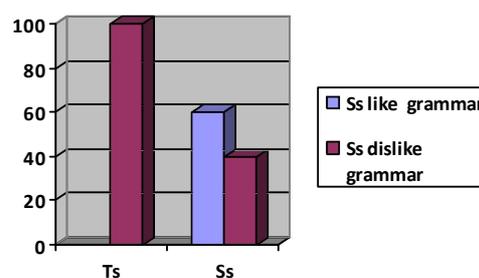


Fig.2 Do students like studying grammar?

Students' favorable opinion related to the pertinence of grammar, regrettably, was not replicated in their personal attitude towards grammar. In other words, despite the fact that almost all of them upheld the inclusion of grammar in ESP courses, only 60% of them stated that they really liked studying grammar. Within this category, merely 9% of the students demonstrated genuine enthusiasm about learning grammar by claiming that they were always looking forward to the grammar lectures, and that they thought that studying grammar is the most important part of studying the language. The rest of the students (40%) patently underlined their dislike for grammar and the fact that they found it difficult and boring (Fig.2).

Hence, contrary to the ESP teachers' impression that there is a lack of interest and appreciation of grammar on the part of the students, the fact that the majority of the students, however, acknowledge its importance and find it quite appealing, is an encouraging sign. However, the percentage of students who hold the opposite position should not be discarded as irrelevant as well. Quite the contrary, it should be interpreted as an indicator that certain measures should be taken to increase the overall student grammar learning motivation.

As to the grammar points taught within ESP courses, there seem to be two distinctive lines of actions undertaken by the teachers. More than half of the teachers (55%) claimed that they had suitable ESP course books at their disposal, which practically entailed closely and invariably following the grammar contents offered in those course books. Only one of them

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occasionally searched for and provided her students with additional grammar materials in order to supplement the course book.

The other half of the interviewed ESP teachers (45%) have faced a much more challenging task of creating their own teaching materials (including grammar materials) due to a lack of suitable ESP course books. One of them suggested that the best way to handle this task was to be extremely vigilant in spotting and taking notes of the most frequent students' mistakes during classes. For this teacher, this approach facilitated both the process of selecting the most pertinent grammar points to be taught and the planning of the teaching activities, in general. In that vein, another teacher underlined the fact that carrying out students' need analysis prior the commencement of each and every ESP course is an imperative for each ESP professional.

The students were also asked to think of the grammar points they have dealt with in their ESP courses and to enumerate as many of them as possible. In reality, this question was intended to serve two completely different purposes. Firstly, it aimed to elicit the grammar points which are normally included in ESP courses, and more importantly, its hidden motive was to disclose to what extent students were actually familiar with those grammar points.

Approximately one third of the students made no effort at all to answer this question. Ten percent of them offered rather indefinite answers such as: "many different grammar points", "all the major grammar points", "all the grammar points at upper-intermediate level" etc. The most frequent reply of those who ventured to answer this question (60%) was "tenses, passive voice, various parts of speech (nouns, verbs, prepositions, conjunctions, adjective, adverbs and the articles)". Fewer students, in addition to the previously mentioned grammar points, also made reference to "conditional sentences, relative clauses, phrasal verbs, modals, synonyms and antonyms".

The fact that approximately 40% of the students evaded enumerating grammar points allows for different interpretations. For instance, it could mean that those students lack familiarity with grammar in general; that it has escaped their recollection at the time when they were interviewed or that they simply did not want to bother to answer this question. The other insight gained from students' answers to this question is that a wide range of grammar points have been offered to ESP students, apparently in order to improve their mastery of the language.

The questionnaires prompted both ESP teachers and their students to think about the teaching approaches, methods and techniques they utilized when teaching and learning grammar, respectively. Teachers' responses yielded three interesting insights. On the whole, all teachers seem to be quite capable of successfully and simultaneously juggling the inductive and the deductive approach to teaching grammar. In fact, none of the teachers completely excluded one teaching approach in favor of the other. In addition, all of them demonstrated a clear preference for the communicative method of teaching grammar. Finally, judging from their answers, the teachers seem to make full use of a wide array of teaching techniques ranging from matching exercises, filling in the missing parts of grammar definitions; introducing stories, pictures, videos, songs; organizing individual, pair and group work, up to playing various grammar games. In this context, it should be noted that three of the teachers mentioned playing grammar games as one of the most successful techniques when it comes to learning grammar. However, they also expressed certain misgivings about playing grammar games during classes as "they could be extremely time consuming", and "are not completely congruent with the serious academic approach to teaching and learning". As to the methods used for teaching grammar during their ESP courses, students were simply asked to describe how they customarily went about learning grammar during ESP lectures,

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since, needless to say, they are not expected to be familiar with the theory of teaching methodology behind the teaching process. Half of them skipped answering this question altogether, which similarly to the previous question, is quite disconcerting and could be attributed to various factors such as lack of interest, knowledge or will. Fifteen percent of them claimed that they first discuss the rules with their teacher and then they do some exercises, whereas 10% stated that they are usually encouraged to discover grammar rules themselves through various exercises, which clearly points to the utilization of the deductive and the inductive method of teaching, respectively. In this respect, students' answers are completely in line with ESP teachers' contention that depending on the circumstances, they employ both teaching methods interchangeably.

With regard to students' favorite teaching techniques, i.e. activities for practicing grammar, about 6% of the students stated they did not have a favorite technique. The rest of them made it clear that they preferred grammar practice which was being carried out interactively, especially with the use of computers. In fact, their answers reveal that, in reality, preferences vary from student to student. The assortment of teaching techniques highlighted by their answers comprised: matching and fill-in-the-gaps exercises, oral vs. written practice (e.g. writing sentences including a particular grammar point), playing grammar games, using videos and pictures, role-playing, listening activities, creating power point presentations, multiple choice and true or false exercises etc. This finding highlights the fact that the variety of teaching techniques mentioned by the students significantly overlaps with the one mentioned by the ESP teachers. Moreover, the numerous diverse teaching techniques enumerated by the students, verify ESP teachers' resourcefulness and zealous attempts to make learning grammar intellectually challenging and suitable for all profiles of students (auditory, visual etc.)

ESP teachers appear to display great sensitivity and tentativeness when correcting their students' grammar mistakes. Immediate correction, according to the majority of them, could be more detrimental than useful in situations when the accent is on fluency and communication. Taking notes of the mistakes and postponing the correction for a more appropriate moment is among their favorite error correction techniques. Several of them went even one step further and actually found it more convenient to encourage students to actively participate in and contribute to putting grammar mistakes right.

The students, on their part, unanimously expressed their appreciation for the corrective feedback received from their teachers inasmuch as correcting could be inspiring and eye-opening ("I want to know when I make mistakes", "I learn something I don't know", "It is a good way to recognize, to remember and not to repeat a mistake again" etc.). The feelings of shame and discomfort while receiving grammar feedback were recognized by only 5% of the students.

The final question in the ESP teachers' questionnaire treated the issue of using fun Internet pages suitable for teaching grammar in ESP context. In that context, only several teachers professed to rely extensively on using various Internet websites. However, as one of them notes, since none of these websites has been specifically created for teaching grammar in ESP context, the activities offered in them sometimes have to be modified to a certain extent.⁴

⁴ Table 1 presents the websites which ESP teachers have singled out as their favorites.

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4. CONTEXTUALIZING GRAMMAR IN ESP COURSES

The point that this paper underlines is that *grammar, as a very pertinent segment of language teaching and learning, should be contextualized and intertwined with the rest of the language instruction as much as possible*. This implies that ESP practitioners should very attentively select and present adequate grammar points, depending on both students' profiles and topics included in their ESP courses.

What follows is an instantiation of grammar contextualization in the context of teaching ESP courses intended for students of computer sciences. The ESP courses in question are being taught at the Faculty of Technical Sciences – Bitola.

The Faculty of Technical Sciences - Bitola currently offers two graduate programs in information sciences (Information technology and Computer sciences and engineering) English language courses are compulsory for the students of both programs. It is, in fact, a beginners ESP course covering the following topics: making definitions; giving instructions; describing processes; expressing functions; analyzing structures; linking cause and effect; making predictions; presenting and analyzing technical data by means of tables, graphs, charts; writing business letters etc.

Certain grammar points, pertinent to mastering successfully the above mentioned topics, have to be frequently addressed, which, in turn, requires careful planning and design of activities to facilitate both the teaching and learning processes. The number and types of activities and techniques used for this purpose may be numerous and indefinitely varied while restricted only by the teachers' creativity and inventiveness. The approach usually employed for this purposes is inductive. The reason underlying this decision lies in the fact that most of the students had studied English during the course of their previous, secondary education, and had hence learned most of the grammar rules. The uses of certain grammatical aspects, specific to the ESP course, will during the course be hopefully linked to the already acquired knowledge. It is to this link of previous and new knowledge that some special emphasis should be placed on through the classroom activities.

Thus, for example, when teaching how to make definitions, articles play a significant role (e.g. "A computer is an electronic machine."). Students listen to some definitions and are invited to classify them according to the type of article used. Then, they are given some nouns and asked to make definitions. When one student reads the definition composed, other students are asked to listen carefully in order to detect any misuses of the articles. Another activity is to label a diagram and then define each of the mentioned parts. When using group work, one group asks questions about particular objects, while the other group defines them. As with all other activities, there are indefinite possibilities for practicing the material in question.

Giving instructions is another topic of interest for engineering students as they often need to instruct users to take the required sequence of actions when using a particular product. This topic is closely connected to the imperative. Although most of the students are already familiar with its form, giving them some written instructions on how to perform a certain action/operation might help them recall their knowledge on the subject (e.g. "Move the cursor to...") After having completed this activity, they are asked to reflect upon the grammatical forms used and infer the general rule of forming imperatives in English. As in all other cases, the used techniques may be varied.

Engineering students often find themselves in a position to describe certain processes. Besides other grammatical means required for this goal, they will need to display a sound knowledge of the use of passive forms. Since the required basic knowledge of this

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transformation had already been obtained, and simple transformation of active into passive sentences is, for obvious reasons, undesirable, other activities must be devised to raise their awareness about the cases in which passive constructions are more appropriate (e.g. "The disk is put into a drive. Then it is formatted ..."). Process description can be practiced by using group work, information gap, role playing or any other language teaching technique seemingly most appropriate to a given teaching situation.

Having in mind the professional profile of the students, expressing functions also occupies an important place in this ESP course. Students listen to or watch materials in which functions of certain devices are defined, and then they have to classify the ways of expressing functions which they can recognize in the material in question. They can usually come up with a few ways of expressing functions, (e.g. "We can use the CU....The CU is used...By using the CU...") and then use them to explain to the class the functions of certain devices drawn on the board.

In order to be able to describe structures, students need to master the forms and use of certain verbs/verb phrases such as for example: is made up of, is divided into, consist of, comprise, constitute....etc. (e.g. "A computer system comprises...."). Here too, the techniques are varied both in type and number.

Engineering students will need the means to express various cause and effect relations and it is hence desirable to teach them expressions such as: due to, as a result of, cause, enable...(e.g. "As a result, it enables..."). This can be achieved through various activities, among which showing them videos of how certain things are dependent upon one another seems most suitable. In this way, they can become familiar with the meaning and use of such expressions. Later, other activities could be introduced to make the students actually make use of this lexical material.

The above mentioned techniques and activities in teaching certain grammar points to ESP students can be varied and supplemented according to the needs of the group; the teacher must always look for solutions that best suit the particular teaching situation. Decision making is only limited by the teacher's creativity and inventiveness.

5. CONCLUSION

On the basis of the results of the ESP teachers and students' questionnaires, as well as our own teaching experience as ESP practitioners, several major conclusions can be drawn. Teaching and learning grammar within ESP courses in the higher education institutions in the Republic of Macedonia is no longer marked by dilemmas on the part of both ESP teachers and their students. Namely, they all seem to be in agreement that teaching and learning grammar must be allocated a considerable portion of the content of each ESP course. However, raising students' motivation for learning grammar is something which should be still worked on since, although students recognize the significance of learning grammar, they do not seem to be sufficiently inspired to grapple with it.

ESP teachers, irrespective of whether they create their own teaching materials or they use ready-made ESP course books, should rely more heavily and more frequently on the Internet and the abundance of fun and useful websites offered there, since obviously ESP students nowadays display greater inclination towards learning grammar interactively and via computers.

Finally, ESP practitioners in the process of creating teaching materials should use contextualization of grammar, i.e. creating optimum synergy between grammar and the rest

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of the language instruction, as an extremely useful approach which brings grammar much closer to students.

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IMPLEMENTING BLENDED LEARNING IN AN EFL CLASSROOM

N. Radosavlevikj

Abstract: In this paper I will discuss the importance of Blended learning model and its implementation in an ESL classroom. Blended learning is a mixture of online and face-to-face communication that can help students choose their preferred learning style and become more autonomous in acquiring English as a second language. It gives opportunity to look creatively at how learning experience is designed and to use a variety of media to suit differing needs. It is a new approach enabling schools, teachers and Higher education institutions to make progress either in ways of working, the environment, or in giving individuals freedom to be themselves. The challenge for the instructor applying Blended learning in class is to predict possible drawbacks, difficulties, obstacles regarding institution, colleagues, administrators and adopt Blended learning as a possible solution. Another important factor is the institution and how they will support this approach of learning. The advantages of Blended learning is that it focuses on the learner and the learners need and institutions should tend to tailor learning to the individual rather than applying one size fits all. The learner-centered construction of Blended learning helps learners choose what and when to blend, so that it can be manipulated and controlled by learners rather than teachers. In addition, through effective facilitation, instructors can support students in understanding what it is they are expected to learn, the choices they have available for them and how can they assist them in developing the necessary skills of reflection, self-direction, self independence and self-management. As a teacher I believe that innovative designs that include technology are one way to provide more engaged learning opportunities. This approach helped me stimulate students progress by increasing student-instructor and student-student interaction . I applied the gained knowledge in a group of students at the Language Centre in order to increase students interactive activities such as higher-level discussions, small group work, debates and discussion forums on line. Blended courses create enhanced opportunities for teacher-student interaction, increase student engagement in learning as well as give chances for students' continuous improvement.

1. THE IMPORTANCE OF BLENDED LEARNING MODEL AND ITS IMPLEMENTATION IN AN EFL CLASSROOM

Blended learning is a mixture of online and face-to-face communication that can help students choose their preferred learning style and become more autonomous in acquiring English as a second language. It gives opportunity to look creatively at how learning experience is designed and to use a variety of media to suit differing needs.

Blended learning is a logical and natural evolving process from traditional forms of learning to a personalized and integrated self- directed learning. It is an opportunity to integrate the innovative and technological advances offered by online learning with the interaction and participation offered in the best of traditional learning. It is an ultimate perfect solution to tailoring learning to fit not only the learning need, but also the style of the learner.

The advantages of Blended learning are that it focuses on the learner and the learners need in the process of learning English as a foreign language. Moreover, it gives opportunity to look creatively at

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how learning experience is designed and to use a variety of media to suit differing needs. Another important factor is the institution and how they will support this approach of learning. Blended learning is also known as cooperative learning which allows students work closely together helping another to achieve desired goals. Learn new activities to promote comprehension and how to use metacognition which means not to focus only on language but on the learning process itself. In that way, the learners can learn how to create link between classroom language learning outside the classroom in real life contexts. On the other hand, adopting interactive, student-centered teaching, using methodology (communicative and constructive approach) and assessment (formative and summative evaluation). The role of the teacher in the online environment is to provide students with real, authentic opportunities to interact in the target language. The modern technology such as multimedia programs, video presentations and IT skills should conduct courses in English. The information should be presented in a new interesting way, moving away from the teaching rules, patterns and definitions, involving the students more in discussions, communicating genuinely spontaneously and meaningfully in the second language.

Furthermore, Blended learning represents a very real step towards learning in a different more interesting way. It is a new approach enabling schools, teachers and Higher education institutions to make progress either in ways of working, the environment, or in giving individuals freedom to be themselves. The challenge for the instructor applying Blended learning in class is to predict possible drawbacks, difficulties, obstacles regarding institution, colleagues, administrators and adopt Blended learning as a possible solution. Recognizing the full potential of a blended solution will take time and patience and it's important to help people recognize the shape and scope of what you tend to develop and what are the implications of such Curriculum Design innovation model. To plan Blended learning requires significant investment and commitment. Who needs to be involved and when? Who will benefit from this Curriculum change and how will the organization as whole benefit? What affects the students? What can influence on positive tension free environment to satisfy both the needs of the students and teachers?

At the same time by implementing new methodologies students can be stimulated to understand the strenght of different mediums and can be engaged in blended learning. This approach of learning a language provide students' with more engaged learning opportunities. Furthermore this approach helps teachers learn new methods and stumulate students progress by increasing student-instructor and student-student interaction through the use of blended environment.

On the other side, acquring good skills in blended learning can help use the gained knowledge and applying it at SEEU can increase students interactive activities as well as higher-level discussions, small group work, debates and discussion forums on line. Blended courses create enhanced opportunities for teacher-student interaction, increase student engagement in learning as well as give chances for students' continuous improvement.

1.1 Blended Learning: Using Technology in and Beyond the Language Classroom

The rapid technological innovation in teaching and learning fostered the interest of blended learning such as 1. how to integrate different technology and media into conventional classroom. and 2. how pedagogy and face-to-face instructions can be mediated by advance technology.

Blended Learning is a mixture of online and face-to-face learning by using a variety of learning resources and communications options available to students and lecturers. It mixes e-learning with other more traditional types of learning. It's important that face to face contact is not lost and the learning environment is created that is richer that either only traditional or fully online environment.

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To some extent students are free to choose their preferred learning style however, some components may be compulsory. Lecturers are aware that students may not be able to cope with a fully online course, they want to introduce students and implement new methods of learning a language by using technological tools, or offer extra support for the weaker students (Raj and Abdallah 2005).

In evaluating blended learning model students pointed to the flexibility that the online component offers as a major advantage. The anytime/anywhere approach allows them to work whenever it suits them best and when they can perform most productively. However, although online assessment offers immediate feedback since students lack personal attention weekly contact sessions help students' post face-to-face question.

Another aspect of BL is Cooperative learning component. It helps students do assignments and projects in groups (Engelbrecht and Harding 2002). When experiencing problems students seek assistance within a group rather than just approaching the lecturer. Students rate themselves in comparison to the performance of the group.

These aspects are important when BL is implemented in an ESL classroom:

1. *BL fosters self-reliance; much more time is spent on trying exercises independently before consulting; they learn to trust their own judgment more.*
2. *Students, in becoming more independent in their learning, acquire the skill of time management; they adjust their study schedule according to the nature of the work and their own pace of learning.*
3. *Students perceive that blended learning environment requires more responsibilities. Quoting one student: "You have to go every day and check and make sure you are up to date by choice instead of receiving everything the lecturer gives you."*
4. *Blended learning model cultivates self-discipline. Students work more regularly by actively engaging the online exercises instead of just attending classes and taking notes that they don't review it later.*

***Negative side:** Students replied negatively due to some technical hitches such as server problems or errors in posted solutions as well as they sometimes experience learning as a lonely activity.*

2. ASSESMENT IN BLENDED LEARNING ENVIRONMENT

2.1 Blended Learning Findings and Results

The online assessment component of Blended learning model under discussion was evaluated. Term tests and examinations consisted of a paper component as well as an online component (Engelbrecht and Harding 2004). The majority(56.6%) stated they preferred online testing, almost half of the students either prefer paper tests or a combination of the two modes of assessment. Reasons for online preference include the absence of examination stress, immediate feedback and availability of the results, suitability for formative assessment, flexibility of the online environment and the virtue of being exposed to modern technology.” I prefer to see my results immediately so I can see if I need to further study the weeks work I am ‘ up to date’ . (a student).

Reasons given for paper assessment include rigid way of marking in online assessment, little opportunity for partial credit and difficulty of adapting to an unfamiliar way of testing: “ I think better when I sit and write, then I see what I think.” (a student)

Students’ who like blended assessment approach, see the advantages of both modes:

- With both computer and written tests we can get the best of both worlds, having equal usage of both.
- Both are equally acceptable. I enjoy computer modules but find the written section more practical since you don’t always have a computer with you.
- Doing both simultaneously has a much better effect

Blended learning facilitate independent learning only when the structure provided (deadlines, weekly quizzes and continuous assessment) is effective. Self-reliance, time management, responsibility, self-discipline, are important factors when implementing Blended learning approach. Assessment is an indication of what has been learned and attention was given to improve the use of partial credit in an online assessment component. The lack of personal contact was addressed by introducing a chat room session.

3. BLENDED LEARNING: UNCOVERING ITS TRANSFORMATIVE POTENTIAL IN HIGHER EDUCATION

The potential of BL is based on transforming higher education in rethinking and restructuring the potential of the learning experience. This approach has the potential to enhance both the effectiveness and efficiency of meaningful learning experiences.

It’s a fact that Internet information and communication have the major influence on transformative innovation for higher education in the 21st century. Educators confront the existing assumptions about teaching and learning in an online environment. Leaders are challenged to meet the needs and demands of prospective students and meet the growing expectations and demands for higher quality learning experiences and outcomes.

Transformation of learning environments in higher education settings for an increasingly electronic world is critical to ensure that benefits are fully realized (Williams 2002). Learners should be both together and apart and connected to a community of learners anytime and anywhere, without being time, place or situation bound. However, Blended learning approach has a volatile impact on traditional campus-based institutions of Higher Education.

Blended learning is an effective and low risk strategy, internet information and communication tools provide flexibility of time and place and the reality of unbounded educational discourse. This

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approach is expected to meet the needs of individuals by using text-based asynchronous internet technology with face-to-face learning as well as the ability to manage information challenge both cognitive abilities and traditional classroom paradigm.

Blended learning is both complex and simple. It's the integration of classroom face-to-face learning experiences with online learning experiences integrating synchronous and asynchronous learning activities. Blended learning is different from enhanced classroom or fully online learning experiences.

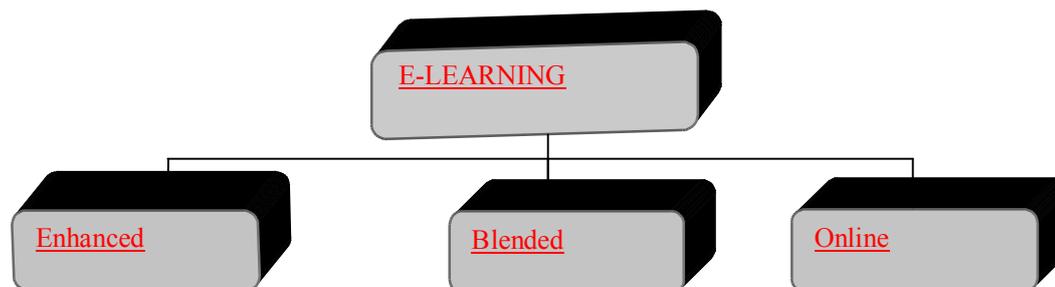


Figure 1

The real test of Blended learning is the effective integration of the two main components face to face and Internet technology. It represents fundamental re conceptualization and reorganization of teaching and learning dynamic, starting with various specific contextual needs and contingencies (discipline, developmental level and resources). In this respect, no two blended learning designs are identical. It's a question of quality and quantity of the interaction and the sense of engagement in a community of inquiry and learning together with effective integration of Internet communication technology.

“ Focusing for a moment on the properties of the Internet, we know that much of the satisfaction and success of Blended learning experiences can be attributed to the interactive capabilities of internet communication technology(Garrison& Clevel and –Innes, 2003; Swan,2001). It's a fact that Internet Communication technology facilitate a simultaneous independent and collaborative learning experience. Learners can be independent of space and time yet together.

Blended learning builds effective community of inquiry that provides stabilizing, cohesive influence that balances the open communication and limitless access to information on Internet. These communities of inquiry provide condition for free open dialogue, critical debate, negotiation and agreement. Blended learning has the capabilities to facilitate these conditions and adds reflective element with multiple forms of communication to meet the specific learning requirements. Whether face-to-face or online, communities of inquiry consist of three elements: cognitive, social, and teaching presence (Garrison and Anderson 2003).

The sense of community must be on a cognitive and social level that requires consideration of the different cognitive and social characteristics in order to achieve higher levels of learning. The focus is given on the teaching presence that facilitates learning experiences. Blended learning offers a distinct advantage in supporting higher levels of learning through critical discourse and reflective thinking.

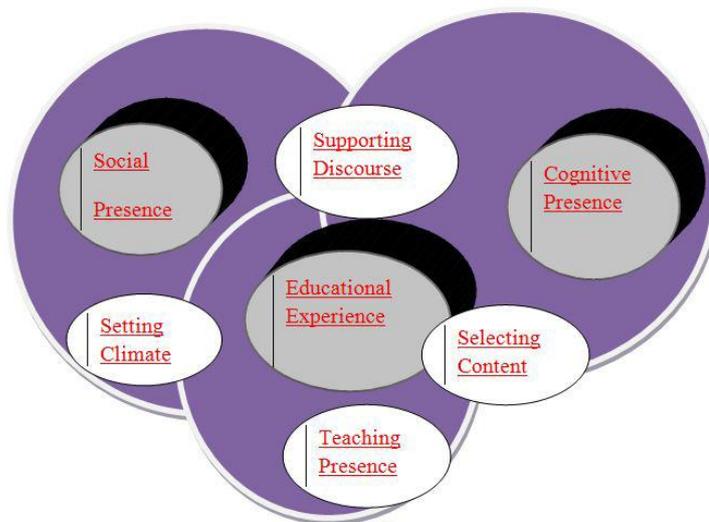


Fig 2 Community of inquiry.

Blended learning facilitates critical thinking and higher-order learning. (Hudson 2002) argues, for example, “that the very basis of thinking is rooted in dialogue, drawing on a socially constructed context to endow ideas with meaning” (p.53). The emphasis must shift from assimilating information to constructing meaning and confirming understanding in a community of inquiry. To be a critical thinker means to take control of one’s thought processes and gain meta-cognitive understanding of these processes (i.e.,Learn to learn). Blended learning can provide independence and increased control essential to developing critical thinking as well as encourages scaffolded acceptance of responsibility for constructing meaning and understanding.

4. MEANINGFUL EDUCATIONAL EXPERIENCES

Internet Information and communication technology supports meaningful experiences such as asynchronous computer-mediated instruction: flexibility, reflection, interpersonal and teamwork skill development, motivation and collaborative learning environments.

The discourse facilitated through asynchronous Internet communication tools provides a platform where participants can communicate and confront questionable ideas in more objective and reflexive ways than it might be possible in a face-to-face context. According to (Meyer 2003) Internet discussion forums can provide a permanent record and expand time; as such, discussions are often more thoughtful, reasoned, and supported by evidential sources. It gives the chance and opportunity for students to learn to express in a written form. Alternatively, face-to-face discussion give chances to students become more spontaneous in their discussions. However, students need to remember what have been said so assertive components or opportunities to contribute are lost. The mixture of face-to-face and online environment gives chances to students to participate actively in the process of learning in a quality learning environment.

Connection with each other helps students’ realize the importance of the community of inquiry and is also necessary to sustain the educational experience over time so essential to move students’ to

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higher levels of thinking. According to (Rovai, 2002, p.330) “students with stronger sense of community tend to possess greater perceived levels of cognitive learning”.

Critical thinking moves through discernible (visible) phrases of triggering event, exploration, integration, and application (Garrison&Andreson, 2003;Garrison&Archer, 2000). A community is essential to engender commitment and ensure students progressively move through the phrases of critical inquiry. In order to construct meaning communities of inquiry blend online with knowledge management into dynamic meaningful experience. The main focus is to help learners construct knowledge.

5 . LEARNING IN AN ONLINE ENVIRONMENT

Learners in the 21st century have been Web consumers for much of their lives, and are now demanding online instruction that supports participation and interaction. They want learning experiences that are social and that will connect with their peers. (West&West 2009, p.2)

Engaged learning is also known as active learning, social cognition, constructivism and problem-based learning all of which emphasize student-focused learning with instructor as a facilitator.

A century ago, Dewey recognized the importance of the instructor as a facilitator is the process of active learning. (Dewey 1916/1997) emphasized the value of the individual experience in the learning process as well as collaboration with others in order to define the learning environment. Dewey’s work was extended to adult learners by Malcolm Knowles’s concept of andragogy (1980), which considers the adult learner to be self-directed and desirous of an active learning environment in which his or her own experiences play a part.

Other learning theorists such as Bruner, Vygotsky and Piaget all embraced the philosophy that humans do not learn in a vacuum but rather through interaction. Bruner in his work with (Bornstein 1989) stated that” development is intrinsically bound up with interaction”(p.13), which build on his earlier definition of reciprocity as the “deep human need to respond to others and operate jointly with them toward an objective (Bruner 1966, p.67).

(Vygotsky 1981) “ saw instruction as effective only if it stimulated the individual potential ability when working with an adult or more advanced peer and helps learner across the zone of proximal development. Piaget’s philosophy emphasized that learning must be connected to the learner in order to be meaningful (Piaget 1969). He described engaged learning as knowledge build on prior experiences and affected by new experiences. Development would be more likely to occur when two equal partners collaborated in finding a solution than when a more skilled partner dominated the task. He believed that effective discussions when there is a symmetrical power between discussants. Peer-to –peer discussion was more valuable than adult-child discussion because equals were more likely to resolve contradictions between each other’s views than partners of equal authority.

The engaged learning is closely related to problem-based learning. In a problem-based environment, a problem is posed to learners who work together in teams to define the nature of the problem and determine its resolution. Through this process learners can “develop intellectual curiosity, confidence, and engagement that will lead to lifelong learning” (Watson&Croh 2001, p.21). This process is based on interaction and meaningful learning.

Constructivism considers interaction essential for learning and addresses epistemology within the context of the individual and within social constructs. According to (Smith and Ragan 1999, p.15), the key assumptions of individual constructivism are the following:

- Knowledge is constructed from experience.
- Learning results from a personal interpretation of knowledge

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- Learning is an active process in which meaning is developed on the basis of experience
- Learning is collaborative with meaning negotiated from multiple perspectives.

The collaborative acquisition of knowledge is one key to success of creating an online learning environment. Activities that require student interaction and encourage a sharing of ideas promote a deep level of thought.

In his summary of social constructivism, (Weigel 2002) focus on content acquisition that defeats the overall purpose of education. “Content is the clay of knowledge construction; learning takes place when it is fashioned into something meaningful”. “Creativity, critical analysis, and skillful performance are inextricably linked to the process of creating more viable and content knowledge structures” (p.5). In an online environment the focus is on the learner being engaged in collaborative activities that allow the clay to take form and have meaning for the learner.

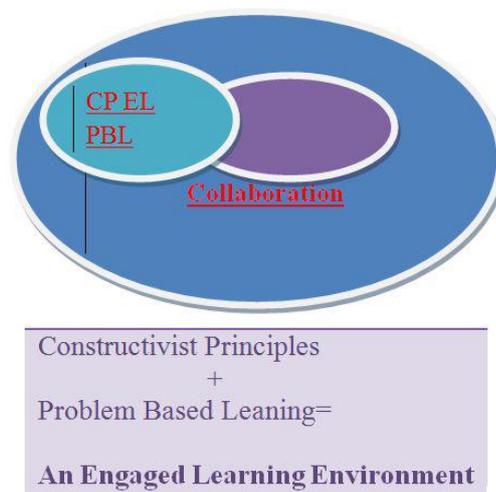


Figure 3. An Engaged Learning Model

In Figure 3, the combination of constructivist and problem based learning philosophies within a collaborative context result in engaged learning environment. Being focused on the learner the engaged learning is based on each learner's actions that contribute not only to individual knowledge but also to the overall community knowledge development. The learners' role is to generate the new knowledge and share it with the community of inquiry. (Collison, Elbaum, Haavind, and Tinker 2000) point out, “There is strong evidence to suggest that learners learn best when constructing their own knowledge. However the role of the instructor is to guide learners, give instruction, supervision and directions or just a critical piece of information to help them move forward” (p.97). The desired outcome of constructivism is that acquisition of knowledge is centered on the learners and their interactions.

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6. ENGAGED LEARNING IN THE ONLINE ENVIRONMENT

The new media offers a wealth of opportunities for the learners to interact, yet many times are employed in a non-interactive mode that tends to focus on creating an online lecture. Lectures are effective for knowledge transmission, but if it is the primary strategy used in online environment, the course may become a correspondence between the learner and the instructor where the learner interacts in isolation.

(Norris, Mason, and Lefrere 2003) emphasize that content may have been the primary focus of the past but the time has approached when interactivity will drive learning (p.x). Engaged learning stimulates learners to actively participate in the learning situation, and this gain the most knowledge from being a member of an online learning community. Instructors must be aware that additional guidelines are needed in order to help assist learners in evolving from their traditional role of receiving knowledge to role that focuses on generating knowledge for themselves and others.

(Kearsley 2000) points out that “the most important role of the instructor in online classes is to ensure a high degree of interactivity and participation. In an online course students are active knowledge generators who assume responsibility for constructing and managing their own learning experience. In learner-centered environment, the traditional instructor responsibility such as generating resources and leading discussion forums shifts to the learner. The success depends on the use of the instructional strategies that support the shift of roles and development of self-direction.

Engaged learning is a collaborative learning process in which the teacher and student are partners in constructing knowledge and answering essential questions. This strategic approach includes goals, establishing timelines, and creating and assessing authentic products. Key elements of engaged learning include the following elements:

- Students’ establishing their own goals
- Students’ working together in groups
- Exploring appropriate resources to answer meaningful questions
- Tasks that are multidisciplinary and authentic, with connections to the real world
- Assessment that is ongoing and performance-based
- Products that are shared with an audience beyond the classroom so students’ are able to add value outside the learning environment(Johnson, 1998)

The distance education pioneer (Charles Wedemeyer 1981) asserted that learners must be highly self-motivated in order to be effective distance learners. The instructor in an online environment has the responsibility to support and promote a learner’s internal motivations through external strategies. This approach involves: modeling, reflecting, actively involving the student and developing a community of fellow learners.

Engaged learning requires a cognitive and affective learner connection with the methodology before it can occur. The external conditions that maximize the influence of engaged learning according to (Gagne and Driscoll 1988) are:

- The strategy is described or demonstrated
- Numerous opportunities for communication and demonstration of strategy are provided
- Success associated with incorporating the strategy and attitude of engagement is presented
- Informative feedback is provided as to creativity and originality is involved in learners actions as well as their successful performance
- A safe student-centered learning environment is provided

- Opportunities for self-assessment are provided

The learner must understand his role in the engaged learning process only than can be expected to form a community with others in the online environment.

7. GUIDING LEARNERS TO BE ENGAGED ONLINE

The student's role as an engaged learner develops over time. Initially, a learner may be more comfortable in a passive student role and will need guidance and the opportunity to become more involved in an online environment. He must quickly establish comfort with the technology, comfort with predominately text-based communication, and comfort with higher level of self-direction than a traditional classroom. If this comfort level is not accomplished the learner may walk away from the course in frustration. The instructor's role is to instruct and help learners collaborate and must design course elements that encourage growth of learners in these new relationships. It is instructor responsibility to make sure learners find others in the learning environment with whom they can build a collaborative relationship.

The Phrases of Engagement help learners and instructors on performing the new roles in an online environment. This means developing appropriate activities and introducing them in an effective sequence. In the beginning learners must gain confidence and trust and the introductory community building exercises will help them learn how to work together. As learners gain more confidence and expertise, they can be guided to move through additional phrases of engagement.

Phrase 1: The instructor and learner begin the course in the more traditional role as deliverer-receiver, with the instructor sending them an e-mail or having the first activity to be an icebreaker introduction that requires learners to learn about and interact with each other in a nonthreatening manner. Experienced online instructors have found that interaction is actually the essence of the course (Draves, 2000;Palloff&Pratt, 2007). If appropriate frame is adopted in Phrase 1 than the rest of the course will go much more smoothly.

After establishing an appropriate climate for engagement to occur in Phrase 1, the instructor becomes a structural engineer who is responsible for organizing and facilitating the growth of the student as a cooperative participant. In the introductory phrase the instructor pairs the students in working dyads. This approach maximizes the threat of communicating with a large group of unknown peers. Phrase 2 may begin in a social tone similar to Phrase 1, but it must then turn the learners towards more academic exchanges. In Phrase 3, the peer partners are combined into collaborative teams in which members support one another and are responsible for one another's learning. The experience shows that it takes about 4 weeks for most learners to feel comfortable. In Phrase 4 the instructor encourages learners by introducing opportunities for individuals and teams to lead activities.

The Phrase 1 example activity focuses on introducing peers to one another in a creative and fun manner. The Phrase 2 example activity focuses on two peers working together, while the Phrase 3 demonstrates a reflective activity. The content related activities should not begin until a learner has completed phrase 1 and moved solidly into Phrase 2. The most appropriate activities at that point are to have individual rather than peer related activities. It is recommended that the instructor use at least one activity from each phrase in order to help learners become oriented to the course and become familiar with the new set of peers who will be working together in an online environment.

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8. STUDY PROCEDURE

According to (Parson and Brown p.34) to be effective educator one must be an “active participant” in the classroom, observing, analyzing, and interpreting information about student learning and then using this information for planning and decision making. The action research study was designed to measure students’ interest in hybrid approach so that the instructor can design objective learning goals when creating the course.

9. STUDY RESULTS

Fifty students at SEEU from different Departments with mix ability skills in English as a foreign language completed a survey aimed to find out about their preferences in learning English. The majority of these students’ indicated that they use computers 2-5 hours a day (62%) when completing their assignments.

Students’ showed more interest in taking the courses on line than coming to class. 80% answered positively. They also agreed strongly (70%) that it will be better if they have combined classes 50% min in class and 50min in a computer lab. Since not yet implemented as a model in our institution SEEU, Blended learning model seemed not very known by our students’. However, students’ preferred to communicate from home (60%) than to come to class regularly.

Students’ at SEEU found significant the use of the knowledge management system LIBRI and they expressed interest in Discussion Forums (32%), while Face-to-Face only(26%).

Moreover, students’ agreed that technology plays important role in the society today and that it will be useful to use the Internet in order to improve their English skills (86%). They felt comfortable to use the materials online (82%), as well as that in that way it would be easier for them to complete the assignments at home on the computer (54%) than come to class.

Furthermore, students’ thought that it will be very useful to receive feedback from their peers(70%) online , and schedule the class Face-to –face once per week instead of them coming to class two, three times per week (64%).

On the question about assessment students’ said that they would like to be assessed on weekly basis (42%), self-assessed (20%), weekly quizzes (28%), weekly assignments (8%), combined on line work (2%).

Overall, the results of the survey were positive. In addition, these results were encouraging because for the majority of the students’ this was something new and based on their feedback, the instructor can design a course with objective learning goals

10. CONCLUSION

To summarize, blended learning courses employ active learning strategies through the use of a variety of pedagogical approaches. The asynchronous nature of Blended component of the courses has the salutary effect of expanding time students spend on course material. Discussions conducted online encourage reflection and usual reach 100% participation. As a result, the face-to-face time can be used more effectively, with students extending the material beyond what might be achieved in a conventional face-to-face course. The students in a blended course make more and richer connections between what they are learning and what they already know, creating a robust scaffold to organize the information.

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(Svinicki 2004) points out that one of the most effective things we can do as instructors is to help our students encode information in their long-term memories is to help them build an organizational structure for the material: "It is worth your while as an instructor to spend time thinking organizationally about your course's content and to design instruction around that organization" (.31). Well-organized knowledge is easier to connect to prior knowledge, and therefore easier to retrieve when needed.

Blended learning has a transformational lifelong learning in the lives of our students. It help students develop the desire and skills to continue learning throughout their lives by giving students' more control over their learning and teaching them skills they need to acquire, organize, and incorporate new information into their understanding of the world.

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Interrogative Skills for ESP Teachers

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Abstract: Questioning is basic to good communication. Proper questioning is a sophisticated art, one at which some teachers of English are not very proficient in spite of the fact that they ask thousands of questions in their classrooms. Questioning is a corner stone of good, interactive teaching and learning. Questions must be at the appropriate level, of the appropriate type, and be worded properly. Since questioning is one of the most frequently used teaching techniques, the study of teachers' questions and questioning behaviors has been an important issue in English teaching methodology. The article outlines two different systems for classifying questions, types of questions that can increase learners' participation, techniques that can increase the quality of teachers' questions and learners' responses, and the amount of wait-time teachers allow after a question. Examples of different types of questions are given in the article.

Key words: the cognitive levels of questions, convergent and divergent questions, the mental operation system, the wait-time.

1. INTRODUCTION

English for Specific Purposes (ESP) occurs in various contexts. Teachers need to have the ability to analyze learners' needs, set goals and objectives, select and adapt teaching materials, create an adult-oriented environment, evaluate and assess learners' progress, ensure good communication, ask good questions and adapt them to lesson objectives, etc. The article discusses just one of the above mentioned aspects, and that is questioning.

Research indicates that in most classrooms, someone is talking most of the time. J. Harmer distinguishes between TTT (teacher talking time) and STT (student talking time) and suggests that a good teacher maximizes STT and minimizes TTT.¹ He also suggests considering TTQ (Teacher Talking Quality). One way to switch from teacher-centric instruction, where TTT prevails to student-centric, where STT prevails, is through the use of questions.

Many educators note that questioning skills become a vital component of effective language teaching. Among them are Sanders², Wilen³, Brown⁴, and Moore⁵. Questioning lies at the heart of good, interactive teaching and as Moore⁶ states, "questioning is basic to good communications". As we all know, ESP tries to provide learners with skills to communicate in the work field and many language learners in ESP programs understand that they can be successful in their sphere if they possess good communicative skills. In the article we focus on the questioning skills for language teachers. But we realize that these skills are of paramount importance for those English language learners who will work as medical doctors, nurses, pilots, and journalists.

The objective of the article is threefold, aiming to: (1) outline two different systems for classifying questions; (2) outline types of questions that can increase learners' participation; (3) offer techniques that can increase the quality of teachers' questions and the quality of the learners' responses.

2. SYSTEMS FOR CLASSIFYING QUESTIONS

There are many classification systems for describing the different levels of questions. For example, Martorella⁷ suggests that questions can be organized into seven general categories - those that (1) provoke interest or gain attention; (2) assess the state of students' learning; (3) trigger recall of subject matter; (4) manage instruction; (5) encourage more advanced levels of thinking; (6) redirect attention; (7) elicit feelings. Brown believes that the simplest way to conceptualize the possibilities is to think of a range of questions, beginning with display questions that attempt to elicit information already known by the teacher, and ending with referential questions that request information not known by the teacher.⁸

Taba and her associates devised questioning strategies that incorporate a series of scripts.⁹ One of the strategies uses a basic three-question script consisting of an opening question, a grouping question, and a labeling question. The function of opening questions is to recall information. Grouping questions require learners to organize information on the basis of similarities and differences as well as to provide a rationale for their classification. The function of labeling questions is to summarize and further refine thinking.

During the past decades, many systems have been developed for classifying the cognitive level of teacher questions. Most of the classification systems are similar and consider questions in terms of the cognitive processing they require students to perform.

In this article, I will put the spotlight on two systems that I believe can benefit ESP teachers the most. They are the following: the system of classifying questions as convergent or divergent and the system that categorizes questions according to the mental operation used in answering questions. Both can be effective and significantly improve the quality of a teacher's Q&A interaction with students.

Firstly, there is a simple system of convergent (narrow) and divergent (broad) questions.

Convergent questions encourage student responses to focus on a central theme. They typically require a correct answer or elicit a short response from students. Convergent questions encourage students to focus on specific information such as locating a specific piece of text in a reading passage. Questions about concrete facts which have been memorized by language learners are also convergent. They may require learners to recall and integrate or analyze information to provide one expected and correct answer.

Divergent questions allow for an array of responses since they call for opinions, hypotheses, or evaluations. They elicit student responses that vary or diverge. There are often no right or wrong answers with divergent questions and there can be many possible correct responses. Teachers may use divergent questions when they wish to compare learner's ideas about a concept or topic. Divergent questions are used frequently because they encourage broader responses and are more likely to involve learners in the learning process and communication. They require students to think and reflect. Educators Moore⁵ and Martorella¹⁰ suggest that teachers typically start with convergent questions and move toward divergent ones.

Secondly, there is Moore's **Mental Operation System** for classifying questions⁵. The system is based on Bloom's taxonomy¹¹ and Guilford's structure of the intellect¹². The four categories of questions that make up the Mental Operation System are factual, empirical, productive, and evaluative.

Factual questions are the narrowest of questions since they test learners' memory and answering requires the simple recall of information.

Empirical questions require learners to recall information, integrate and analyze it to arrive at a conclusion. Empirical questions may call for a lot of thinking, but once thought out, the answer is usually singular and correct.

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Productive questions are broad, open-ended, do not have a single correct answer and usually are difficult or even impossible to predict the answer. Productive questions call for students to use their imagination and creativity. In order to produce the answer, learners need the basic information that goes beyond the simple recollection of information.

Evaluative questions are often open-ended and require learners to make an evaluation or place a value on something. However, evaluative questions are more difficult to answer since they require the use of both internal and external criteria. The responses to evaluative questions can often be confined to a limited number of choices or responses.

The Mental Operation System for classifying questions gives teachers the needed framework for improving their questioning skills. Questions of all four categories of the system should be asked instead of only at the factual level, as some teachers do. The survey that we conducted in March 2013 among 69 university students majoring in history, biology and physics, all of them learning English as a foreign language, showed that factual and empirical questions prevail. Thus when asked about the most frequently asked questions, 42 respondents or 61% of students, mentioned factual questions and 32 students or 47% - empirical ones. The number of students who indicated productive questions was 24 or 35% and evaluative – 7 students or 21%. Later in the article, we will be referring to this sample of students. My own observations conducted in English language classrooms also showed that factual and empirical questions prevail. Thus we can conclude that teachers need to ask more productive and evaluative questions than is common practice.

Below we offer a short review of the Mental Operation System for classifying questions.

1. Category: factual. Type of thinking: recalling information. Examples:

Who invented the television?

What did you do in the internet-café yesterday?

2. Category: empirical. Type of thinking: integrating and analyzing learned information. Examples:

What is the most expensive source of energy?

Based on our study of two forms of government, which form is the most democratic?

3. Category: productive. Type of thinking: creative and producing unique answers. Examples:

What was the writer's intent in writing this article?

What changes would we see in our society if we elected a woman president?

What would you have done in this situation?

4. Category: evaluative. Type of thinking: making judgments or expressing values. Examples:

What is your opinion of our election system?

Do you think the author of the novel developed the main character sufficiently?

3. TYPES OF QUESTIONS

Effective teachers are supposed to adapt questions to lessons' objectives. Teachers may want to ask questions to determine the level of students' learning, to increase learners' interaction, to check understanding, or to stimulate learners' creativity. All of the above mentioned purposes call for the three types of questions that are focusing, prompting and probing.

Focusing questions are used to concentrate learners' attention on the topic as well as to determine what learners have learnt. They can be factual, empirical, productive, or evaluative.

Examples:

We have been discussing the role of media in the personality development this week, and I want to review what conclusions we have made.

What are the negative things about watching cartoons that contain violence?

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Prompting questions use hints and clues to help learners answer questions or to assist them in correcting their initial response. Usually a prompting question is reworded with some hints included. The use of this type of questions gives learners a sense of success when they finally answer it correctly. The following dialogue includes two prompting questions:

“Which month has the least birthdays?”

“I don’t know”.

“Well, let’s see if we can figure it out. How many days are there in a month?”

Pause. “Thirty or thirty one days”.

“Is there a month that has fewer days?”

Pause. “February has twenty eight or twenty nine days. Pause. Oh, February has the least birthdays”.

Probing questions are used when teachers want their learners to think more thoroughly about the initial response. These questions are used to develop clarification and critical awareness, or refocus a response. Sometimes learners give not well thought answers or half-answers. Then, teachers encourage students to think deeper to provide a response by asking a probing question. Examples are given below:

Can you explain more fully?

What do you mean by saying that?

Could you rephrase your answer?

What do you mean by saying the candidate’s position was very bad?

Could you elaborate on the point you have just made?

I think your idea is good. But can you expand your thought a bit to help me understand it more fully?

Very often the teacher wants learners to justify their answers and this can be done through the use of probing questions as well. Examples of such questions are:

Why do say that?

What are your reasons for saying that?

What are you assuming?

With the help of probing questions teachers can refocus a response to a related issue. For example:

Can you relate this answer to the topic of our lesson?

Let’s look at this answer with respect to what you have just read.

You have provided one point of view about the issue. How does it compare with the point of view expressed by Alexander?

Olga has just expressed an interesting point of view. I wonder if someone else would like to say why they agree or disagree with her idea?

What implications does your answer have for the conclusions we have arrived at?

Results of the students’ surveys indicate that teachers tend to use more prompting questions. 35 students (51%) said that teachers do not often use focusing questions and 48 students (70%) said that probing questions –are used very seldom. Before conducting the survey, we briefly explained to the students each type and demonstrated examples. Thus we can conclude that it is important to ask more focusing and probing questions than is common practice.

4. QUESTIONING TECHNIQUES

Redirecting is a technique in which teachers ask several learners to respond to a question in light of the previous answers. It is considered to be an effective way of building broader learners' participation in discussions. Below is an example of how the redirecting tactic can be used.

"We have read about the discoveries and contributions of some great men of science. Could you give the names of those scientists who, to your opinion, made the greatest contribution?"

Lerner 1: "Dmitry Mendeleev".

Teacher to another learner: "What do you think"?

Lerner 2: "Isaac Newton".

Teacher to another learner: "Your opinion"?

By using redirecting techniques, the teacher does not react to learners' responses, but simply redirects them to another person. Learners' participation and involvement are increased which lead to more learning. This tactic can be used effectively with learners who are passive and do not volunteer to answer questions. The teacher might encourage reluctant learners to participate by asking them such questions as:

What do you think?

Would you like to make a comment?

Would you like to add something?

Another technique deals with wait time. The research of Rowe¹³ demonstrated the effects of extending time for learners to answer questions. Row has shown that most teachers wait on average only about one second. Her further research revealed that when teachers increase their wait time following a question to between 3-5 seconds, the length of student responses and speculative thinking increases while failure to respond decreases. Conversely, Rowe found that short wait time produced short answers. Row also noticed that teachers who learned to use silence found that those students who used to say little began to start talking more and even generated interesting ideas. Row's analysis of the questioning issue suggested that at least three seconds is an average threshold of wait time for teachers to attempt to establish. But she notes, that wait time will be less when questions require little reflection and greater when questions require problem solving, summarizing, forming a conclusion and weighing of alternatives.

The use of silent time is another questioning technique. Very often teachers interrupt, intervene or cut off students before they have finished answering. Silent time is the pause after a learner has finished speaking and before the teacher asks another student. Moore suggests that silent time should be increased to between three-five seconds to prevent teachers from cutting off students and to give time for other learners to react, respond or interject a comment.¹⁴

Another technique which can widen learner participation and improve the quality of student responses is reinforcement. As a teacher has asked a question and a student has given an acceptable response, a teacher should make a decision of how to react. The teacher needs to think whether to offer praise or approval, or just accept the answer without any comments and continue with the lesson. Moore claims that how teachers react, that is teachers' pattern of reinforcement, has a powerful effect on the direction of the interaction in the classroom.

The most common positive reinforcements are one-word comments or phrases such as "Good", "Excellent," "Great," "Super", or "That's right". They can be used to effectively reward a learner's correct answer. Moore notes, that although some reinforcement is good, the frequent application of reinforcement negates the benefits derived from wait time. Thus, if a teacher reinforces students early in an answering sequence, other students may decide not to respond because they might think their answers would not be as good as the previous ones. Rather than giving reinforcement after the initial

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response to a question, a teacher should allow as many learners as possible to respond. After that, a teacher can reinforce all learners for their contributions and comment on the best answer.

When we asked students about questioning techniques, we received the following answers: 38 students (55%) said that redirecting is used in the English language classroom. 52 students (75%) noted that teachers wait less than one second after a question was asked. Students noted that they realize the effects of increasing wait time and think teachers should extend wait time. Students strongly believe that if a teacher prolongs the average wait time to 2 or even 3 seconds, this can increase the quantity and quality of their responses. As for the use of silent time, students were unanimous in their answers. All 69 (100%) students testified that teachers do not use wait time! One student responded to the survey question: "Do teachers sometimes cut off students before they have finished answering?" in the following way: "Yes, they love it! I don't know why." Most respondents (93%) noted that teachers use reinforcements to reward correct answers and mentioned that reinforcements motivate students to do better, raise students' self-awareness and improve their responses.

5. CONCLUSIONS

Asking questions involves more than just asking learners clear questions about specific content. Teachers should adapt questions to their lessons' objectives. The questions can be categorized as convergent (narrow) and divergent (broad). Factual recall of information calls for the use of convergent questions, whereas the desire to stimulate thinking requires the use of divergent questions. A more detailed system for classifying questions is the Mental Operation System. The four categories of questions that make up the Mental Operation System are factual, empirical, productive, and evaluative. It is important to ask more productive and evaluative questions than is the current common practice. If the purpose is to arouse interest and increase learners' involvement, then the teacher can use the following types of questions: focusing, prompting, and probing. Our research indicates that it is important to ask more focusing and probing questions. Techniques that can increase the quality of teachers' questions and learners' responses, motivate students to do better, and raise students' self-awareness are redirecting, the use of wait time, the use of silent time, and reinforcement.

There is no end to the degree of perfection that teachers' questioning skills may attain. Teachers should enhance their skills as questioners, practice and evolve their questioning techniques! We focused on the questioning skills for language teachers but we realize that if teachers have developed these skills, they can successfully teach them to their learners. In our further research we plan to investigate ways of teaching ESP learners to ask good, clear and effective questions.

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The Pertinence of Discourse Markers in the Academic Discourse of Electrical Engineering and Discourse of Mechanical Engineering

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Abstract: In the past decades or so, we witnessed a rapid growth in the study of discourse markers across languages regardless of diverse classification problems. Broadly speaking, discourse markers came to be seen as communicative devices par excellence, the study of which might significantly contribute to understanding utterance interpretation mechanisms. Not surprisingly, in the meantime, these linguistic items have become highly explored language phenomena within the current semantic/syntactic/pragmatic/prosodic research. At the same time, discourse markers represent a challenge for linguists and teachers. In the first part of the paper I introduce the theoretical framework and corpus-based data. Since previous accounts have relied mostly on one data type, I want to extend the oral medium research scope by introducing academic lectures from MIT Electrical Engineering Department and MIT Mechanical Engineering Department. The second part of my presentation is a case study in the pertinent discourse markers (*but, so, in fact, kind of* and *sort of*), which are employed in English discourses of electrical engineering and mechanical engineering. Even though my investigation is primarily descriptive in orientation, certain observations are, nevertheless, in order.

Key words: Discourse Markers, ESP, Discourse of Electrical Engineering, Discourse of Mechanical Engineering, Oral Medium, Academic Lectures.

1. INTRODUCTION

Lexical items, such as: *but, so, in fact, kind of* and *sort of*, have been studied in the linguistic literature under different labels. In this paper I focus on this small group of linguistic items which mark the borderline in the semantics-pragmatics interface. Since the study of these linguistic phenomena has transformed into “a growing industry” (Fraser 1999), it is hardly surprising that certain authors utilise somewhat different labels so as to define the similar items under consideration. Some authors call these items *cue phrases* (Litman and Hirschberg 1990), *discourse connectives* (Rouchota 1996), *semantic conjuncts* (Quirk et al. 1985), *sentence connectives* (Halliday and Hasan 1976), to name just a few¹. In this paper, I shall adopt, without any prescriptive intention, the term *discourse marker*, which according to certain authors represents “a convenient cover term [...] with the widest currency and with the least restricted range of application” (Jucker and Ziv 1998, 2), and which, at the same time, includes “[...] a broad variety of elements under a single conceptual umbrella” (Jucker and Ziv 1998, 2). Even though Fraser (1999: 931) notices that most researchers agree that discourse markers relate discourse segments, he, nevertheless, observes that there is no agreement on how discourse markers are to be defined or how they function. Nonetheless, authors

¹ In order to illustrate a proliferation of terms used within different classificatory schemes Fraser (1999: 932) brought fourteen labels, synonymous with ‘discourse markers,’ to our attention, these being: *cue phrases, discourse connectives, discourse operators, discourse particles, discourse signalling devices, phatic connectives, pragmatic connectives, pragmatic expressions, pragmatic formatives, pragmatic markers, pragmatic operators, pragmatic particles, semantic conjuncts, and sentence connectives.*

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seem to agree that discourse markers “[...] play a variety of important roles in utterance interpretation” (Schourup 1999, 227).

Fraser (1999: 950) defines *discourse markers* as items which belong to a pragmatic class, or more precisely, as lexical items obtained from the syntactic classes of conjunctions, adverbials, and prepositional phrases. With certain exceptions, discourse markers signal a relationship between the interpretation of the discourse segment they introduce, which Fraser calls S_2 , and the prior segment, which Fraser calls S_1 . In addition to this, discourse markers have a core meaning, which is procedural. Furthermore, more specific interpretation of these discourse items is determined by the context².

According to Schourup (1999: 242), the term *discourse marker* “typically refers to a more or less open class of syntactically optional, non-truth-conditional connective expressions.” I shall take as my point of departure the fusion of Fraser’s and Schourup’s delimitation properties in order to treat discourse markers in the discourses of electrical engineering and mechanical engineering.

But, before I proceed a word or two concerning the relevance-theoretic framework are in order, since this framework provides one plausible interpretation tool for treating discourse markers under consideration. According to Relevance Theory, there are two principles of relevance: the cognitive principle of relevance and the communicative principle of relevance. On the one hand, the former states that the human cognitive system is geared towards the maximisation of relevance, while the former refers to verbal communication, and in particular, it governs the verbal communication itself. More precisely, according to the communicative principle of relevance, every act of ostensive communication conveys a presumption of its own optimal relevance (see: Sperber and Wilson 1995). Furthermore, according to this relevance-theoretic framework, interlocutors are guided by the presumption of optimal relevance. In addition to this, within this framework the ostensive system is relevant enough to be worth the addressee’s attention and that is the most relevant one according to speaker’s abilities and preferences. In other words, interlocutors are said to employ a specific comprehension strategy in that they follow a path of least effort while considering interpretive hypotheses in the order of their accessibility. Interlocutors cease this computation comprehension process as soon as an interpretation which fulfills their expectations of relevance has been reached.

In the next section I describe the data I used for my analysis.

2. CORPUS DESCRIPTION

Even though the spoken discourse had been widely used in discourse markers research, I wanted to further expand the scope by processing and analysing the oral medium in the form of ten academic lectures delivered at the Department of Electrical Engineering and Department of Mechanical Engineering at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT). More precisely, this oral medium consists of five electrical engineering academic lectures, i.e. electrical engineering corpora (hereinafter referred to as: EEC₁, EEC₂, EEC₃, EEC₄ and EEC₅) and five mechanical engineering academic lectures, i.e. mechanical engineering corpora (hereinafter referred to as: MEC₁, MEC₂, MEC₃, MEC₄ and MEC₅). These lectures were transcribed and annotated in accordance with the existing literature on the subject (see: Jenks 2011; Polovina 1987, Savić and Polovina 1989, Tannen 1989, Schiffrin 2006). Transcription conventions for my data excerpts have been adapted from: Polovina (1987) Schiffrin (2006) and Tannen (1989).

² Certain discourse markers also have important roles in the context of written and spoken communications in English for Science and Technology (see: Stojković 2005).

The observations I make throughout this paper are based on the data collected from the spoken academic discourse. Therefore, EEC₁₋₅, MEC₁₋₅ were statistically analysed by means of the standard Microsoft Word 2007 document tools. Statistically speaking, after the conversion process the corpus EEC₁ includes 12 pages, 9488 words and 588 lines, the corpus EEC₂ includes 11 pages, 9226 words and 541 lines, the corpus EEC₃ contains 11 pages, it contains 8820 words and 529 lines. While, the corpus EEC₄ includes 10 pages, comprises 8238 words and 489 lines, the corpus EEC₅ is comprised of 12 pages containing 9450 words and 571 lines. The corpus MEC₁ is comprised of 33, containing 16797 words and 1629 lines, the corpus MEC₂ consists of 30 pages, containing 16621 words and 1473 lines. The MEC₃ corpus consists of 33 pages containing 16724 words and 1644 lines, while MEC₄ contains 30 pages, which comprise 15445 words and 1469 lines. Finally, the corpus MEC₅ contains 34 pages, 18034 words and 1683 lines. In other words, corpus EEC₁₋₅ and corpus MEC₁₋₅, strictly speaking, include the total of 216 pages, 128843 words and 10616 lines.

In the next section I analyse discourse markers *but, so, in fact, kind of* and *sort of* in accordance with the mentioned unitary accounts.

3. THE ANALYSIS OF DISCOURSE MARKERS BUT, SO, IN FACT, KIND OF AND SORT OF IN THE DISCOURSE OF ELECTRICAL ENGINEERING AND DISCOURSE OF MECHANICAL ENGINEERING

It has been already mentioned that, according to Fraser (1999: 938), discourse markers share one common property. Namely, they impose a relationship between some aspect of the discourse segment they are part of (which Fraser identifies as S₂), and some aspect of a prior discourse segment (which Fraser dubs S₁). In other words, S₂ and S₁ function like a two-place relation. More precisely, one argument is found in the segment discourse markers introduce, and the other segment is found in the prior discourse. Fraser represents this canonical form in the following manner: <S₁. DM+S₂>.

Now I shall illustrate this Fraser's observation by means of the excerpts from my corpus. In other words, I implement this Fraser's canonical form to electrical engineering and mechanical engineering discourses³.

(1) [EEC₂: 23-23]

So, big O corresponds roughly to less than or equal to. But this is the formalization.

(2) [MEC₄: 136-139]

Usually the way we operate, at least in our area, the aerodynamic area, we had a crack team that would go back in and define the problem, a potential solution to that problem and then suggest to the contractor they might look at this way or that way. But they really put the muscle to it.

In both excerpts (1) and (2), discourse marker *but* conforms to the canonical form, proposed by Fraser. In other words, excerpts (1) and (2) have the canonical form which is expressed in the following manner: <S₁. But+S₂>. However, Fraser permits certain variations, the most frequent being the one represented in the following manner: <S₁, DM+S₂>. Now we shall see whether this variation occurs in my corpus:

(3) [EEC₁: 163-164]

³ Corpus excerpts containing the pertinent discourse marker example are given throughout the paper in the following manner: first I provide the excerpt number (e.g. (1)), then the corpus initialism (e.g. EEC₁, MEC₄), and then the numbers which refer to line numbers in the corpus. The discourse marker, which is being observed, is simultaneously *italicised* and underlined (e.g. *but, so, in fact, kind of, sort of*).

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There are other resources that we may care about, *but* predominantly we focus on performance.

(4) [MEC1: 38-40]

The best job I ever had, you might say, really, is I've had a lot of different jobs, *but* my first job was really working with the MIT Instrumentation Laboratory where I met a great number of people.

The excerpts (3) and (4) exhibit and demonstrate the Fraser's variation, which is represented in the following way: <S₁, but+S₂>.

Now we shall see syntax and semantics of discourse markers according to some authors. Some authors state that, syntactically speaking, discourse markers seem not to constitute a separate syntactic category (Fraser 1999, 943). As regards semantics, authors mostly state that items functioning as discourse markers relate two discourse segments and do not contribute to the propositional meaning of those two segments (Fraser 1999, 944). In order to account for discourse markers in the discourse of electrical engineering and discourse mechanical engineering, I shall briefly introduce two important relevance-theoretic aspects. The first aspect is whether a discourse marker encodes conceptual or procedural information, and the second one is whether a discourse marker is truth-conditional or non-truth-conditional⁴. I shall address these aspects in turn.

Within Relevance Theory there are two types of linguistically encoded meaning: conceptual (sometimes also called *representational*) and procedural (sometimes referred to as *computational*) (Rouchota 1996, 5). Within the relevance-theoretic framework utterance interpretation is regarded as a two-phase process, which, according to Sperber and Wilson, consists of a modular decoding phase, and a central inferential phase. Therefore, inferential interpretation requires mental representations construction as well as manipulation. This distinction is further worked out within the relevance-theoretic framework. Namely, on the one hand, a linguistic item is conceptual if it encodes information which contributes to the content of a conceptual representation (for example, the item *network* in 'They had to restore the network'). On the other hand, a linguistic item is procedural if it encodes the information about how a conceptual representation is to be used in the course of inferential phase comprehension (for example, the item *in fact* in 'He used a rectifier in his experiment. In fact, he used all the available tools')⁵. In addition to this distinction, according to Fraser (1999: 945), every individual discourse marker has a specific meaning, which he calls *core meaning*.

Although the tripartite distinction equated, on the one hand, as conceptual = truth-conditional = explicature and, on the other hand, as procedural = non-truth-conditional = implicature has already been challenged (for example, Ziv 1998), this tripartite distinction may serve a purpose for the present analysis of these items in English discourses of electrical engineering and mechanical engineering.

In what follows I analyse discourse markers *but*, *so*, *in fact*, *kind of* and *sort of* according to the criteria proposed in the relevant literature. According to Schourup (1999: 230-234) there are seven characteristics typical of discourse markers: connectivity, optionality, non-truth-conditionality, weak clause association, initiality, orality, and multi-categoriality. Although Schourup stresses that the first three criteria (i.e. connectivity, optionality and non-truth-conditionality) can be regarded as necessary

⁴ I also took into consideration whether a discourse marker constrains explicitly or implicitly communicated information (but to a certain extent).

⁵ According to Villy Rouchota (1996: 5), "Words with conceptual meaning contribute to the content of assertions and are analysed as encoding elements of conceptual representations. Words with procedural meaning encode information about how these representations are to be used in inference, they tell you how to 'take' these representations."

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attributes of discourse markers, other criteria being less consistently utilised as delimitation criteria, I shall try to implement all seven characteristics to my corpus examples.

According to the first criterion (i.e. connectivity), proposed by Schourup, discourse markers connect the segments in the given discourse. The second criterion (i.e. optionality) states that discourse markers are not obligatory elements of discourse. The third criterion (i.e. non-truth-conditionality) asserts that discourse markers do not contribute to the truth-conditions of the proposition expressed by an utterance. According to the fourth criterion (i.e. weak clause association), discourse markers are not syntactically integrated, or more precisely, they occur either outside the syntactic structure or might be loosely attached to that structure. The fifth criterion (i.e. initiality) asserts that discourse markers occupy the initial position. According to the sixth criterion (i.e. orality) discourse markers are exclusively connected with the oral medium, and according to the seventh criterion (i.e. multi-categoriality), discourse markers constitute a heterogeneously generated functional category.

I shall now confine my analysis to the linguistic items under investigation (i.e. *but*, *so*, *in fact*, *kind of*, *sort of*), which are illustrated by the following excerpts:

(5) [EEC₄: 51-52]

But if it is less than or equal to x , I have got a problem if I want to maintain the invariant if this next element is less than or equal to x .

(6) [EEC₄: 23-24]

You just recursively sort the two subarrays. *So*, I recursively sort the elements less than or equal to x , I recursively sort the elements greater than or equal to x .

(7) [EEC₄: 267-269]

I simply plugged in, for $U(n/2)$, this recurrence. *In fact*, technically I guess I should have said $\Theta(n/2)$ just to make this substitution more straightforward.

(8) [EEC₄: 129-131]

That is actually *kind of* important to understand, because it turns out the most common thing to sort is something that is already sorted, surprisingly, or things that are nearly sorted.

(9) [EEC₄: 29-30]

Just as mergesort was recursive merging, quicksort *sort of* goes the other way around and does recursive partitioning.

(10) [MEC₂: 281-283]

But, independent of that, you never fly in space something that is close to the state-of-the-art because you have to go through all the qualifications, which takes a lot of time, and it has to be radiation hardened when you're in space.

(11) [MEC₂: 337-338]

If you get unbalanced flow of hypergolic propulsion systems you can also get an explosion. *So*, the solution to that was limiting how many jets you could fire at one time off of one tank.

(12) [MEC₂: 1395-1396]

Miwa Hayashi is, *in fact*, at NASA Ames Research Center now, was here at MIT and worked on the design of the next generation of the Shuttle cockpit upgrade.

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(13) [MEC₂: 808-810]

The original expected launch date of the Shuttle was '78. It *kind of* stayed ahead of us a certain amount of time, but we had probably 90% or 95% of the design done by '78.

(14) [MEC₂: 1400-1402]

I might add that, although the room is very crowded, if a few of you would like to *sort of* hear where this story would have gone, you're welcome to come across the hall to 419 and hear Dr. Hayashi.

The excerpts (5-14) exhibit certain patterns of behaviour. Let us briefly consider them in turn.

Discourse markers *but*, *so* and *in fact* meet the optionality criterion in the discourses of electrical engineering (excerpts (5-9)) and mechanical engineering (excerpts: (10-14))⁶. In other words, the removal the discourse markers *but*, *so* and *in fact* in my excerpts would not alter the grammaticality of their host sentence, and therefore, omitting discourse markers renders the given discourse neither ungrammatical nor unintelligible. However, this is not to say that discourse markers in question are useless or redundant.

All the observed discourse markers (*but*, *so*, *in fact*, *kind of*, *sort of*) meet Schourup's second criterion, i.e. they are all non-truth-conditional in all the given excerpts in the discourse of electrical engineering and discourse of mechanical engineering. Equally, all five observed discourse markers meet the fourth criterion since they exhibit weak clause association.

As regards the fifth criterion, *but*, *so* and *in fact* occupy the initial position. Nevertheless, this is not always the case with markers *kind of* and *sort of*, because they occupy the mid-sentence position in excerpts (8), (9), (13) and (14). All discourse markers under investigation meet the sixth criterion, proposed by Schourup. Namely, they all occur in all ten lectures (both in electrical and mechanical engineering lectures). The seventh criterion is also satisfied, because multi-categoriality of all the observed discourse markers might be explained in diachronic terms on the basis of the grammaticalisation process (see: Traugott 1995).

Having taken into consideration Schourup's seven criteria and relevance-theoretic framework, I am inclined to conclude the following. With respect to the form of the observed discourse markers, *but* and *so* impose restriction on contextual effect derivation, while *in fact* limits the context selection. *Kind of* and *sort of* impose restriction on fundamental explicature derivation. With respect to the meaning, all five discourse markers (*but*, *so*, *in fact*, *kind of*, *sort of*) exhibit procedural encoding, i.e. they are procedural items in the discourse of electrical engineering and mechanical engineering. In connection with the truth-conditionality, all the inspected items do not contribute to the truth-conditionality. In other words, they are non-truth-conditional in both discourse of electrical engineering and discourse of mechanical engineering. Finally, the communicative level of *but*, *so* and *in fact* is implicit, while *kind of* and *sort of* mark explicit communication in the discourse of electrical engineering and mechanical engineering⁷.

⁶ In no way does my analysis rule out the possibility of discourse markers occurrence in other discourse types. Nor does it claim that discourse markers *but*, *so*, *in fact*, *kind of* and *sort of* display the described behaviour patterns solely in the discourse of electrical engineering and mechanical engineering. However, these corpora were available to me (and I come across them as a teacher of English for Electrical Engineering and English for Mechanical Engineering on a daily basis). Therefore, it seems to me that these markers deserve descriptive considerations in these two discourse types.

⁷ By no means do I claim that these characteristics are solely typical of the discourse of electrical engineering and discourse of mechanical engineering. Nevertheless, since I use this discourse type material it goes without saying that my observations are made on the basis of the discourse under investigation. Unfortunately, the behaviour of discourse markers in General English, the topic no less interesting, could not be taken up in my paper, but the potential reader might wish to refer to the proposed literature and the bibliography contained therein.

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At this point, one tentative observation would be that the given discourse markers in the discourse of electrical engineering and mechanical engineering are syntactically optional items which do not influence the truth-conditions of the discourse segments they introduce, relating the given segment with the segment which precedes the given discourse marker.

Since one part of my analysis is based on the role of inference in comprehension from a relevance-theoretic point of view, it is in order to say a word or two. Let us now analyse additional examples in the following excerpts from the discourse of electrical engineering and discourse of mechanical engineering.

(15) [EEC₅: 28-30]

And that is a question, in some sense, we will answer both yes and no to today. *But* all of these algorithms have something in common in terms of the model of what you're allowed to do with the elements

(16) [MEC₅: 141-143]

I didn't start on Apollo at the beginning like Aaron did. I came out a little bit later. *But*, in this program, I had the good fortune of working on it from sketchpad to launch pad.

In excerpts (15) and (16) contrastive marker *but* participates in the inferential process of contradicting and eliminating an assumption of the speaker. From a cognitive perspective, it may be asserted that *but* is a discourse marker of cognitive effects, mainly because in the discourse of electrical engineering and discourse of mechanical engineering (see also excerpts (5) and (10)) it encodes the information about logical inconsistency thereby instructing the addressee to follow and inferential path, which will terminate in the elimination of contextual assumption. In both excerpts (15-16) *but* does not possess any conceptual contribution, not even at the level of implicatures. It has also been claimed that *but* functions as a constraint on relevance denoting denial of expectation (see: Đurić 2012), and this is also the case in excerpt (1). Let us now look at the inferential marker *so*.

(17) [EEC₅: 81-83]

And then each leaf node gives you a permutation. *So*, in order to be the answer to that sorting problem, that permutation better have the property that it orders the elements.

(18) [MEC₅: 247-248]

Very low cross-range, very low payload. *So*, that was probably the 8 foot diameter 40,000 pound payload.

In excerpts (17) and (18) inferential marker *so* participates in the inferential process of drawing a conclusion. Furthermore, item *so* is also a marker of cognitive effect. In the discourses of electrical engineering and mechanical engineering this marker encodes the information (see also excerpts (6) and (11)) that the intended inferential process will result in the derivation of contextual implication. Let us now see how the marker *in fact* behaves in the following excerpts.

(19) [EEC₅: 200-202]

They use the minimum number of comparisons up to constant factors. *In fact*, their whole running time is dominated by the number of comparisons.

(20) [MEC₁: 1126-1128]

That is a very, very important tool. *In fact*, when you go out and work in industry, actually, if you become a member of a work breakdown structure, you're graded on how well you perform under this work breakdown structure.

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In excerpts (19) and (20) topic marker *in fact* has the role of turn-opener. Moreover, it constrains implicatures, and at least in the discourse of electrical engineering and mechanical engineering it encodes the information about the given context in which certain cognitive effects can be derived – i.e. strengthening and/or elimination in excerpts (7), (12), (19) and (20). In my corpus marker *in fact* marks scalar inference, the conclusion already reached for general English discourse (see Schwenter and Traugott 2000)⁸. In addition to this, in my excerpts discourse marker *in fact* participates in backward upgrading of the given discourse. In excerpts (19) and (20), the discourse marker *in fact*, as another procedural encoding, seems to exhibit the following feature. Namely, it constrains the inferential process of context selection and functions at the level of implicatures. In all analysed excerpts, *in fact* requires previous linguistic context consisting of two adjacent utterances. Since this marker requires minimal previous context (at least in the discourse of electrical and mechanical engineering) it saves the addressee's processing effort by signalling that the host utterance is pertinent as a sort of repair. Finally, in my sketchy analysis, if an utterance is marked by *in fact*, then it is no longer negotiable.

Let us now see the behaviour of markers of a weak explicature (*kind of* and *sort of*) in the discourse of electrical engineering and mechanical engineering.

(21) [EEC₅: 255-259]

And when you're solving your problem sets, you should keep in mind that it's really hard to understand an algorithm just given pseudocode like this. You need some *kind of* English description of what's going on because, while you could work through and figure out what this means, it could take half an hour to an hour.

(22) [MEC₅: 460-461]

That's the allowable of the material that you've decided to use compared to the maximum expected load that you will ever want to see, three sigma *kind of* loads.

(23) [EEC₅: 304-305]

That was the last element. I won't cross it off, but we've *sort of* done that.

(24) [MEC₃: 24]

The Lunar landing was *sort of* interesting.

The discourse marker *kind of* (in excerpts (21-22)) and *sort of* (in excerpts (23-24)) may be defined as markers of loose talk. In other words, loose talk markers *sort of* and *kind of* in the excerpts (21-24) represent procedural constraints on explicatures directly linked to *ad hoc* concept formation. Strictly speaking, the *ad hoc* concept formation process is a pragmatic process of developing the utterance logical form into an explicated propositional form. A lexical concept that appears in the logical form is pragmatically adjusted (either broadened or loosened) so that the communicated concept is different from the concept encoded by the lexical item. Discourse markers *kind of* (in excerpts (21-21)) and *sort of* (in excerpts (23-24)) encode the information about concept loosening, that is, explicature is understood as being weakly communicated. The two markers do not differ in (what Fraser calls) their core instruction. Therefore, we conclude that markers *kind of* and *sort of* mark the weak explicature in the discourse of electrical engineering and mechanical engineering. However, this is not to say that this mentioned or similar behaviour cannot be found in General English discourse.

⁸ In addition to scalarity, Schwenter and Traugott describe the diachronic development of the topic marker *in fact* (the development of which they represent in the following manner: fact > in fact₁ > in fact₂ > in fact₃). Unfortunately, the diachronic development of the discourse marker *in fact*, the topic no less interesting, cannot be accounted for in this paper due to spatial limitations.

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If these items are procedurally analysed, then *kind of*, in excerpts (21-22), and *sort of*, in excerpts (23-24), encode the instructions that the material under their scope is to be interpreted in a relation to a non-identical resemblance so that the communicated concept (CC) shares some of the implications of the encoded concept (EC). The essential function of *kind of/sort of* is found in the identification of the propositional form. In other words, these discourse markers of loose talk facilitate the explicature construction process by means of *ad hoc* concept formation. The encoded concepts in the given excerpts from my corpus are seen to be pragmatically adjusted, either loosened or broadened, the result of which is a weak explicature of some sort. *Kind of* and *sort of* do not occur discourse-initially, nor do they constitute a turn by themselves.

In addition to this, it has been noticed in the excerpts from my corpus that the items *kind of/sort of* function of mitigators which participate in the conversational strategy of the discourse of electrical and mechanical engineering which employs minimisation by means of tentativisation. Additionally, the lexically encoded concepts in excerpts (21-24), which are prefaced by *kind of/sort of*, are further pragmatically adjusted by means of broadening, the result of which is a loosely used utterance in the discourses of electrical and mechanical engineering (i.e. a weak explicature). In what follows I provide concluding remarks concerning the investigated items.

4. CONCLUDING REMARKS

Even though discourse markers do not seem to lend themselves easily to any kind of conceptual rendering, some observations and conclusions are, nevertheless, in order. Let us now briefly consider them in turn.

In the discourse of electrical and mechanical engineering, the propositionality indicator *but* serves as a pointer to the pragmatic inferences the addressee has to undertake in order to understand the utterance. Both *but* and *so* may be said to signal certain contextual effects. More precisely, on the one hand, *but* contradicts and eliminates an existing assumption, while, on the other hand, *so* derives a contextual implication. Additionally, in the discourse of electrical and mechanical engineering, the discourse marker *so* constrains the interpretation of the utterance it prefaced by limiting inferential calculations into which the propositions may enter.

Discourse marker *in fact* displays the following behaviour pattern in the discourse of electrical and mechanical engineering. Namely, it instructs the addressee that the process of reanalysis is sought, which will ultimately end in a subsequent upgrading of what has previously transpired.

In my sketchy analysis, discourse markers *kind of* and *sort of* have been analysed as semantic synonyms, possessing the identical core instruction. *Kind of* and *sort of* participate in the conversational strategy of the discourse of electrical and mechanical engineering in order to signal minimisation by means of tentativisation.

Even though my investigation is primarily descriptive in orientation, certain observations are, nevertheless, in order. Since discourse markers reduce the inferential work the addressee has to undertake in order to reach the intended interpretation, I treat them as effort-saving devices in the discourses of electrical engineering and mechanical engineering. Additionally, certain authors' claims

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concerning the acquisition of discourse markers (see: Wichmann and Chanet) have been also noticed in the context of ESP.

It has been claimed that discourse markers exhibit linguistic minimisation and tentativisation which are cases of semantic enrichment in the discourse of electrical engineering and the discourse of mechanical engineering. Although the core semantic meaning of the observed discourse markers seems to be identical, certain differences in use have been attested in the corpus data.

In a nutshell, I have investigated so far the role of items *but*, *so*, *in fact*, *kind of* and *sort of* in the discourse of electrical and mechanical engineering. I have listed the most pertinent findings taking into consideration certain characteristics typically attributed to these discourse items, such as Schourup's seven characteristics. It has been concluded that discourse markers in question are pertinent in their own right, and that the similar investigations anchored in relevance-theoretic framework might have relevant repercussions on future research on discourse markers in ESP.

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Implementing panel discussions in ESP teaching

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Abstract: Contemporary education and modern learning approaches as well as students' requirements in society today call for holistic methods that highly motivate and enable learners to be the very creators of the learning process in which the teacher acts primarily as a facilitator and guide. Having proved to be such a method, panel discussion has been integrated into the syllabus of the ESP course at the Faculty of Social Sciences in Ljubljana, Slovenia. This paper seeks to demonstrate the multifaceted benefits of this method. It is not only effective in language acquisition but, through the final output– dialogue – it also facilitates changes in the students' cognitive process. Further, the paper describes the process of implementing a panel discussion, integrated activities and assessment criteria. Finally, it concludes by listing some advantages and drawbacks identified by the students.

Key words: panel discussion, teaching method, language acquisition

1. INTRODUCTION

Contemporary imperatives in the teaching of languages for specific purposes such as interactive learning, autonomous learning, a student-centred approach, real-life simulation, activation of receptive knowledge, formal/academic and professional vocabulary acquisition, the simultaneous development of all four language skills on one hand and the development of cognitive skills and critical thinking, broadening the view of oneself and that of the world, dissemination of intercultural dialogue espousing tolerance and better understanding of other people's beliefs, opinions, culture etc. on the other urge language teachers to apply them in their teaching. Therefore, I opted for panel discussion as a method that would encompass all of these components and at the same time enthuse the students to work vigorously. This paper first defines panel discussion and compares it to debate. The next section illustrates the implementation of panel discussions in the teaching of English for specific purposes (ESP) explaining the steps and suggesting some student activities. Lastly, it discusses the findings of a poll carried out with students of social sciences that sought to identify positive and negative perceptions of this method.

2. DEFINITION OF PANEL DISCUSSION

The panel discussion technique was first introduced by Harry Overstreet in 1929. In 1932 he demonstrated it at the AAAE meeting in the US city of Buffalo as a method that fosters democratic participation among many persons considering a solution to a problem (Keith 2007). A panel discussion is a type of deliberation where representatives of a particular group of people or experts (usually referred to as a »panel«) talk about an issue from divergent perspectives in front of an audience trying to find a solution to a problem through argumentation and the brainstorming of ideas. More often than not, the audience interacts and contributes to problem solving. The participants in a panel discussion are panellists/discussants, a moderator/facilitator and the audience. The basic structure of a panel discussion is questions – answers– dialogue.

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Discussion is to some extent similar to debate but they differ in their aims. According to Snider and Schnurer (2006), a debate »is an equitably structured communication event about some topic of interest, with opposing advocates alternating before a decision making body«. Although the debate method teaches critical questioning and learning, the seeking of new interpretations and can be an effective tool for developing and acquiring all language skills, the initial purpose of debate is to persuade or to win (ibid.) Further, Green and Klug (1990) assert that debate is more likely to bias students' final attitudes, without leaving much space for dialogue to take place.

Conversely, discussion ultimately aims to create dialogue since in a dialogue people communicate with each other, not against each other. In dialogue, the gradual creation and shared set of meanings enable the group to achieve a higher level of consciousness and creativity. Biases and basic cognitive processes are disclosed and all the complexities of thinking and language are explored (Schein 1993). When examining online discussions, Arend (2006) shows that critical thinking is best encouraged among students through a consistent emphasis on discussions, and the less frequent but more purposeful facilitation of the instructor.

In higher education the panel discussion has already been instituted and adapted by teachers of different courses all over the world to meet students' needs and achieve a variety of learning goals. For instance, Crone (1997) finds it a useful tool for enhancing the teaching of sociology and highlights the increased involvement of students in class and development of oral and critical thinking. Panel discussions have become an integral part of courses at some colleges and universities (Red River College 2013; Perdue Institute 2013; Mier College of Education 2013).

In order to encourage critical thinking in my students through dialogue, I have applied the panel discussion method in my teaching of 2nd year students of Social Informatics, students of Marketing and Public Relations and 4th year students of Policy Analysis and Public Administration over 30 teaching hours. According to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages, the students are classified as B2-C1 users of English.

3. IMPLEMENTATION OF PANEL DISCUSSION IN CLASS

This section describes the steps the students take when conducting a panel discussion, some student activities and the assessment criteria.

3.1. *Becoming familiar with panel discussion*

It is essential that students understand the purpose of a panel discussion as well as the objectives and competencies they are to gain when accomplishing the tasks. Therefore, these should be stated and illustrated clearly. The students should be able to differentiate discussion from the ultimate output – dialogue.

3.2. *Panel formation*

Each group consists of two to four panellists and a moderator. It should be emphasised that the students choose their partners carefully as they have to cooperate in organising the panel, rehearsing if necessary, and be equally keen on the issue to be discussed.

3.2.1. Panellists

The students may take on roles of experts. For example, in a panel discussion on austerity measures related to the abolition of child benefits in Slovenia, the following roles were assumed: the Minister of Social Affairs, the Minister of Finance, a social worker and a representative of single parents. The panellists must be knowledgeable in a particular field and provide credible and firm arguments to substantiate their positions. Each panellist presents and advocates their position within 4–6 minutes throughout the question-answer structure of the panel discussion. They are allowed to have cue cards for support. However, no reading is allowed. The panellists should pay attention to intonation and emphasise important facts in order to be persuasive and more confident.

3.2.2. Moderators

The facilitator in the panel discussion, the i.e. moderator, maintains the context of the dialogue and plays a crucial role in ensuring a relaxing atmosphere for the participants to talk freely about their standpoints and values (Bohm 2006). Therefore, the moderator has to be very familiar with the issue, know the background of the matter at hand and the position of each panellist as well as understand the panel discussion's purpose. They introduce the discussion, arouse curiosity about the issue among the audience, lead, conclude and invite the audience to ask questions or comment on a particular issue. They also ensure that each panellist has enough time to advocate their position, answer the questions or rebut, and keep the discussion focused on the issue to prevent deviations.

In addition, they are supposed to ask the panellists questions through critical observations. It is recommended they start by asking easier questions so that the panellists relax and then continue with more provocative questions (open ended questions). Yes/No questions should be avoided. They may also paraphrase the audience's questions or comments. At the end, they should not close the discussion abruptly but with a comment, suggestion, recommendation or prediction.

3.2.3. The audience

At the beginning of a panel discussion, the audience is provided with a hand-out on which they are supposed to mark their position before and after the discussion, write questions for the panellists, their comments, observations or thoughts related to the issue. This serves as an impetus for the audience to become actively involved in the discussion and ultimately the dialogue. Moreover, it aids in perceiving and measuring any changes in their views on the matter being discussed. Frequently, the audience's initial assumptions are put aside or suspended, new modes of thinking are established and a dialogue on a common issue starts to develop.

The hand-outs are submitted to the teacher on a voluntary basis and they may also serve as a record of the students' participation. Below is a sample hand-out for students in the audience (Fig. 1).

The issue of the panel discussion:	
Mark your position.	
<u>Before the panel discussion</u>	
10 9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1 ⚡ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10	
Yes	No
<u>After the panel discussion</u>	
10 9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1 ⚡ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10	
Yes	No
You may write your questions for the panellists and your comments here.	
.....	
.....	
Your name:	Date:

Fig. 1. The audience's hand-out

3.3. Abstracts

Since abstracts are a sine qua non of academic papers, conferences as well as panel discussions, the students become familiar with the two most common types of abstracts: informative and descriptive. The abstracts are analysed in terms of their structure, style, content, language and grammar. In this regard, I suggest the students analyse some well written and some poorly written abstracts and discuss their findings. After that, the panellists and the moderator are required to write and submit an abstracts even days prior to the panel discussion stating their position or providing the background to the issue to be discussed, and questions for which answers will be sought in the panel.

3.4. Panel discussion 'rehearsal'

In order for the students to become more relaxed and familiar with the actual performance of the in-class panel discussion, a 'rehearsal' is carried out. When there is not enough time to rehearse, I recommend adapting ideas for motions and discussion from Internet sources providing debates on certain issues such as Economist Debates (The Economist).

3.5. Learning language functions

Learning and practising common language functions used in discussions requires a degree of resourcefulness and motivation. For instance, the activity presented in Fig. 2 serves to make the students familiar with a more refined way of verbal communication.

Exercise:

Each student in a group is given a set of 10 slips with phrases like:

“I’m absolutely convinced that...” “I’m glad you asked that question”

“Well, it’s quite difficult to say at present.”

“Could you be a little more precise?” “It is quite impossible that...”

“I’d like to conclude by stating that...”

“On one hand..., but on the other hand...” “To summarise, I think...”

“Let me give an example...” “It is debatable whether...”

In a discussion of an issue, the students must use as many phrases as possible. Having used a phrase from a slip, the slip is then put on a pile in the middle of the table. The student who ends up with no slips or has the fewest slips left is the winner.

Fig. 2: Exercise: Useful phrases in discussions

3.6. *Becoming familiar with the assessment criteria*

Students become familiar with the assessment criteria. Although a rigid syllabus and assessment requirements seem to collide with the idea of free dialogue and critical thinking, the students still seem to need some kind of incentive or reward for their work in terms of points or marks. Therefore, to make the students work duly and diligently all activities are assessed and the panellists and the moderator obtain points for their work. The assessment grid below (Fig. 3) illustrates the distribution of points.

Preparation (3 points) N.B. panellists or moderator	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - meeting the deadlines - brief report on the role and position to assume - report on the references to be used - glossary of either technical or academic vocabulary items (The glossary should include: the English definition, a phonetic transcription, synonyms, sentence-context and translation)
Abstract (10 points) N.B. panellists or moderator	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - appropriate vocabulary - style and content - grammar, spelling, orthography - use of discourse markers (referential vocabulary and phrases)
Advocacy/presentation of a position (10 points)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - argumentation/substantiation of a position - maintaining the focus - appropriate vocabulary

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N.B. panellists	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - signalling/discourse markers - pronunciation - grammar - fluency - timing
Facilitation of discussion (10 points) N.B. the moderator	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - introduction to the panel discussion - posing questions and providing comments - creating a sense of unity throughout the conversation (through good transitions from one panellist to another) - inviting the audience to ask questions - concluding and closing the panel discussion - maintaining the focus - appropriate vocabulary - signalling/discourse markers - pronunciation - grammar - fluency - timing
Discussion – aimed at stimulating dialogue with the audience (2 points) N.B. panellists or moderator	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - ability to answer or avoid answering questions (incorporating useful phrases in discussions) - handling questions - language points (pronunciation, grammar etc.– basics)

Fig. 3: Assessment grid

Fig. 4 briefly illustrates all of the skills either implicitly or explicitly incorporated into panel discussions during ESP courses.

Grammar	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Indirect questions - Reported speech - Conditional sentences - Comparison of adjectives - Passive voice
Vocabulary	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Building up technical, i.e. professional, language - Academic and formal language acquisition
Writing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Summarising - Abstract writing - Citing sources - Referring to literature
Reading	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Reading literature from a specific area - Developing reading techniques and strategies - Identifying key words, main ideas and sentences, paraphrasing - Vocabulary building
Speaking	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Practising the use of phrases for debating and discussing - Utilisation of academic, i.e. formal, language discourse - Argumentation and rhetorical skills practice - Public speaking - Questioning
Research	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Searching for appropriate sources for argumentation and advocacy of a position - Conducting research - Analysing and developing critical thinking

Fig. 4: Practised skills

4. STUDENTS FEEDBACK

At the end of the process, the students' perceptions of the panel discussion's success in terms of achieving the learning goals and motivation can be evaluated. I carried out a post-activity feedback evaluation poll with 75 students who participated in various panel discussions in the 2011/12 academic year. The results show general satisfaction with the method. Among the perceived benefits of engaging in the panel discussions the students mentioned the development of rhetorical and argumentation skills, vocabulary building, fostering reading and encouraging critical thinking, deeper knowledge about certain issues, viewing things from a different perspective, productive knowledge of English, the development of academic writing skills, new ideas, the audience's involvement through comments and observations, and raising interest through the question-answer model. Some students observed that their participation in a panel discussion had helped them become more self-confident speakers. Shy and quiet students regarded the filling in of the audience hand-out as a good opportunity to express their thoughts. They were also motivated to pose questions to the panellists. It thus seems that impromptu stimulus may generate a much higher level of creativity. Overall, class participation was found to be much greater than in a traditional lecture and the students expressed their desire for panel discussions to be introduced in other courses.

The recorded disadvantages of panel discussions on one hand included the problem of over-dominant students and their quite aggressive performance and, on the other, the insufficient engagement of some students and their learning by heart which consequently contributed to the relatively poor performance of the group. The time limit was a cause of embarrassment and nervousness for a few students. These disadvantages will be considered further and preventive steps will be taken in the future, e.g. new preparatory activities may be carried out to foster team building.

5. CONCLUSION

To sum up, given the targeted objectives and competencies, the implementation of panel discussions has proved to be a highly effective method in the teaching of ESP to my students of Social Informatics, Marketing and Public Relations and Policy Analysis and Public Administration. Although their implementation was constrained by a limited time frame, the students perceived some positive outcomes in terms of language acquisition as well as creating new cognitive processes that might ultimately lead to a new conceptualisation of oneself and the world at large.

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The effect of strategy instruction on listening comprehension examined through audio and video input

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Abstract: Having in mind the role that listening comprehension has in communication and the development of other language skills in language learning, there is a need for deepening our knowledge on the processes involved in this skill and the problems it poses to foreign language learners. This study aims to explore the effects of strategy instruction on the development of listening comprehension through two modes of presentation: video and audio input. The paper aims to present the framework for a longitudinal empirical classroom research which involves 80 students, divided into two groups, over a period of two university language courses. During the experiment both groups view the same videos and listen to the same audio recordings. However, the instruction for the experimental group involves systematic developing of listening strategies, while that of the control group does not focus on strategies. They use the content of the listening material for speaking and writing activities. Both types of input involve different genres: dialogues, lectures, and news reports. The difference between the students' pre-testing and post-testing results obtained at the end of the treatment will serve as the measure of improvement in listening comprehension in each group.

Key words: listening comprehension, strategies instruction, video input, audio input, genres.

1. INTRODUCTION

It is generally accepted that developing communicative competence is one of the most important goals in language teaching. Yet, having in mind that communication is a two-way process which implies interaction with another person, reaching this goal does not only involve developing speaking skill, but developing listening comprehension as well.

On the other hand, listening represents the main tool for acquiring foreign language with majority of people. Various studies have shown that comprehensible input is of crucial importance for language acquisition (Swain, 1995; Krashen, 1983). According to Rost (2002, 94) "a key difference between more successful and less successful acquirers relates in large part to their ability to use listening as a means of acquisition". Therefore, developing listening comprehension as a skill, on the one hand, but also as a channel for receiving language input on the other, should occupy an important place in language teaching.

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Having in mind the key role that listening comprehension has in communication and the development of other language skills in FL learning, there is a logical need for deepening our knowledge on the processes that make this skill, the problems it poses to FL learners and the ways they can master language input.

This paper is based on the classroom research that tries to investigate the efficiency of a listening comprehension instruction model on video and audio input. It is a longitudinal study which explores how listening strategies can contribute to the improvement of this skill, as well as whether there are differences in students' results with various types of input: video and audio.

The paper will briefly review a variety of research on listening comprehension, and then give the outline of the research in progress, focusing on the questions the answers to which should provide the basis for creating more effective listening instruction.

2. BACKGROUND

Despite the fact that listening comprehension is the least researched of all four language skills (Vandergrift, 2007), research related to it covers various issues: *cognitive research* (bottom-up and top-down processes), *linguistic research* (linguistic factors that contribute to listening comprehension), and *affective issues* (motivation and anxiety in listening) (Kurita, 2012).

Listening comprehension strategies research is related to the research of language learning strategies, which started in the 70s with the work of Joan Rubin (Rubin, 1975) who claimed that a model of 'a good foreign language learner' could be constructed by observing the strategies which successful foreign language learners use. Other research of strategies and techniques connected with successful foreign language learning followed (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990). As regards listening strategies, the taxonomy of cognitive, metacognitive and social affective strategies proposed by O'Malley and Chamot (1990) has become widely accepted.

For the past two decades studying language learning strategies has been an important issue in FL research. The findings of research into strategies for language learning and language use suggest that generally there is a positive correlation between strategy use and L2 proficiency (Chamot, 2005).

As for listening comprehension and the influence of the use of strategies, many authors today agree that the promotion of listening strategies through instruction leads to the development of listening comprehension (Flowerdew and Miller, 2005; Rost, 2002, Vandergrift, 2004).

However, the attempts to show in practice that teaching of strategies within listening comprehension instruction leads to the improvement of that skill have given different results. On the one hand, there have been studies dedicated to the understanding of the types of strategies that 'good' FL learners use and the differences in the implementation of strategies between successful and less successful strategies. These studies (Vandergrift, 1997a; 1997b, 2003) have shown that the more successful learners use a wider range of strategies more flexibly and frequently to complete the task compared to the less successful ones, as well as that higher level learners use sets of strategies in order to do it efficiently (Goh, 2002).

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In the research carried out by Thomson and Rubin (Thompson and Rubin, 1996) students who were exposed to strategy instruction showed considerable improvement at post testing through video input in comparison to the control group students who were not exposed to strategy instruction. It is important to note that the instruction focused on one or two strategies, and that the results were measured right after the language course. Although their research proved that strategy instruction leads to improvement in listening comprehension, they pointed to some limitations of their study. First, the instrument used for measuring listening comprehension (audio test) did not mirror the process of instruction (video input). Apart from that, the time used for strategy instruction was relatively short.

On the other hand, there have been concerns regarding learning strategy instruction and its value. For example, Field claims that instruction of individual strategies does not necessarily have to lead to improvement of listening comprehension (Field, 2001). According to him, strategy use depends on an individual's temperament, and focusing on individual listening strategies in instruction may encourage the use of those strategies but may not necessarily lead to the improvement in overall listening performance.

According to Ridgway (2000, 183) 'listening is the engagement of the listener with the text. When this engagement is complete, there is no cognitive capacity remaining for conscious strategies to operate'. If we accept that L2 students do not have the cognitive capacity to consciously activate strategies and listen simultaneously, then isolating individual listening strategies for direct instruction makes little sense.

Chen (2005) explored the difficulties or barriers that EFL students face while acquiring listening comprehension strategies during a program. She found that learners come across barriers that prevent them from acquiring listening comprehension strategies during strategy training. These barriers are associated with affective, habitual, information-processing, English proficiency, strategic, belief and material factors.

Cross (2009) investigated the effectiveness of metacognitive strategies instruction for fifteen Japanese advanced-level learners. The result did not indicate an important difference in favour of the experimental group: both groups made significant gains.

Finally, having in mind the fact that more successful students combine several strategies simultaneously (Vandergrift, 2003), Vandergrift and Tafaghodtari, (2010) point out that there is still no proof of the long-term benefits of strategies instruction when *individual* strategies are taught to students. Instead, they propose a metacognitive cycle on which they base the instruction in their experiment. Their investigation of a pedagogical approach to L2 listening focused on the long-term development of strategic listening. Instead of being taught individual strategies once, their learners were taught how to use multiple strategies during listening practice over a semester.

3. THE STUDY

The model of listening instruction represented in this study relies on sets of strategies of listening comprehension which will be implemented for the period of two academic years, i.e. two courses of English for specific purposes within the studies of economics. Listening comprehension is

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taught and tested on audio and video input. The represented genres in both types of input are those of importance for the students of economics: radio and TV news, lectures, and dialogues in business situations.

The decision to include both types of input, video and audio, in teaching and testing of listening comprehension is based on the students' needs analysis: in some international tests of English audio input, and not video, is still used in listening comprehension tasks. The fact that a number of students often choose to continue their studies in English after they graduate means that they need to have a certificate of English proficiency. Therefore, it is important for them to become accustomed to that kind of listening comprehension tests during the language course. On the other hand, video input reflects the real language use. Development of digital video and broadband technology has created abundance of authentic videotexts that represent rich linguistic and cultural material. Since students are very likely to watch and listen to the news or other material on the internet, listening comprehension practice in class relying on video input would prepare them for these situations and enable them to use strategies for decoding verbal and non-verbal communication.

The aim of the research is to test a model of listening comprehension instruction in English, with a special emphasis on the implementation of listening comprehension strategies on video and audio input. The efficiency of this model will be empirically tested and proven by measuring the students' results after two language courses, and by comparing them to their pre-testing results. A comparison of the course level (B1) with common examinations indicates that the participants are likely to be at band scale 4.5 - 5 for IELTS.

The research aims at answering the following questions:

1. Do students exposed to listening comprehension strategies instruction show better results on listening comprehension tests with audio or video input, or the nature of input is not important?
2. If there is improvement in listening comprehension due to strategies instruction, with which genres is it most prominent: the news, lectures or dialogues?
3. Do students who are not exposed to listening comprehension strategies instruction show improvement in their post-testing results in relation to their pre-testing results, and if they do, are the results better with audio or video input?
4. Does anxiety related to this skill in a foreign language decrease with the students who are exposed to listening comprehension strategies instruction?

4. METHODOLOGY AND PROCEDURE

The first phase of the research involves the analysis of the previous theoretical and empirical knowledge on the implementation of strategies in FL learning in general, and in listening comprehension skill in particular. The second phase, which is currently in progress and is planned to finish at the end of this term, involves the design and implementation of a listening comprehension instruction model in English as a foreign language, as well as the experimental

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verification of the efficiency of the model. The third phase will include data analysis, drawing conclusions and possible implications for listening comprehension instruction.

Empirical research is currently being conducted on a group of 80 students of Graduate School of International Economics who study business English at intermediate level (B1 – according to CEFR). The students are divided into two groups, the experimental one (EG), whose instruction focuses on the use of strategies in listening comprehension, and the control group (CG), with which this is not the case. (i.e. whose instruction does not involve listening comprehension strategies). The focus of the instruction is not teaching of individual comprehension strategies, but the systematic practice in L2 listening, i.e. the integrated instruction of a range of strategies to equip L2 learners for real-life listening. The students are divided into groups randomly. The instruction lasts two academic courses (2 x 15 weeks), 60 classes of direct instruction each (2 x 60 = 120 classes of instruction in total). Both groups thus have four 45-minute classes per week, use the same textbook and teaching material, and are taught by the same teacher. Both groups watch and listen to the same video and audio material in the duration of 15 minutes per class, receiving thus about 30 hours of listening comprehension instruction during both courses. The results will be tested after 120 classes.

The experimental group curriculum focuses on the development of listening comprehension, while the curriculum for the control group focuses on the video and audio material content as the basis for writing and speaking activities. There is no guided attention to listening strategies in their instruction. All students, the participants in the research, were pre-tested at the beginning of instruction and will also be post-tested after the second course on video and audio material.

The course material is drawn from the BBC's internet news website and other similar websites¹ whose copyright conditions permit the use of content when it is for non-commercial use. Having in mind that input covers different genres, the instruction model and the strategies to be taught are selected to correspond to the characteristics of each genre used. In order to get a selection of listening strategies the discourse characteristics typical of news videotexts, lectures and dialogues have been identified by examining the texts used in this study. Thus, the challenges related to the characteristics of news video texts taken into consideration are: unfamiliar patterns of discourse, unfamiliar vocabulary, speech rates, syntactic structures, a high density of facts, discrepancies between aural and visual information or disorienting visual cuts.

As for lectures and dialogues used as input, the problems may arise because of insufficient background knowledge, no opportunity to negotiate meaning, unfamiliar accents or cultural forms. The strategy instruction model used in the study is carefully planned, and moves from the stage in which the teacher is directly involved, to a stage in which a teacher's participation minimizes, leaving students to implement the strategies autonomously. It is based on the example given by Mendelsohn (1994, 41-42):

- After analyzing factors that may affect comprehension, the teacher exposes students to the material and checks whether or not they already use any listening strategies;

¹ www.bbc.co.uk/radio; www.bbc.co.uk/radio/podcasts; www.bbc.co.uk/worldservice/learnenglish; learningenglish.voanews.com; www.cnn.com; www.cbsnews.com; www.euronew.net; www.esl-lab.com; www.cdlponline.org;

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- The teacher determines suitable strategies (cognitive, metacognitive and social-affective) for instruction and considers activities through which they can be taught;
- The teacher prepares pre-listening, while-listening and post-listening materials and exercises;
- The teacher conducts integrated strategy instruction, and provides practice and feedback;
- The teacher evaluates the instruction and revises it if necessary;
- The teacher encourages self-evaluation and autonomous use of listening strategies.

The listening instruction model applied in this study is based on long-term development of strategic listening. Instead of being taught individual listening strategies, students are taught clusters of strategies appropriate for fulfillment of a particular task. The pedagogical cycle used is taken from Vandergrift (2004), and Vandergrift, and Tafaghodtari (2010) and involves the stages as given in Table 1:

Table 1 Stages of listening instruction and underlying metacognitive processes, (Vandergrift, 2004)

Pedagogical stages	Metacognitive processes
<i>Pre-listening: planning / predicting stage</i>	
1. After students have been informed of the topic and text type, they predict the types of information and possible word they may hear.	1.Planning and directed attention
<i>First listening: first verification stage</i>	
2. Students verify their initial hypotheses, correct as required, and note additional information understood.	2. Selective attention, monitoring and evaluation
3. Students compare what they have understood / written with peers, modify as required, establish what will needs resolution, and decide on the important details that still require special attention.	3. Monitoring, evaluation, planning, and selective attention
<i>Second listening: Second verification stage</i>	
4. Students verify points of earlier disagreement, make correction, and write down additional details understood.	4.Selective attention, monitoring, evaluation, and problem solving
5. Class discussion in which all class members contribute to the reconstruction of the text's main points and most pertinent details, interspersed with reflections on how students arrived at the meaning of certain words or parts of the text.	5.Monitoring, evaluation, and problem solving
<i>Third listening: final verification stage</i>	

6. Students listen specifically for the information revealed in the class discussion which they were not able to decipher earlier.	6. Selective attention, monitoring, and problem solving
<i>Reflection stage</i>	
7. Based on the earlier discussion of strategies used to compensate for what was not understood, students write goals for the next listening activity.	7. Evaluation, planning

5. THE EXPECTED RESULTS

The starting hypothesis that systematic implementation of strategies in listening comprehension can contribute to the improvement of this skill is currently being tested. The difference between pretest and posttest scores in favour of the experimental group will serve as a measure of improvement in listening comprehension with these students as a result of the implementation of strategy instruction. Should these results be obtained and statistically confirmed, and the proposed model of listening comprehension instruction proved effective, it could be further developed for other ESP genres and integrated into the listening comprehension syllabus for lower and higher levels of language learning.

Finally, the answer to the question whether anxiety related to FL listening comprehension decreases with the students exposed to listening comprehension strategies instruction will be obtained by analyzing the results of the questionnaire which students will complete at the end of the instruction period. These results will be compared with the students' views on listening comprehension recorded at the beginning of the experiment. Possible changes in their perception of the progress in the skill, if obtained, could be explained by the influence of the listening comprehension instruction model.

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New Voices in an Old Song

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Abstract: “If meaning is not the main component, dominant feature of translation, then what is left behind of the translated text? Words, sentences or the way they are uttered, that is, the style?” asks W. Benjamin. Thus points to a very old and ideal translation formula, indeed, to a hypothesis that was accepted as the ideal translation maxim before him and states that forerunners suggested, to make a good translation, fidelity and freedom: the freedom of rendering in accord with the meaning, and in its service, fidelity in opposition to the word. However, this is a contradictory statement for the translator might not be fidel to the style if s/he is free to convey the meaning as s/he wants because style, in the original language, has a different sort of relation with meaning and content. The said relation might not be constructed in the target language in the same way. In other words, since style will not be the same in different languages, fidelity to it will mean turning one’s back to the meaning from the very beginning.

The argument that the textuality of a translated text should be measured against its original requires that a text of one language community should be translated as a text in another. Therefore, a theoretical framework applicable to translation should be a study that can account for textual factors both in the original and the target languages. Through employing text-linguistics translation approach, which is basically concerned with the text, not as a chain of separate sentences, but as a complex, structured whole and takes texts and macro-structures as translation units, it might be possible to see how much the original and translated texts display equivalence and if there are any discrepancies between them and whether they are the result of intra or interlingual features. Text-linguistics translation approach will surely help broaden the horizon of the translator who plays the role of the reader in the source language and the writer in the target one.

Key words: translation, translator, translator’s task, text-linguistics, textuality

1. INTRODUCTION

The era we are in is called as the age of translation and it is suggested translation activities carried out now are historically unprecedented (Nida, 1964; Göktürk, 2012). As such there have been many attempts to theorize the practice of translation up to now especially since the 20th century, and the prevailing one posits that translation is, in the Saussurean sense, not rendering language but speech – *parole*-, that is, the use of language. And translator is the one who recreates the original message of the source language through a text in the target language. From a holistic point of view, translation is a process determined by the interaction of numerous factors and conditions with different and most of the time interrelated features. One of the most significant factors, the source text (translated) is conditioned within a cultural and communicative background: it entails a language community and a specific type of text decoders. Similarly, the target text (translation) is also conditioned within another cultural and communicative background: here is mentioned the relation between another language

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community and text decoders. The third, translator assumes the responsibility of rendering the source text into the target one through equivalences.

Every language user creates their text in a specific community, culture and time. Any text is, first of all, created for those speaking the same language, who if not much, but have enough information that might help comprehend it as they share the same culture or who might reach first-hand information to do so. However, the translator is a foreigner to the text as far as social, historical and cultural bases are concerned. In other words, the producer of the original text is free to reach the language of their own and thus all the contexts as well while the translator has to define themselves through the said contexts the writer creates and let alone to be in, s/he is against them. So, the translator is to invite the original text into a foreign language, to show it a seat and on that very seat to make the content of the original one reverberate. That means that as the creator's and translator's intentions towards the text are completely different from the very beginning, their approaches will be, too (Ener, 2002). Within this light, the translator has a twofold task: to decode the outer surrounding of the text and synthesize it with intra-lingual features.

2. WHAT IS IT TO "TRANSLATE"?

One of the most quoted models of the communication process since the mid-20th century has been that of Roman Jakobson. According to Jakobson (1960), in every concrete speech act, namely, in text production, the addresser sends a message to the addressee; the message uses a code; the message has a context (or referent) and is transmitted through a contact (a medium such as live speech or writing). What is of paramount importance in here is that the addresser and the addressee share the same code that is known to both. In other words, communication takes place in an environment where there are common signs and rules for the sender and the receiver of the message. However, in translation process, the translator intervenes in between the addresser and the addressee and decodes the message first. At this very point one of fundamental rules of communication is violated: the receiver of the translated text does not share the same code with that of the original one. Hence, it is the task of the translator to fill in this gap. As Benjamin (1921) has stated;

The translator's task consists in this: to find the intention toward the language into which the work is to be translated, on the basis of which an echo of the original can be awakened in it. Here we encounter a characteristic of translation that decisively distinguishes it from the poetic work, because the latter's intention is never directed toward language as such, in its totality, but solely and immediately toward certain linguistic structuring of content. However, unlike a literary work, a translation does not find itself, so to speak, in middle of the high forest of the language itself; instead, from outside it, facing it, and without entering it, the translation calls to the original within, at that one point where the echo in its own language can produce a reverberation of the foreign language's work.

It seems plausible to say, then, that culture plays an inevitable role in the communicative situation. Culture is "what everyone knows, and part of this knowledge is conversational competence" (Stubbs 1983). It can be suggested that language is embedded in the culture due to the shared knowledge. To put it differently, as a mediator, the translator functions as text receptor in the first place by trying to understand and capture the message of the source text. During this phase, the translator is bound to the source text requirements that s/he tries to decode appropriately. However, at the next stage, that of the reverberalization, s/he realizes that a mere transfer of the source text is not only impossible but also undesirable, if the translation is supposed to be used as a communicative tool in the target context (Bernardo, 2008).

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Eugene Nida (1964: 120) states that the production of equivalent messages is a process of matching different part of speech, but also reproducing "the total dynamic character of the communication". That is, the text and the context have to be considered. So it makes sense to say that specific textual manifestation entailing particular treatment by the translator conditions the translation. The movement a translated text undergoes (Pym 1992) – from the source to the target language, culture and audience with different background knowledge, expectations and communicative needs – comprises syntactic, semantic and pragmatic restraints. To put it bluntly, the transfer that is operated when a text gets translated is of a particular kind. First, the source text goes on belonging to the source text world; it does not give up its existence there. Yet a translated text is not a free text production as any other text, but rather a "text induced text production" (Neubert, 1992), thus bounding to certain constraints that prevail in the target context.

The message relies on the text and the context to interact and thus produce meaning. Language and context are based on the culture and its sign systems in which the text is created. As a sign system language is a cultural vehicle reflecting the society and its values where communicative action is carried out. It is a well-established fact that non-linguistic signs as a part of the context also determine the cultural framework linguistic signs function in. As such the task of the translator is to find a translation theory to deal with cultural aspects in the transference of sign meaning into a target language.

3. TRANSLATOR'S TASK

Translation presents the translator with challenges and problems specific to the discourse such as its function, and cultural elements represented by signs used to convey a message. The message consists of two different aspects: (1) the signal, including all the formal features of the message; and (2) the content, that is the meaning of the signal. Together with these the channel must also be considered: whether it is in spoken or written form or a combination of both (Nida 1964: 122). The aim is to find a translation theory that would meet the functional requirements of texts, and transfer cultural elements in the source language to the target language, and thus achieve the same effect on the target receivers as on the original receivers (Bezuidenhout, 1998).

It should be noted that what is sought in translation process is not necessarily the same meaning but the same effect. That is to say, translation is not merely rendering the meaning of the original text into the target one. Therefore, it would be misleading to connect translation with the original text through analogy. Translation has to form some kind of kinship with the original one and we know well that all analogous relations do not necessarily mean kinship. So what is supposed to be seen in translation then? What is it to be transferred to the translation from the original text? In Benjamin's words (1921), if the reproduction of meaning is no longer the criterion, what is left behind of the translated text? Is it words, sentences or the way they are uttered, that is, the style? Here Benjamin points to a very old and ideal translation formula, indeed, to a hypothesis that was accepted as the ideal translation maxim before him and states that forerunners suggested, to make a good translation are necessary fidelity and freedom: the freedom of rendering in accord with the meaning, and in its service, fidelity in opposition to the word. These are the old, traditional concepts in every discussion of translation. They no longer seem useful for a theory that seeks in translation something other than the reproduction of meaning.

However, this is a contradictory statement for the translator might not be fidel to the style if s/he is free to convey the meaning as s/he wants because style, in the original language, has a different sort of relation with meaning and content. The said relation might not be constructed in the target language in the same way. In other words, since style will not be the same in different languages, fidelity to it will mean turning one's back to the meaning from the very beginning. The relation between the original

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text and translation might be illustrated through two metaphoric examples by Benjamin (1921). The first being a tangent and a circle:

Just as a tangent touches a circle fleetingly and at only a single point, and just as this contact, not the point, prescribes the law in accord with which the tangent pursues its path into the infinite, in the same way a translation touches the original fleetingly and only at the infinitely small point of meaning, in order to follow its own path in accord with the law of fidelity in the freedom of linguistic development.

The second is about fragments of a vessel: just as fragments of a vessel, in order to be fitted together, must correspond to each other in the tiniest details but need not resemble each other, so translation, instead of making itself resemble the meaning of the original, must lovingly, and in detail, fashion in its own language a counterpart to the original's mode of intention, in order to make both of them recognizable as fragments of a vessel, as fragments of a greater language. For that very reason translation must in large measure turn its attention away from trying to communicate something, away from meaning; the original is essential to translation only insofar as it has already relieved the translator and his work of the burden and organization of what is communicated.

To sum up, what is translated from one text to another is not the meaning but communicative factors. As it is not possible to define the text only for its linguistic features, the effort to find linguistic equivalence of the source text in the translated one is bound to be a futile attempt. As such a working translation theory should put forward necessary means and criteria for a complete practice of translation not only from linguistic but also from semiotics and communicative dimensions.

4. TEXTLINGUISTICS TRANSLATION APPROACH

There have been various approaches to the concept of textuality in the last couple of decades. Starting from the sixties to seventies, it was either limited to a grammatical perspective based on syntactical sequence and cohesion or to a semantic view drawing on informativity and coherence. The following two decades saw the predominance of such features as intentionality and situationality and recently cognitive procedures have come to stand in the forefront, basically suggesting that text production is a result of internalized and inferred knowledge. Considering the characteristics of translation, and the convergence of conflicting factors that affect translator's decisions in carrying out both text understanding and text production tasks, a comprehensive model of textuality is required that enables the translator to tackle with a multiplicity of variables and to establish an hierarchy among them. The translator is supposed to be aware of the mutual dependence and possible divergences between the concretion of each textuality feature, apart from the recognition of similarities involved in source and target discourse orders (Bernardo, 2008). Regarding the topic, Gideon Toury (1980: 12) explains translation as:

The type of process which I have in mind involves transfer operations performed on one semiotic entity, belonging to a certain system, to generate another semiotic entity, belonging to a different system. In other words, this category of processes is inter- (or, rather, cross-) systemic.

A particular culture (say Turkish) would represent one semiotic entity or system, which would also incorporate linguistic and non-linguistic elements. So, translating any verbal or written text from Turkish to any other culture would then entail the transfer of signs between two systems (Bezuidenhout, 1998). According to Toury (1980: 12) the transfer situation involves certain

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relationships: between each one of the two entities and the system within which it is situated; and between the two entities themselves. In translation that means (i) the signs in the target text should be acceptable to the users in that sign system –that is culture, and (ii) the meaning (and thus the message) generated by the signs in the target text should create an equivalent effect on the receivers as on the source text ones.

Translation addresses aspects of communication and is concerned with the use, interpretation and manipulation of messages, that is of signs. Traditional approaches have so far mainly dealt with the linguistic aspect of phrases and/or sentences and abstained from dealing with larger segments like texts. Recently textlinguistics has moved a step forward and studied production, transmission, exchange and interpretation of messages consisting in one or more signs. The approach is based on the Saussurean assumption that all words represent signs, because they can generate meaning; they do not necessarily have meaning on their own. It seems plausible then to suggest that translation is not language-based but sign-based: it deals with the transference of signs systems: verbal and nonverbal. This view is supported by Gorfée (1994: 13) who states:

A point of departure of semiotic linguistics is the Saussure-based claim that all language is a system, a coherent semiotic structure, and that consequently, all text can be described and analyzed semiotically.

Thus in translation of any text from one language to another the sign, object, and interpretation should first be comprehensively analyzed and then manipulated in such a way that the receiver gets the specific message of the original text. Knowledge gained by textlinguistics approach studies gives the translator a better understanding of the text s/he deals with, in other words how different elements and parts work together as a discourse to perform a certain function and thus a message and effect on the text receiver.

5. CONCLUSION

The translator is supposed to find a balance and provide his readers with inference signs that might allow adequate interpretation of what is conveyed by the translated text through assessing the distance between the source and the target contexts, between the text producer's communicative intentions and the target text reader's expectations, through his text-decoding competence and his readiness to get the producer's intended meaning. This task demands some skill on the part of the translator, as the communicative value, which involves both the semantic and pragmatic meaning with all its allusions, symbolism and connotations.

The argument that the textuality of a translated text should be measured against its original requires that a text of one language community should be translated as a text in another. Therefore, a theoretical framework applicable to translation should be a study that can account for textual factors both in the original and the target languages. Through employing text-linguistics translation approach, which is basically concerned with the text, not as a chain of separate sentences, but as a complex, structured whole and takes texts and macro-structures as translation units, it might be possible to see how much the original and translated texts display equivalence and if there are any discrepancies between them and whether they are the result of intra or interlingual features. Text-linguistics translation approach will surely help broaden the horizon of the translator who assumes a double identity: the reader in the source language and the writer in the target one.

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A. Chitty, J. McCarney, F. Füredi, G. Elliot, K. Graham, P. Casal, J. Bidet, A. Callinicos, C. Hitchens, M. Hyder into Turkish.

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Project Work in ESP

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Abstract: One of the greatest difficulties which every ESP teacher faces is how to bridge the gap between language learning and its application. Namely, students often complain that they gain extensive theoretical knowledge of English in courses, but that they lack the ability to apply the knowledge in real life. On the other hand, it is easy for teachers to see that students' receptive skills (reading and listening) are far more developed than the productive ones (writing and speaking). In the theoretical part of this paper, we examine how project-based learning can be used to bridge this gap and point out the main advantages and some potential disadvantages of using project work in ELT. We also describe the main types of projects and the main stages of project work. The practical part presents a case study of project work used in a typical Serbian ESP setting. Bearing in mind that every ESP setting is unique, we have described the most important factors which helped us decide on the most appropriate kind of project in this particular ESP context, hoping that this will help other ESP teachers decide what type of project work is the most appropriate for their students. Different stages of carrying out the project designed for this particular ESP course are described as well as some potential problems which might arise in each phase. We conclude by recommending other ESP teachers to include project work in their syllabus.

Key words: project-based learning, ESP, learner autonomy, productive skills, lifelong learning

1. INTRODUCTION

For most students the ESP course they have at university is the final stage of their language learning, after which they should be able to use the English language fluently and effectively for academic and professional purposes. Unfortunately, in many cases there is a gap between students' receptive skills (reading and listening) and productive skills (writing and speaking). The aim of this paper is to examine how project-based learning can be used to narrow this gap. We also explore how project work can function "as a bridge between using English in class and using English in real life situations outside of class" (Fried-Booth, 1997). It is divided into two parts – theoretical and practical. The first one presents the most significant features of project work described in the literature, focusing on both advantages and disadvantages of using project work in ELT. It also provides an overview of different types of projects according to the main activity and the stages of project work as given by Sheppard and Stoller (Sheppard and Stoller, 1995).

The second part presents a case study of the project work used at the Faculty of Chemistry, with a description of a typical Serbian ESP setting and the most important factors (such as students' long-term language needs, their interests, the educational reform going on in our country, the time available, etc.) which influenced the kind of project used in this course. We describe the main stages

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of the project and give advice to other teachers who might be interested in including project work in their courses on what to do in each phase of project work.

2. PROJECT WORK

2.1 Project work in ELT - pros and cons

The reasons for including project-based learning in ELT are manifold. First of all, it encourages the simultaneous acquisition of language, content and skills. It “establishes a direct link between language learning and its application” (Legutke and Thomas 1991: 214). “A foreign language can often seem a remote and unreal thing. This inevitably has a negative effect on motivation, because the students don’t see the language as relevant to their own lives.” (Hutchinson 1991: 11) By doing project work students deal with challenging, real-world subject matters and its cross-curricular character provides them with an opportunity to use knowledge gained in other courses. This does not mean that language is neglected in project work. On the contrary, a well-designed project “can accommodate a purposeful and explicit focus on form and other aspects of language” (Alan and Stoller 2005: 11).

Secondly, the main idea behind project work is learner autonomy, which is one of the central themes in ELT since it aims at preparing students for lifelong learning through the ability to organise and direct their own learning inside and outside the school context. It encourages student responsibility in planning, developing and presenting the project. This results in increased autonomy, self-discipline and, ultimately, a more positive attitude towards learning English. Project work develops “learner independence skills such as making responsible choices, deciding how to complete tasks, getting information, trying things out, and evaluating results” (Phillips et al. 1999: 6-7), which can be particularly stimulating for adolescents.

Furthermore, it includes a set of goal-oriented tasks which provide students with a sense of continuity and it involves work in small groups and peer teaching, which most of them find very enjoyable.

One of the most important benefits of doing project work is that students are exposed to authentic English language materials and there is no doubt that authentic and comprehensible material promotes language acquisition. Project work prepares students to deal with authentic texts that they are expected to use in their current studies or future workplace.

Last but not least, projects provide an opportunity to do something different and entertaining. Working on projects brings variety to the course, which is very much needed since most university students have been learning English for more than ten years and have become bored with all types of language exercises, no matter how interesting they are.

However, it should be mentioned here that project work might have some drawbacks. Tom Hutchinson (Hutchinson 1992:16-17) mentions noise, lack of time, the use of mother tongue and mixed ability groups as the most typical ones. Noise and the use of mother tongue are expected when students work in groups and they do not hinder learning if the teacher stays in control. The teacher should try to deal with the problem of mixed ability groups by organizing students into well-balanced working groups. In this way, weak students will both benefit from peer teaching and relax since they do not have to use English in front of the whole group. As far as the lack of time is concerned, Hutchinson suggests that we reconsider our belief that students should spend as much time as possible practising a particular language item. “When choosing to do project work you are making a philosophical choice in favour of the *quality* of the learning experience over the *quantity*. It is unfortunate that language teaching has tended to put most emphasis on quantity, i.e. as much practice as possible of each language item. And yet there is little evidence that quantity is really the crucial

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factor. If it were, all of our students would leave school speaking English extremely well.” (Hutchinson 1991:16)

Furthermore, project work is sometimes considered merely a source of entertainment and an opportunity to avoid classroom activities. Students are often only interested in “the visual attractiveness of their project, paying little attention to content and language learning” (Alan and Stoller 2005: 11). Students who are not used to this approach to learning often complain that project work is not what they expect from a language course. Namely, a study conducted by Moulton and Holmes has shown that a certain number of students believed that language classes should be “limited to the study of grammar and vocabulary and they resented being asked to accomplish non-linguistic tasks” (Moulton and Holmes 2000: 28). This negative attitude towards project work in ESL can have a negative influence on project results.

On the other hand, project work can be very demanding for the teacher for several reasons. Firstly, it requires a lot of planning and extra-work since it is designed to suit the needs of each individual group. Secondly, the teacher needs to strike the right balance between teacher control and learner autonomy, which is often very difficult. As Sheppard and Stoller notice, project work is “more effective when teachers relax their control, when students regard the teacher as a guide” (Sheppard and Stoller 1995) since excessive teacher control inhibits students from taking responsibility for their own learning. However, the lack of teacher feedback and guidance during the process can be equally bad for the students since in those cases, students are left to themselves, without any supervision, support or instruction.

Last but not least, most teachers have never had any personal experience of project-based learning themselves, so implementing this methodology in their course might create difficulty for them.

2.2 Types of projects

Projects are usually classified according to the type of activity which students do during the project, the length of the project and the age of participants. We believe that the most relevant classification here is the one according to the main activity since most participants in ESP projects are young adults, and the length of the project is not strictly limited.

Legutke and Thomas (1993: 160-166) recognise three main types of projects which are typically used in ELT.

- **Encounter projects** – projects in which students get in touch with native speakers. The key feature of this type of project is face-to-face communication between students and native speakers. They are typically used as a part of a language course in an English speaking country, but they can be implemented in other contexts as well (e.g. by inviting a native speaker to the classroom).
- **Text projects** – projects in which students use various texts written by native speakers. There is a wide range of choice: literature, newspapers, internet, textbooks, magazines, etc. The main advantages of these projects are the use of authentic material and the fact that they can be implemented more easily than encounter projects.
- **Class correspondence projects** – projects in which communication is carried out through correspondence - classical letters, emails, video recordings, photos, etc.

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According to Simon Haines, there are four types of projects (Haines 1989: 1):

- **Information and research projects** in which students use information and data they have collected. Even though it is important that students do most of the research and collect the information themselves, the teacher should provide them with some basic reference materials.
- **Survey projects** in which students organise and conduct an investigation (e.g. the eating habits of people who live in their town, the causes of pollution...).
- **Production projects** in which students produce a special kind of final product (e.g. newspapers, radio-programme or a hotel guide).
- **Performance and organisational projects** in which students prepare an event or a performance (e.g. a talent show, a play or a British evening).

2.3 Stages in project work

Integrating project work into syllabus can be very demanding for teachers. A well-structured and prepared project can ease the tension and maximize the benefits. Even though each project is unique and requires a different approach, the following general steps outlined by Sheppard and Stoller (Sheppard and Stoller, 1995) will be very useful for organizing and developing most of them.

Step I: Define a theme. The initial step includes more than just selecting a theme since while doing this, students should also think and imagine what their future needs will be, discuss and negotiate the topic, and thus become more motivated and interested in the project.

Step II: Determine the final outcome. At this stage, the teacher and students agree on the final outcome of the project (e.g. a newspaper article, a report, a video, etc.) and its presentation (e.g. collective or individual). The focus is on content, but students should define what the outcome should be as far as language is concerned.

Step III: Structure the project. Once the theme and the final outcome are defined, students discuss and decide what steps they must take in order to achieve the final outcome. The teacher should set a time frame at this stage, help them organize by forming working groups and provide them with some basic reference materials.

Step IV: Identify language skills and strategies. Teacher should include language skills and strategies the students need for their project in the syllabus and work on them prior to project work. In this way, students will be well prepared for Steps V, VI, and VII. Nevertheless, it is always a good idea to raise students' awareness and discuss with them what language they will need in order to complete the project. Ask them what language skills they will need to gather information (Step V), help them develop strategies for systematic data collection such as creating a grid, making notes, etc. Teacher should also prepare students for compiling information they have gathered from several sources (synthesis writing), interpreting visual materials, etc. It is extremely important to identify the skills and strategies they will use when presenting the final project (Step VII) since productive skills (writing and speaking) are typically far less developed than the receptive ones. If students are well prepared for this step, they will be less anxious and will probably perform better.

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Step V: Gather information. At this stage students gather information they need either inside or outside the classroom, individually or in groups.

Step VI: Compile and analyze information. This stage includes compiling information and comparing, analyzing and organizing the data.

Step VII: Present the final product. For most students, this is the most interesting stage of project work since they get an opportunity to show their work to their peers or other interested parties. Depending on the type of project and the final form of the product, this stage might involve staging a debate, giving a presentation, submitting an article to a newspaper, screening a video, etc.

Step VIII: Evaluate the project. In the last stage of project work, students and the teacher think about the stages of the project work and the language, communicative skills, and information they have acquired in the process. They can discuss the value of their experience and express their opinion on the project. They can also suggest how the project could be improved.

3. PROJECT WORK IN AN ESP CLASSROOM

3.1 Background

At the Faculty of Chemistry, *English language* is an obligatory course for first year students and they attend three lessons per week during the second term. Project work in the form of a term paper and a presentation is an obligatory part of their ESP course.

When deciding on the most suitable type of project work, we took several factors into consideration. First of all, there was the need for language exercise in productive skills, i.e. writing and speaking. First year students do not have a clear picture of their future needs, but informal interviews conducted with their older fellow students provided us with some valuable insight into their future needs. They said that they used English when studying literature for the specialised courses since a significant amount of reading material was available only in English. They were expected to present the information in Serbian, so they learned (read) in English and presented (spoke) in Serbian. The interviews with subject area professors confirmed that students had to be able to read textbooks in English, but they also pointed out that a significant number of Chemistry students did some research after graduation, so they had to be able to present the results of their research both in writing (i.e. in a scientific journal) and orally (at a scientific conference). The factors which greatly influenced the type of project work in this setting were the size of groups, the level of students' knowledge and the time available for the completion.

The groups of students studying to become chemists, biochemists, environmental chemists and chemistry teachers are invariably mixed-ability groups. Most of them have graduated from grammar schools and have quite an advanced level of language proficiency. Some of them have also read scientific literature in English or attended international conferences at the Petnica Science Centre (a research centre very popular with high school students where they are encouraged to learn through research and which offers them a large number of scientific books in English). Others have extensively studied English for a number of years but they have not had the chemistry component in English. Last but not least, there is a third group of students who are from false beginner to pre-intermediate level and they really need to put in a lot of effort to catch up with the rest of the students trying to learn both

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general English and ESP. The groups are very large (up to 90 students) and in these particular circumstances, students cannot be streamed according to their levels or divided into smaller groups. However, even this cloud has a silver lining since this situation helps students to get used to difference in the level of proficiency they will most certainly experience in the 'real life arena'. Furthermore, they learn from their peers and become used to teamwork. In this particular case, project work can raise motivation of weak students through collaboration.

Another reason why this type of project was chosen was the implementation of the European Credit Transfer and Accumulation System (ECTS) at our Faculty. When creating courses, teachers were encouraged to include some activities prior to examinations (seminars, projects, practical work, self-study, etc.) and assign a certain number of credits to them. In that sense, including project work in the ESP syllabus proved to be an excellent idea since it provided students with an opportunity to "earn" a certain number of credits before the final exam. The workload (the time students typically need to complete the activity) and learning outcomes (what a learner is expected to know, understand and be able to do after successful completion of a process of learning) were defined based on so-called average students, i.e. the ones who have an average knowledge of English. Another idea promoted by the Bologna Process is lifelong learning, and we believe that the experience which students gain by doing project work is an excellent way to introduce students to this idea and to develop learner autonomy since project work encourages students to become responsible for their own learning and become aware of the learning process.

As mentioned above, the time available for the project completion was limited since the entire course lasted for 15 weeks and students had three lessons per week, i.e. 45 lessons altogether. Therefore, it seemed wise to organize students into working groups and set them tasks which they would complete when it was convenient for them.

3.2 Project work with chemistry students

Here we describe the main stages of a project developed for first year students at the Faculty of Chemistry. We have opted for an information and research project for the reasons given above. The main goal of the month-long project is to develop students' writing and speaking skills in order to prepare them for future academic and professional demands. The expected outcomes are:

- the ability to collect relevant information using various data-collection techniques;
- the ability to engage in critical thinking activities, particularly synthesis activities;
- improved language skills;
- improved learner autonomy, teamwork and responsibility.

The project, structured following the eight steps given by Sheppard and Stoller (Sheppard and Stoller 1995), is described below. Bearing in mind the number of participants and the fact that the term paper topics varied, only general features of each stage are given.

Step 1 Defining the theme

At this stage, students become familiar with the idea of project work and what they are expected to do since it is very likely that most of them have never had any experience of project work. The teacher elicits ideas, discusses them with students and finally makes a list of topics from which students can choose. This stage can be very tricky for ESP teachers since they are not experts in the

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field which the students study, so even though they have achieved a passive understanding of the students' field, I strongly recommend that they stick to the topics with which they are familiar and limit the number of topics. The topics should be "researchable" and motivating and we are sure that such topics can be found in all fields. In this case, I tried to motivate students of all four study programmes (*Chemist, Biochemist, Environmental Chemist* and *Chemistry Teachers*) by offering them a limited number of topics from their field which they might find interesting and appealing (for example *Haemoglobin, Aflatoxin M1 in human body, Date rape drug*, etc. for the students of biochemistry). In this particular case, the teacher did not have to do a lot of studying on her part since her students were freshmen who did not have advanced knowledge of chemistry and they were delighted to write about these topics since they had already done some research and written term papers in other courses and were eager to explore the same topics in English. For example, students from the study programme *Environmental Chemist* suggested topics which were very similar – *Air pollution, Water pollution, Soil pollution, The effects of radiation on human organism* (particularly after the nuclear power plant accident in Fukushima) – since they had covered these topics with their environmental chemistry teachers.

Step 2 Determining the final outcome

Since we had been obliged to define the outcome (a term paper followed by a presentation) long before the course started, it was not possible to introduce many changes in this phase. However, students should be given some choice here as well, particularly as far as the presentation of the project is concerned. So some of them presented their project using a PowerPoint Presentation, while others presented their findings by giving a lecture to their fellow students. There was a group of students who conducted an experiment while commenting on it. The key thing is to get them to practise speaking and writing while giving them as many options as possible.

Step 3 Structuring the project

At this stage, students need to answer the following questions: What information do you need for this project? Where and how can you find the information? What steps do you need to take before actually writing a term paper? Nowadays, students tend to avoid library research and rely on the Internet while gathering information. The teacher should explain that, though extremely useful in research, not all information found on the Internet is valid and that books and scientific journals provide more reliable information.

Once the students have a clear picture of what they need for the project, the teacher helps them organise into working groups with up to five members. The groups have to be well balanced, so they should include both advanced and weak students. This arrangement enables weak students to benefit from peer teaching.

Step 4 Identifying language skills and strategies

Since students did project work at the end of their ESP course, they had already acquired most of the language needed for the project. However, the teacher spent a lot of time preparing them for the next three stages since they were expected to work on their own. This included preparing them for collecting and analyzing information (skimming, scanning, note taking, making grids and charts, etc.). For most of them, that was the first time they used authentic material, so some of them needed some extra encouragement. Namely, they did an exercise in contextual guessing designed in order to encourage the students intimidated by authentic material. Contextual guessing is inferring meaning

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from the context. In this particular case, students drew on their chemistry knowledge in order to guess the meaning of a word. It was very important to explain the theory behind the guessing to students so that they were aware of what they were doing and to teach some strategies which were useful in this kind of guesswork, such as working out what part of speech the word was and using one's knowledge of word formation in order to guess the meaning of the new word. Here are some example sentences which helped boost my students' confidence and showed them that they did not have to "know all the words" in order to understand a text. They were expected to guess the meaning of the word in bold type.

The most **abundant** element in the universe is hydrogen, which makes up about 3/4 of all matter.

A substance that loses electrons becomes positively **charged**.

Metallurgy is the science of extracting metals from their **ores**.

Car **exhaust** gases are highly toxic because of their carbon monoxide content.

As far as writing was concerned, the teacher pointed out that the term paper should have a specific structure (an introduction, a main part and a conclusion) and references. It might seem redundant to remind them of something that they already know, but my experience has taught me that students must be constantly reminded to organize and structure their papers. Otherwise, they hand in poorly structured papers or papers without references, which is a serious mistake since we are trying to prepare them for conducting and reporting on some serious scientific research in the future. Furthermore, they might find it helpful to revise some connectors and other useful phrases which are typically used in scientific writing. In some cases, you can offer them sample term papers or show them the best term papers from last year.

Students claimed that the presentation would be the most demanding part of the project. In order to help them feel more relaxed and perform better, the teacher instructed them on how to give a presentation. They were reminded that they would have to introduce the topic, pay attention to the speed and volume of delivery, use signpost language, etc. They were warned to check the pronunciation of new words and not to rely on guesswork. The teacher pointed out that some words could be easily mispronounced under the influence of Serbian (*cink/, *kalcijum/, *hidrogen/). One of the problems was the lack of good specialised dictionaries with pronunciation. Most chemistry dictionaries list words and their meanings without pronunciation or sentences illustrating their use. Therefore, students were instructed to use the free online Talking Dictionary of English Pronunciation (<http://www.howjsay.com/>) where they found the pronunciation of rare compounds and words not normally included in specialised dictionaries.

Step 5 Gathering information

At this stage students conducted library and/or Web research as a part of data collecting process. In some cases, they also interviewed experts from the Faculty, an institute or a laboratory. Students had to gather information outside class-time since other components of the ESP course had to be covered. They had been advised to ask the teacher to give them a reference list for the topic if they felt lost in the sea of information on the Internet.

Step 6 Compiling and analyzing information

Students analyzed, organized and synthesised the information they had gathered in groups. They decided on what information to include in the term paper, how to organize it and wrote the paper

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using the information. They proofread each other's work, discussed the mistakes and corrected them. Since this part of project work was done outside the classroom, they sent their questions by email or came to see the teacher in person at the time appointed for consultations if they needed some extra help.

Step 7 Presenting the final product

In the final phase of the project students present their project to their fellow students. Some of them do this using a PowerPoint Presentation, while others feel more comfortable giving a lecture to their fellow students. As mentioned above, students get ECTS credits for their project work – 10 credits for the term paper and 10 credits for the presentation. No matter how enthusiastic they are about the project, this stage is always stressful for them. In order to reduce the level of stress, students were organized in such a way that they presented their project in small groups, always to the colleagues from the same study programme since it was easier for the audience to follow if the topics were familiar. One disadvantage of group work in this case was that weak students had not contributed to creating the final product as much as the more advanced ones. Nevertheless, each student had to present the entire product in order to be evaluated, i.e. in order to get the credits. This was time-consuming but it was the only way that we could prevent some students from getting their ECTS credits without investing any effort. Since they had known that they would have to present the product from the beginning of the project, they did their best to perform as well as their more advanced peers.

Step 8 Evaluating the project

At this stage, students were encouraged to discuss all projects, focusing on positive things – which presentation was the easiest to follow, which was the most interesting, which group had the best presentation, etc.

Finally, students were asked to discuss how useful this experience had been and whether it was relevant to their future vocational needs. There was a lot of positive feedback. Some of them said they had acquired both knowledge of the topic they had chosen, which was useful for their chemistry courses, and the language and skills needed to acquire and demonstrate that knowledge or, as one of them put it, they had killed two birds with one stone.

4. CONCLUSION

ESP teachers bear the responsibility of preparing their students for demands of their future jobs. However, no course can provide students with all the knowledge they will need later in life and the sooner both teachers and students realise this, the better. What we *can* do is design ESP courses which aim at developing learner autonomy, i.e. at providing them with a better understanding of themselves as learners, of the learning process and learning strategies. By doing this we foster lifelong learning and continuing professional development and educate generations of young experts who will be in a constant pursuit of knowledge. One way to create the thirst for knowledge in students and let them experience the feeling of achievement is to include project-based learning in an ESP syllabus. As we have seen, implementing project work in an ESP course can be very demanding for the teacher, but the advantages of project-based learning outweigh the disadvantages and the long-term benefits make the extra effort worthwhile. Even though the project work used at the Faculty of Chemistry may not be applicable to other ESP courses, its main features described in this paper (interesting and relevant

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topics, language acquisition embedded within learners' field of study, carefully designed and sequenced tasks and activities) could easily be transferred to other ESP settings.

We close by reminding ESP teachers of the thought by Clay P. Bedford which best expresses what we as educators strive to achieve and what, we believe, can be facilitated by including project work in ESP courses.

“You can teach a student a lesson for a day; but if you can teach him to learn by creating curiosity, he will continue the learning process as long as he lives.”

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CLIL LOTE in Higher Education: Benefits, Objectives and Challenges in Developing Communicative Competence

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Abstract: The study aims to provide insights into experimental research on Content and Language Integrated Learning for Languages Other Than English (CLIL-LOTE) developed to promote communicative competence in the context of Greek tertiary education, the department of Balkan Studies. The project which aimed at diversification and the promotion of a ‘CLIL- language’ other than English as a contribution to education for multilingualism and intercultural education investigated the effects of CLIL on students’ oral performance in the target language (TL) upon a teaching intervention of two academic terms. In addition, it aimed to identify whether CLIL instruction develops a more positive attitude towards FL and content learning. The adopted approach, which considered both content and language goals in the CLIL language - Russian, fully integrated the learning of both the TL and subject-specific content and showed that CLIL students learn better and are more motivated to learn than their peers in regular programs. The data provided support for the efficacy of implementing CLIL as the experimental group outperformed the control group in terms of both linguistic gains in oral production skills and content knowledge. Moreover, the teaching of content through Russian allowed the learners to adopt a wider perspective upon it.

Key words: CLIL, LOTE, Communicative competence, Higher Education

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 The CLIL Approach: An Introduction

Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) is an innovative approach involving the provision of curriculum content in a Foreign language (FL) which can be advantageous in terms of enhancing both subject-knowledge and proficiency in the FL as well as improving motivation (Stohler 2006; Dalton-Puffer 2007).

CLIL which is based on the integration of four main principles, the 4Cs, content, communication, cognition, and culture (Coyle 2008), is considered to facilitate the transformation of language learners into language users (Furlong 2012). Moreover, concerning its influence on the development of language attitudes, CLIL is believed not only to establish enhanced competence in the TL but also promote a ‘can do’ attitude towards FL learning in general, which can lead to an interest in learning further languages and to plurilingualism (Marsh 2000: 10). Research has shown that CLIL students learn more effectively and are more motivated to learn than their peers in regular programs while the teaching of content through a FL language allows them to develop a wider perspective upon it (Wolff 2007: 16).

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However, practical examples on organisation, implementation and development of CLIL courses are still mostly confined to the context of the English medium CLIL despite the fact that learning one lingua franca is not considered enough (European Commission 2005). In this respect, the promotion of Languages Other Than English (LOTE) has been declared to be among the key development areas for language education, aiming at diversification and as a contribution to education for multilingualism (European Commission 2005: 3).

1.2 A CLIL Approach to Oral Communication Skills Development

The aim of the present paper is to provide insights into experimental research on a CLIL LOTE project for oral communication skills development concerning modern Greek history and culture in the context of Greek tertiary education, the department of Balkan Studies.

By providing historical context, the course aims to foster a better understanding of the history of Greece during the 19th and 20th centuries with a focus on factors which have contributed to the development of its contemporary identity. More specifically, it aims to: a) raise the students' awareness concerning issues of objectivity in history; b) investigate the construction of a national identity; c) trace continuities and discontinuities in modern Greek history. In this context, the students were asked to work on tasks and report on extracts from a variety of primary sources in order to become skilled in processing texts as historical sources.

As for the realization of linguistic objectives in the TL, the following objectives were set concerning handling interaction, with the aim to provide practice in order to enable students to:

- understand, develop and communicate ideas and information;
- respond to main ideas and identify relevant information in discussions, lectures, and conversations on subject-specific topics;
- respond appropriately to speakers' attitude or point of view.

In relation to oral speech production, the focus of the syllabus was to:

- access, analyse, evaluate and use information from a variety of sources in order to give individual presentations on a range of subject-specific topics.

1.3 The Expected Learning Outcomes

The learning outcomes were linked to the aims and objectives of the syllabus (Matsumoto et al. 2010) and involved: a) acquiring subject-specific content knowledge; b) development of linguistic competence; c) skills and strategies development. In terms of language proficiency, the anticipated learning outcomes were defined to correspond to levels C1+ of the CEFR (2001).

Regarding measures of performance, the gains attained on the part of the students concerning dimensions of oral performance in the TL (accuracy, fluency and complexity in lexical resources and grammatical structures) were identified following the IELTS speaking band descriptors.

Moreover, as for the subject matter of the course, the students' performance was evaluated on the basis of students' competences, which involved: a) demonstration of a clear comprehension of the concepts presented in the course; b) familiarity with selected historical and cultural contexts; c) an understanding of the relevance of these ideas to the modern world.

2. THE RESEARCH PROJECT

2.1 The Research Tools

Experimental research was adopted by means of pre- and post-testing as well as random assignment of students into experimental and control groups (Mackay & Gass 2005). It involved administering an oral communication skills test reflecting the subject-specific content, Greek history and culture in the Russian language, to the experimental (N=27) and control group (N=24). The test, which took approximately 20 minutes to complete, served the purpose of a typical achievement test as it was intended to collect data which revealed how much of the adopted CLIL LOTE syllabus had been mastered. The test format, the skills assessed, the number of tasks included, time allocation and weighting are presented in Table 1.

Table 1.
 The CLIL LOTE Test for Oral Communication Skills

Task	Main Skill Focus	Type of Task – Input	Format/ Content	Time	Scoring Language	Scoring Content
Ice breaker	Responding to questions	Questions set by the interlocutor	Oral questions	approximately 2 min	not assessed	
A	Spoken Production	A 'mini-presentation' on a specialism related topic	Written stimulus from the task/ case description	2-3 min + 1 min preparation per 1 learner	Level of Performance scored by two raters (Interlocutor and Evaluator) on the basis of the IELTS scale of 1-9 and reported on band-level descriptors (1-9); assessment criteria focus on fluency and coherence, vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation.	Performance in subject-specific content knowledge identified according to the criteria set by the subject specialist on a scale from 1-9
B	Spoken interaction	Conversation between 2 students (asking & answering questions, expressing & justifying opinions, speculating, comparing, contrasting, agreeing & disagreeing, etc)	Written stimulus from the task/case description	About 3-5 min for both students		

Every effort was made to overcome the certain degree of subjectivity on behalf of the raters so that the assessment of oral communication skills presented a high inter-rater reliability; Pearson's r was 0.890 at pre-intervention, 0.925 at post-intervention and was statistically significant ($p < 0.001$).

Moreover, the qualitative research paradigm was employed. A reflective journal was kept providing in-depth information (Farrell, 2004) concerning the implementation of the experimental CLIL LOTE intervention for every one of the thirty three-hour sessions, 90 hours in total. Insights into the learners' attitudes towards the TL and the implementation of CLIL were provided through the interviews with students in two instructional contexts, CLIL and non-CLIL upon the completion of the second academic term.

These research paradigms acted complementarily and aimed to test the following hypotheses:

1. CLIL LOTE promotes better performance in terms of developing both oral communication skills in L2 and mastering subject-specific content in higher education.
2. CLIL instruction develops a more positive attitude towards L2 and content learning.

3. THE RESEARCH FINDINGS

The data verified these two hypotheses and provided support for the efficacy of implementing CLIL in higher education as the experimental group outperformed the control group in terms of both oral communication skills and content knowledge. The adopted approach, which considered both content and language goals in L2, showed that CLIL students learn more effectively and have a more positive attitude towards the TL than their peers in regular language programs.

3.1 Oral Communication Skills Development at the Pre- and Post-intervention Stage

Oral communication skills development was analyzed by means of ANOVA which indicated statistically significant interaction between the experimental and control group ($F(1,271) = 24.678$, $p < 0.001$) at the pre- and post-intervention stages. As shown in Table 2, both the experimental and control group achieved statistically significant progress in terms of speaking skills in result of the tuition they had been provided with during the teaching intervention.

Table 2.
 Comparison of Pre- and Post-intervention measurements per Group for Speaking Skills

Groups		Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Experimental	Speaking Pre	7.0 ^b	3.410	27
	Speaking Post	12.2 ^a	3.240	27
Control	Speaking Pre	6.4 ^b	3.601	24
	Speaking Post	9.1 ^a	3.001	24

*For each group, means followed by different letter are statistically significantly different, at significance level $\alpha = 0.05$, according to the LSD criterion.

Also, the two groups were not statistically significantly different at the pre-intervention measurement, which means that they were equivalent in terms of level of speaking competence in the baseline comparison. However, at the post-intervention measurement the experimental group was statistically significantly differentiated from the control group as the former succeeded in outperforming the latter (Table 2). In conclusion, the significance of the CLIL LOTE teaching intervention in terms of speaking skills development can be regarded as highly effective.

3.2. The Data from the Reflective Journal Entries

From the analysis of the extracts, four basic typologies emerged which reflected the teaching process, the teacher's role, the students' attitude, and the overall evaluation of the implementation of CLIL (Table 3).

Table 3.
 The Reflective Journal Data from the Teaching Intervention

Typologies	Categories	Subcategories
A. Teaching Process	1. Aim	Realization of the 4Cs of CLIL (Content - Cognition - Communication - Culture)
		Development of Content Knowledge (Modern Greek History and Culture)
		Development of Linguistic competence in the TL Russian
	2. Objectives	Development of content-based knowledge
		Development of linguistic skills
		Development of cognitive skills and strategies
		Development of social emotional skills and strategies
		Students' understanding of learning goals
	3. CLIL Techniques	Balanced content learning and language learning
		Use of authentic materials
		Multimodal input (i.e. written/spoken texts, graphics, statistics, videos)
		Use of various levels of thinking skills- LOTS & HOTS

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		i.e. Lower Order Thinking Skills & Higher Order Thinking Skills
		Provision of a variety of tasks
		Integrating the four skills
		Cooperative learning (e.g. pair work, group work)
		Provision of scaffolding in content and language
		Incorporation of elements of cross-cultural understanding and global issues
	<i>4. Implementation of CLIL lesson structure</i>	Input-Comprehension tasks
		Processing - Cognitive tasks
		Output - Production Tasks
	<i>5. The Language focus in CLIL lesson</i>	No structural grading
		Functional language dictated by the context of the subject
		Lexical rather than grammatical approach to language
	<i>6. Task Types</i>	Narrating describing historical events
		Analyzing, summarizing, explaining, and commenting on historical events
		Analyzing, summarizing, explaining, and commenting on historians' views
		Introducing, maintaining and bringing dialogues to an outcome
		Introducing, maintaining and bringing discussions to an outcome
		Brainstorming
		Verbalizing visual input
		Performing information gap activities
	<i>7. Teaching Aids</i>	Textbooks, articles
		Content based primary sources
		Photos, pictures, maps, diagrams
		Websites
		Films, Videos
		Photocopied Materials
	<i>8. Classwork</i>	Pair work
		Group work
Working individually		
Class as one group		
B. Teacher's Role	<i>9. CLIL Materials Provider</i>	Provide rich input in content and language.
		Provide well designed materials
		Provide tasks to support planned learning outcomes
		Provides tasks to involve students of different learning styles
		Adopt authentic material which reflect the student' learning needs
		Analyse content in terms of language needs
		Make use of visual, auditory and multimodal materials
		Provide cross-curricular tasks in cooperation with subject teachers
	<i>10. CLIL Lesson Implementation</i>	Place equal emphasis on content learning and language learning
		Stimulate content and language output.
		Provide rich opportunities for linking previous and new knowledge
		Approaching a topic from different perspectives
		Make content and language accessible by turning the students' passive

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		knowledge into explicit/active knowledge
		Promote researching topics independently and through cooperation with peers
		Use different methods appropriate for the teaching context
		Integrate language and skills -receptive and productive
		Learner styles are taken into account in task types
		Introduce team teaching-cooperation between language and content teacher
	<i>11. Managing the Learning Process</i>	Group management (maintaining a focus on time, task and noise levels, fostering student self-regulation skills)
		Giving instructions
		Managing interaction (whole class discourse; peer cooperative work)
		Enhancing communication (using clarification; checking for understanding; scaffolding; moving beyond questioning and answering)
	<i>12. CLIL Assessment</i>	Classroom-based assessment
		Encourage peer assessment
		Encourage self-assessment
		Assessment performed by the teacher
	<i>13. Communication in Class</i>	Use of target language (TL)
		Non verbal communication (facial expressions, gestures, imitation)
		Use of L1 to give instructions/ clarifications
C. Student's Attitude	<i>14. Students' Attitude toward the Project</i>	Overall positive - only moderate questioning of the projects merits
		Interest for inquiry- based learning activities
		Taking responsibility for learning outcomes
	<i>15. Participation in the Project</i>	Participation in collaborative tasks- pair group work
		Participation in designing and delivering presentations
		Participation in inquiry-based learning activities
		Participation in information processing tasks
	<i>16. Difficulties faced during the Project</i>	Difficulty concerning linguistic demands
		Difficulty concerning cognitive demands
		Difficulty in the receptive skills
		Difficulty in the productive skills
	<i>17. Difficulties concerning Oral Skills</i>	Difficulty to maintain flow of speech at times
		Language related hesitation while speaking
Content related hesitation while speaking		
Difficulty to comprehend lexical items		
Difficulty to employ a wide variety of lexical resources		
Difficulty to employ a wide range of structures		
Difficulty to make appropriate use of structures		
Difficulty to use tenses, passive voice, conditionals		
Difficulty in pronunciation at times		
D. Overall evaluation of the CLIL intervention	<i>18. Problems encountered During the Project</i>	Adult students' fixed beliefs concerning learning
		Adult students' previous learning experiences
		Students' anxieties
		Students' limited motivation

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		Cooperation problems among students
<i>19. Learning Outcomes</i>		Develop Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills-BICS
		Develop Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency –CALP
		Understand, develop and communicate ideas and information
		Respond to main ideas and identify relevant information in discussions, talks, conversations on study or specialism related topics
		Participate appropriately in academic, and professional settings
		Offer opinions on issues related to academic areas
		Respond appropriately to speakers' attitude or point of view
		Access, analyse, evaluate and use information from a variety of sources
	<i>20. Learning Skills: Cognition and Metacognition in the CLIL Context</i>	
		Describing, analysing, explaining, evaluating
		Foster higher-order thinking about language, content and learning skills
		Use content as a springboard for stretching thinking
		Identify and analyse cultural perceptions
		Developing productive cognitive habits
		Develop meta-cognitive awareness
<i>21. Broader Development of Values and Attitudes</i>		Fostering critical and creative thinking
		Raising metalinguistic awareness
		Fostering student autonomy
		Cooperation
		Self confidence
		Assuming responsibility for learning
		Positive attitude toward TL
		Self-acting in learning (using dictionaries, reading charts, maps, etc)
		Accepting and respecting diversity (cultural, linguistic, religious)
<i>22. Suggestions for the Improvement of the Teaching/ Learning Process</i>		Dealing with cooperation problems during group work
		Decreasing competition among students
		Better processing of information by students
		Limit the use of L1
		Enhancing students' self regulation

3.3. The Data from the Students' Interviews

The data from the students' interviews revealed a generally positive attitude towards the TL at the beginning of the CLIL and non-CLIL programs. However, upon their completion, the positive attitude of the CLIL students had grown significantly compared to their peers in the non-CLIL group (Table 4).

Table 4.
 The Students' Attitude towards the Russian Language

Themes	Codes/ Coding patterns	Occurrences			
		Experimental Group		Control Group	
STUDENTS' ATTITUDE TOWARDS THE TL		Pre- Interv	Post-Interv	Pre-Interv	Post-Interv
1. Attitude towards Russian	Instrumental for professional purposes	10	24	11	18
	Instrumental for study purposes	9	20	10	15
	Affective factors concerning TL	10	22	9	14
	Interest in the target culture	9	23	8	16

The interviews also compared the responses provided by both groups upon completion of 90 hours of tuition in order to identify the impact of the CLIL and non-CLIL courses (Table 5).

Table 5.
 The Students' Attitude towards the Implementation of CLIL and NON CLIL

Themes	Codes/ Coding Patterns	Occurrences	
		Experimental Group	Control Group
THE STUDENTS' ATTITUDE TOWARDS CLIL AND NON-CLIL			
1. The significance of the course	Innovative combination of language & content	17	0
	Efficient in developing content knowledge	19	0
	Efficient in developing linguistic skills	22	9
	Motivating for the learners	24	6
2. Course content and Materials	Subject-specific content focus	23	17
	Interesting approach to subject matter	20	6
	Authentic materials- serving realistic purposes	21	9
	Cognitively challenging tasks	19	5
	Consideration of linguistic competence	18	11
3. Learning in class	Wider perspective on the TL	15	4
	Learn in a relaxed atmosphere	19	6
	Arrangements to promote learning	18	9
	Active engagement in tasks	20	12

4. CONCLUDING REMARKS

The data from this study indicated the positive influence of CLIL LOTE instruction on dimensions of the students' oral performance in the TL (accuracy, fluency and complexity in lexical resources and grammatical structures) and mastery of the content of the target discipline since the learners within the CLIL group outperformed their non-CLIL peers. The positive results of the CLIL LOTE approach on the students' performance and language attitudes recorded, verified both research hypotheses (see section 2.1) and can be adhered to different factors which are believed to strengthen the potential of CLIL for increasing the figures of efficient FL learners (Muñoz 2002).

To begin with, a beneficial aspect of the CLIL approach is the innovative combination of language and content. The learners exposed to the experimental CLIL LOTE intervention benefited from being provided with rich, meaningful input, efficient in developing both their linguistic skills and content knowledge. The use of the TL to teach content had a substantial impact on their attitudes since CLIL LOTE provided a more intensive exposure to the TL while offering meaningful opportunities to

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actively make use of it (Navés 2009). This way the students' motivation towards learning the FL was sustained (Dörnyei 2006; Stohler 2006) leading to considerable gains in their performance.

The learners were also presented with cognitively challenging tasks, which considered their level of linguistic competence and aimed to foster both higher-order and lower-order thinking about the language, content and learning skills, by means of visual, auditory and multimodal materials. In this respect, CLIL catered for their different learning styles (Mehisto et al. 2008).

Furthermore, the CLIL context considered offered learning in a naturalistic, relatively anxiety-free environment which inevitably influenced the learners' attitude towards the TL (Dalton-Puffer 2007; Heining-Boynton & Haitema 2007). In consideration of the fact that a FL is best learned through exposure in authentic situations and effective tuition, CLIL practice was clearly advantageous in this respect (Meyer 2010).

The good practice regarding the implementation of CLIL LOTE was recorded in the journal, which presented and 'on-going' evaluative account of the feasibility of the CLIL LOTE project (Lee 2008). It was through reflective journal writing, that the researcher had the opportunity to map the changing understanding of her role in the specific project, and ensure self-development, improvement and renewal of her classroom practice, which was influential in the outcome of the experimental teaching intervention (Farrell 2004).

Concluding, it can be suggested that the CLIL LOTE approach contributed to improving the students' FL oral communication skills through focused meaningful practice, which triggered a more favourable attitude towards the TL. As a result, the merits of CLIL in keeping the students interested in the FL learning (Lasagabaster 2008; Lasagabaster and Sierra 2009), generating positive plurilingual attitudes and interests (Furlong 2012), and promoting multilingualism (Mehisto et al. 2008) need to be highlighted. Nevertheless, given the limited number of the target population and the restricted context of conducting this research, the results cannot be regarded conclusive and further longitudinal research overcoming the limitations observed is needed to confirm the results obtained and provide a comprehensive and objective evaluation of CLIL LOTE programmes.

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English language in contact with other European languages

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Abstract: The author of this paper explores the problem of mixing languages (code mixing) in the global system, with special emphasis on the status and the position of English language. Modern approach to cultures defined by diversity of dialogues, permeated and interwoven with specific models of communication, has its contribution in development of language, culture and other traditional values which are constantly changing. Different cultures and openness enrich the recipients and prove that aesthetical creations (language, art, music) are results of their interweaving. An important segment of this paper refers to the process of dialogue with the aim to enrich and promote mutual specificities of cultures expressed by language, in this case the English language.

Key words: Language, loanwords, linguistics, linguistic contact, bilingualism, interference.

Nowadays, when we speak, write or listen, we can notice that some words and expressions from a certain foreign language find their way to enter our mother tongue or some other foreign language. Such words and expressions are called *loanwords*. For example:

1. Le garage (French) → garage (English) → garaža (Serbian)
2. Femme fatale (French) → femme fatale (English) → fam fatal (Serbian)
3. Déjà vu (French) → déjà vu (English) → dežavu (Serbian)
4. Das konzert (German) → concert (English) → koncert (Serbian)
5. Leader (English) → lider (Serbian)
6. Speaker (English) → spiker (Serbian)
7. Hamburger (English) → hamburger (Serbian).

This specificity has become interesting not only to individual speakers of a certain language, but to science as well; therefore it became the case studies of *sociolinguistics*. Because of its prevalence, there was the need for a new linguistic branch called *linguistics of language contacts* or *language linguistics*.

Many languages had to get in touch with each other ages ago as a result of mutual contacts between various nations, cultures and civilizations. So the languages affected each other in different situations and under various circumstances. Lexicographers of the 18th century used the term *loanwords* and *language mixing* or *mixed languages* for the first time. Many linguists were engaged in this problem and they all had their own attitudes since they understood and conceived language and linguistics in their own ways. Rasmus Rask, Franz Bopp and Jacob Grimm considered that language interference is not possible, that lexis of a certain language can

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suffer some changes, but it is not the case with its structure that is grammar. Some scientists thought that mixed languages didn't exist, while others thought the opposite. For example, American linguist W.D. Whitney thought that a whole language can be shifted from one nation to another, where the two languages do not merge into one language, but each of them succeeds to keep its identity. What happens is as follows: one of the two languages has to overcome the other one and become the language of the whole community. This can be seen on the following example: Imagine the time when the first English settlers came to American continent. They found there the natives who communicated in their own indigenous language. As more and more English settlers came to this continent, English language became more widespread and prevailed over the natives' language and became the official language of that country.

At the end of the 19th century *bilingualism* was considered one of the conditions for linguistic borrowing. When an individual alternately speaks two languages, those languages are in contact. If an individual is fluent for example in Serbian and English language, he is the carrier and represents the place and the tangent of those two languages. Each of the two languages may have the function of the language provider or the language recipient, which depends on individual's linguistic fluency and on linguistic environment. If English is his mother tongue and he is more fluent in English than in Serbian, English language will here have the function of the language provider, and Serbian language will have the function of the recipient. However, if a native English speaker stays in Serbia where Serbian language is the native language, then Serbian language becomes language provider, because it is dominant now, it is the official language of the country where he is staying.

The problem of bilingualism and linguistic borrowing were the focus of the research of Edward Sapir, Leonard Bloomfield... While analyzing and comparing examples from English and Serbian language, I obtained some data which confirm the attitude of some renowned linguists that different languages can be used in one single culture, and one single language can be used in different cultures. If a native speaker of Serbian language uses some English word such as meeting instead of sastanak, or feeling instead of osecaj, he only wants to make a connection between these two languages and the two cultures. However, this does not mean that in this way he literally acquires or receives culture of the other country. Teaching examples for borrowing words with the aim to establish a connection between two countries can be as following:

1. Family (English) → familija (Serbian) instead of porodica
2. Aspiration (English) → aspiracija (Serbian) instead of težnja
3. Curriculum (English) → kurikulum (Serbian) instead of nastavni plan i program
4. Dualism (English) → dualizam (Serbian) instead of dvojnost
5. Satisfaction (English) → satisfakcija (Serbian) instead of zadovoljstvo.

When we talk about borrowing words we can state that words can be borrowed from different cultures and languages, and from various dialects of the same language, too. This feature is found in everyday communication and we will look at the examples from literary production in Serbian language. The analyzed example is taken from the play *Koštana* by Borisav Stanković. The author uses literary language, but when it is needed, he borrows dialect for the speech of his heroes. The following example describes the scene when her father-in-law Mitke asks young Koštana to sing about youth, love, beauty. He longs for everything that passed long

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time ago, he remembers all those days of youthful joy and passionate nights of his, wishing to be that young again and feel and experience strength and freshness of a woman's touch. Since dialect is very specific and it is difficult to translate it into any foreign language, because it loses its meaning and that folk, traditional spirit, we will leave this extract in its original form: 'Eh, Koštana, zar jedna je pesma žalna? Znaš li šta je karasevdah? Tuj bolest ja bolujem. Eve, ostare, a još se ne nažive, još ne napoja' i ne naceliva'... Još mi za lepotinju i ubavinju srce gine i vene! Aha! Poj Koštana, kako k'd se od Karakule na Bilaču, Preševo i Skoplje udari. Noć letnja. Šarplanina u nebo štrči, a ispod njuma lega pusto i mrtvo Kosovo. Drum širok, prav, carski. Po njega se rasipali hanovi, seraji, bašče, česme. Mesečina greje... Martinka mi u krilo, konj, Dorča moj, ide nogu pred nogu, a čalgidžije, što gi još od Bilački han povedešem, peške idev iza mene. Sviriv mi oni i pojev.'

In time, traditional term borrowing was replaced by the term *interference* (simultaneous use of two languages where bilingual speakers mix norms of the two languages instead of keeping them apart). When it comes to interference, the element which is shifted from one language into the other can change features of phonological or morphological structure of the language provider from which it originates. On the following examples we can see that loanwords changed their phonological shape, pronunciation and morphological shape, since in different case forms they get adequate morphemes:

1. Leader → lider [in Serbian: lideru (vocative case), liderom (instrumental case)]
2. Fax → faks [in Serbian: faksu (dative case), faksom (instrumental case)]
3. Pajamas → pidžama [in Serbian: pidžami (dative case), pidžamu (accusative case)]
4. Boxer → bokser [in Serbian: bokseru (dative case), boksera (accusative case)].

It can be mentioned that there are three levels of word borrowing:

1. Shifting (bilingual speaker shifts elements from one language into another without any changes or adaptation)
2. Interference
3. Integration (lent element is completely built in the structure of the new language).

Very often bilingual speakers equate elements of one language with elements of another language (interlinguistic identification). This can be shown on the following examples from English language. Native English speakers, unlike other native languages speakers, do not have any trouble in distinguishing the phoneme /θ/ in words **thin, think, thank** from the phoneme /t/ in words **tin, twins, tank**... Or, for instance, in distinguishing the phoneme /ð/ in the word **this** from the phoneme /d/ in the word **disc**. The problem may appear when trying to distinguish phoneme /æ/ in words **tan, fan, plan** from the phoneme /e/ in the words **ten, fence, set**...

Contact between English and other languages in Europe and the USA is realized in two ways:

- Indirect borrowing – it is realized with the help of an mediator (some language, mass media-newspapers, radio, television...)
- Direct borrowing – it is performed without the help of an mediator, in direct contact of speakers of a certain language with speakers of another language.

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Type and level of word borrowing depend on the country where it is taking place. Indirect borrowing only refers to words and includes four linguistic levels: phonological, morphological, semantic and lexical. Direct borrowing includes overall language structure.

It can be concluded that this indirect-direct relation is very important in language linguistics studies and linguistic borrowing. Contacts between English and other languages are very interesting because more and more people speak English not only in Europe, but in the whole world, therefore a large number of words and expressions is shifted from English to other languages when certain changes take place on these shifted elements. Borrowing elements from different languages and shifting them to some other languages has been taking place for ages, be it conscious or unconscious, and the consequences are very visible. It can be the matter of fashion, but it is absolutely clear that an individual cannot change his culture or origin in this way. It is, as it has already been emphasized, just one of the ways to compare or establish a connection between two or more countries.

CONCLUSION

Global society removes boundaries in order to make information available to the users. In the course of that constant process main position belongs to English language (and other world languages) and to modern scientific sources as well that can be found in libraries which became powerful cultural centers. Available literature and other media provide their users with the insight into lexical wealth, bibliographical material as the source of information necessary for evaluations, comparative studies and reception of those values contained in cultural monuments. Among these monuments there are some noteworthy old manuscripts and data contained in them which confirm specificities of dialogue among languages and cultures.

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E-Portfolio – an output of the English for Science and Technology course for PhD students at the Slovak University of Technology

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Abstract: The contribution deals with the concept of English for Science and Technology course for PhD students at the Slovak University of Technology and focuses particularly on students' electronic output – E-Portfolio comprising their elaborated assignments including the samples of the basic forms of scientific information exchange and tools of professional self-marketing, which can be utilized for various professional/academic purposes.

Key words: E-Portfolio, language skills, academic purposes, scientific information exchange

1. INTRODUCTION

The current content and methodology of the English for Science and Technology (hereinafter referred to as EST) course for PhD students at the Slovak University of Technology (STU), Faculty of Materials Science and Technology (MTF) in Trnava has been designed to reflect the Faculty profile, needs of the industrial practice as well as the local, regional and international demands of the current labour market and scientific environments.

2. PhD EST CONCEPT

PhD EST Portfolio is a standardised output of the course developing the students' language skills for academic purposes, meeting thus the criteria of the students' research activities in the related scientific field. Its forms, both electronic and printed, represent the students' outcome of the language course, introduce their research intention and anticipated results, as well as provide them with an attractive self-marketing tool which may help the graduates of the STU MTF PhD study programmes succeed on the domestic and international labour markets. Uploaded on the Faculty website, the portfolios are available to interested parties at the Faculty and outside.

PhD EST Portfolio comprises students' assignments including the samples of basic forms of the scientific information exchange and tools of professional self-marketing, which can be later on easily found and applied or updated for various purposes, e.g. conferencing, student mobility or job hunting in the domestic and international academic, research, business and industrial environments.

The Portfolio concept was piloted in the academic year 2007/2008. At present it is considered to be a standardized outcome, meeting the professional, language, formal, and aesthetic criteria, which are

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commonly applied hand in hand with students' creativity. Particular components of the PhD Portfolio are frequently used by students, when preparing e.g. a presentation for upcoming conference (template of PPP), or attending a job interview (SWOT analysis). In addition, the best PhD Portfolios are usually used as samples to inspire the new postgraduate students.

3. PhD PORTFOLIO

The PhD EST E-Portfolio is a complex document reflecting the increasing requirements mainly in the field of IT and various innovations. The Portfolio is submitted both in printed and electronic forms. It comprises the following parts:

3.1 Europass Curriculum Vitae

CVs are frequent personal documents needed for many purposes. Europass template standardized by the European Committee since 2010 is available on the related website. Within the lesson focused on CV elaboration, we concentrate mainly on thorough description of students' skills (SWOT analysis), which is usually a weak point of many students. In addition, we introduce other formats of personal documents (e.g. American Resume). Students well realise that a perfect personal SWOT analysis is the prerequisite of a successful job interview. Slovak students are generally modest and quite poor at self-marketing, especially when it comes to describing their own strengths.

3.2 Cover letter

Students usually write their first trial cover letters within their undergraduate study. Later on, some of them write real cover letters when applying for student mobility. The postgraduate students write the cover letter as simulated job, grant or scholarship applications in the field. Besides content, emphasis is laid on vocabulary, structures, layout and register in particular.

3.3 PowerPoint/pdf presentation introducing the research intention

Students are usually familiar with many programs in which presentations can be elaborated. Nevertheless, they often underestimate the basic rules in the slide preparation as well as in oral delivery. They frequently forget about the appropriate structure (introduction-methods-results-conclusion), or language used (register, linking phrases, etc.), or presentation techniques (visuals, eye contact, body language, etc.), and time management. The subsequent discussion is an essential part – a student has to master so called “lay” questions of the language teachers, as well as more sophisticated questions of their fellow students or supervisors.

3.4 Scientific paper on the intended research

PhD candidates have to elaborate a paper within the internationally accepted format IMRAD/C (Introduction, Methods&Materials, Results, Discussion) together with other essential parts of the contribution such as properly prepared abstract, key words, illustrations (figures, graphs, tables), references, and possible annexes. Evaluated is not only the consistent structure of the paper, but also the register used, grammar, cohesion of sentences and style (formal vs. informal) as well.

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3.5 Scientific poster on the topic of the dissertation thesis

The scientific poster has to be elaborated according to the internationally accepted format (title of the dissertation topic, affiliation and current contact of the student, name of their supervisor, academic year, Introduction, Aim, Methods and Materials, Results, Conclusion). Besides the above-mentioned issues, evaluated is particularly the graphical design, lay-out, visual attractiveness, reader-friendliness and overall impact on the audience. The doctoral posters are permanently displayed in the premises of the Division of Languages or the Department of Humanities and Social Sciences, inspiring undergraduate students and providing visitors with the insight into the PhD EST education and the Faculty profile.

All forms of output are evaluated regarding the students' contribution/added value or innovation in the related academic/scientific field, while respecting the ethical issues of copyright and intellectual property.

3.6 Glossary of the technical terms from related sources

Doctoral students are usually asked by their supervisors to study a lot of sources related to their selected scientific field, today frequently available only in English. Therefore, students have to prove how efficiently they can work with dictionaries when translating documents. They also elaborate their own glossary in the studied field.

3.7 Oral and written English-Slovak translation of the selected passage from related source

Translation to the native language seems to be so easy when translating the text orally. Written translation is very demanding, as it has to be written in a smooth and precise language. This may be a real problem in case of non-existing Slovak equivalents. When giving the feedback, the language teacher usually concentrates on the translation accuracy, appropriate register use, style, word order, language interference, etc.

3.8 CD/USB

CD or other types of mass storing devices are added to the printed version of the portfolio, so that the outputs can be archived, utilized or disseminated more easily.

4. BENEFITS AND DRAWBACKS OF PHD PORTFOLIO

The advanced information and communication technologies have increased the students' computer skills and competences; no wonder therefore that the STU MTF students in particular make use of them. Their outputs summarized in their PhD EST Portfolio can be utilised not only as a material submitted for the English language examination but also as a document serving for professional/academic purposes (Miština, 2006).

One can say there cannot be a drawback, however, students sometimes complain about the complexity of the portfolio and the time they have to spend when elaborating the portfolio individual components. Nevertheless, many of them provide us with a positive feedback, claiming that the experience has paid back in their real life.

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5. CONCLUSION

Information and communication technologies provide the teachers as well as the students with a supportive tool helping in elaboration and supervision of required output. Our students sometimes tend to overuse the tool and they learn in the EST course how to utilise it in an appropriate way for professional and academic purposes.

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Integrative teaching – stimulus for activity, creativity and pupils' complete development

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Abstract: In this paper we are going to show how the use of integrative teaching in language and literature class represents a stimulus to pupils for a greater self engagement, greater quality of work, creativity and greater achievements. Integrative teaching in class motivates pupils, stimulates their activity, brings the quality of learning process to a higher level, stimulates creativity and significantly affects complete development of their personality. Integration of contents is based on organizing subjects inside the scope of children's knowledge and structuring the contents around wider learning entires. Possibility for children to take part in choosing, preparation, working out and realization of the subjects by using their previous knowledge, as well as the possibility to independently explore, find out, compare, think and consider contents from many different points of view, various aspects, contributes to a large extent to changing the position of pupils, to a fuller understanding of the contents, deeper emotional experience, stimulating creativity and creative work and all that creates a strong stimulus for the development of a spiritually rich, creative and human personality of pupils of future school.

Key words: Integrative teaching, stimulus, activity, creativity, pupil

*We would have to read a few good verses every day,
see a beautiful painting, listen to a lovely song or
say kind words to our friend
in order to create a finer part of our being.*

J. V. Goethe

1. INTRODUCTION

Having in mind the shortcomings of traditional teaching and organization of language and literature lessons today, which are frequently based on verbalism and passivity of pupils, we think that children need a different kind of school and a more dynamic way of work there, which is in accordance with their temperamental nature and exploring spirit. They need a school where they will feel fulfilled, satisfied and active; where they will get to love studying and understand it as a challenge for productivity and creativity. However, *the moment when teaching becomes learning largely depends on the environment, on what the teacher is like and the example he or she sets.* (Landi 2007, 7). If we analyze the previous attempts to innovate the teaching process at schools, we will notice that none of them has had as its priority the aim to make children more active, make them love the school and studying, encourage them to be creative, provoke pleasant feelings and create a positive attitude towards the school. The previous changes "attacked" knowledge as their primary aim, which is very dangerous and has certain risks and consequences to the final outcome. Stanley Greenspan, a professor at the University George Washington, says that emotions are a generator of our cognition (Suzic:1999, 71). Many other researches (Greenspan and Benderly, 1997, Goleman: 1998 as quoted by Suzic: 1999) confirm that positive emotions have an important role in the process of learning, cognition and

reception. Wigfield and his associates claim that *the highest priority in this area is represented by the influence of emotions on motivation* (Wigfield and associates 2006, 1075). Ketlin G. Landi suggests five ways to organize productive teaching process which would be based on positive emotions and good motivation:

1. Setting the environment in which teaching and learning will take place in meaningful contexts.
2. Engagement, i.e. students' motivation to find out more about a certain topic.
3. Active realization of the teaching programme with the students
4. Broadening of experience so that the teaching becomes more focused and turned towards thinking.
5. Evaluation of the learning process unfolding in the classroom. (Landi 2007, 7).

School of the future should teach and educate independent and creative people, spiritually and emotionally fulfilled. That's why the teachers of the XXI century should tend to *make each of the students shoes of the best possible material, so strong that they can go over the hardest obstacles without stumbling* (Landi 2007, 9). Integral teaching and research tasks given to students offer them the possibility to use the various aspects of studying several school subjects simultaneously and to synthesize their experiences, which encourages them to learn and discover things in various ways with the feeling of self-actualization. That's why *the classrooms have to be places where students and teachers become familiar with new ways of thinking and living, places where they can see, hear and feel things in completely unexpected ways*. (Landi 2007, 86).

2. THE ESSENCE OF THE INTEGRAL TEACHING

The need for integral teaching is becoming more and more popular in the world. We often find it in West European countries and the USA, especially in lower grades of primary schools. At the beginning of school the interdisciplinary approach represents the reflection of the spontaneous and creative way in which children learn about the world around them. This type of teaching implies *connecting contents of various disciplines into logical units organized around one problem or topic. The knowledge from different disciplines is in the function of multilateral clarification of the problem or topic being researched* (Scheffer 2005, 88). The result of such work is intellectual, moral, emotional, and spiritual development of pupils. The emphasis is on: projects, sources of knowledge outside textbooks, relations between concepts, thematic units as organizational principle of teaching planning, flexible timetable, and grouping of pupils. This is accompanied by characteristics of children's thinking at this age, because it is developed on particular phenomena and relations which a child perceives directly in its surroundings. That's why this process should go from the particular whole to gradual generalization, to conceptual thinking. The teacher has to create those particular situations which help the child to sharpen his/her thoughts.

Integral aim of the future school is a pupil whose knowledge and skills will be based on the principle of unity, which will be exposed in thinking, emotions, behavior, and creativity. The integration contributes to pupils' activity in the process of thinking as well as their intellectual development. This can be proven by the application of integral teaching of national literature in the lesson of Serbian language, which has been experimentally organized with pupils in lower grades of primary schools. This kind of literature is the most difficult for pupils of this age, but also for teachers themselves, as the obtained results have shown.¹

¹ This issue was experimentally researched within the PhD diss. *Contemporary Approach to National Literature in Lower Grades of Primary school*, which was presented by the author at the Teachers' Faculty in Vranje, University in Niš.

By using *integral teaching* in the lesson of Serbian language and literature, by correlation with similar contents of other subjects, we create conditions that any literature work is comprehensible to children. By personal engagement of pupils to collect words and phrases of the national language (when literature is considered), to help find appropriate music, create the atmosphere, find national costumes, and bring to life that distant moment of the past, we contribute to the fact that the feeling in the lesson is complete and the analysis of the literature work thorough. The application of this kind of teaching – apart from the democratic atmosphere in the classroom and creative plays – additionally encourages creative expression, production and provides a more complete perception of the work of literature. The productivity of the holistic procedure in the integral approach reflects in the simultaneous influence on cognitive, affective, and general development of pupils.

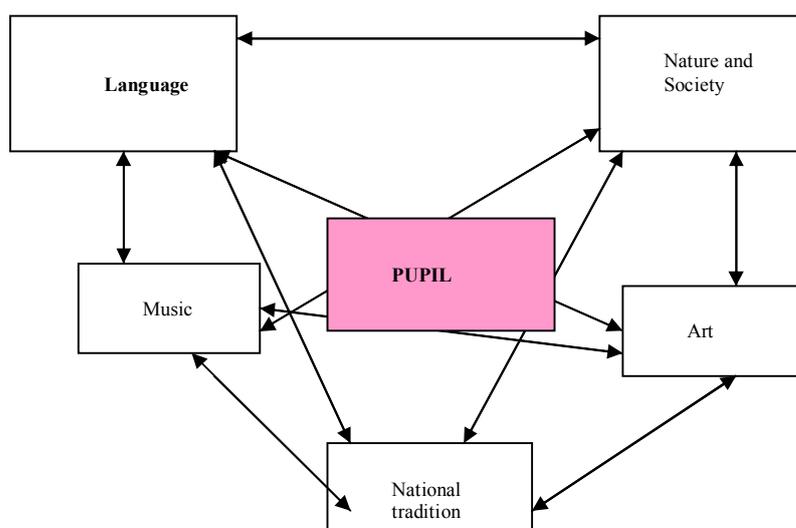


Figure 1. Schematic presentation of interdisciplinary connection of contents within the thematic unit and their influence on pupils

Literary text in an integral lesson is dealt with in the way it should be done in a separate lesson of Serbian language and literature, but the effects are much better and the experience more complete.

3. THE EFFECTS OF INTEGRAL TEACHING IN TEACHING NATIONAL LITERATURE

In the recently conducted research, after determination of positive attitudes of pupils towards works of national literature and revelation of certain problems with understanding the meaning of unknown words and reception of national lyric and especially epic poems, we introduced integral teaching as an experimental factor in the classes of the III grade in primary schools in Vranje. Within a single school year, the national literature works, in the classes of the E group, were realized as per special scenarios. The control group (Group K) worked in a usual way. Before the experiment, the groups were made equal as per the number of examinees, sex, and success, as well as the knowledge in the area of the national literature shown in the preliminary test. The lessons realized in this way were a creative stimulus to the pupils, additional motivation for work, the base for successful solution of the given task, the encouragement for understanding the literature works, as well as creativity. This can be seen in the example of the epic national poem *Marko Kraljević and Bey Kostadin*.

After each covered unit, at the end of the activity there was a sheet of paper with questions. They were about important details that had to be noticed while working on the task (meanings of new words, topics, characters, characteristics, actions, behavior, messages, etc.). The most common

problem earlier was the new words, character traits and messages. Here it is how the examinees from the E group did the questions after the application of the integral teaching.

The unfamiliar words are the most common problem to the examinees, so that's why we were interested in how they understood the meanings of old-fashioned words and phrases of the national language from poems. The highest number of the examinees (96, that is 83,48%) exactly understood the meaning of the words *hazna*, *azna*, and only one less the meaning of the words *beg* and *djakonije*. The number of the examinees who understood the meaning of these words is statistically much higher than the number of pupils who determined the meaning of the words *zametnuti* and *skerlet* ($p < 0,05$) (*hazna* in relation to *skerlet* $p < 0,05$).

The obtained data confirm that the examinees correctly understood the meaning of the old-fashioned, unfamiliar words, because they understood the word *hazna* not as *kazna* (punishment), but as property. They also successfully explained the meaning of the word *beg*, as a Turkish gentleman, rich man of that time. They might have known the meaning of the word *djakonije* earlier, because it is still used in the area of Vranje. *Skerlet* seemed to be the most unfamiliar word, that's why the lowest number of them gave the right meaning.

Table 1. Meanings of unfamiliar words from a poem

Word		
a) beg	95	82,61% ^{kl*}
b) docekanje	91	79,13%
c) djakonije	95	82,61% ^{kl*}
d) skerlet	78	67,83%
e) hazna, azna	96	83,48% ^{kl*d**}
f) zametnuti	81	70,43%

d in relation to d), f in relation to f)

* - $p < 0,05$, ** $p < 0,01$

Among other things what had to be done was to characterize the behavior of bey Kostadin. The opinion that bey Kostadin is *unjust* was the most common one among the examinees, so 101 (87, 83%) of the examinees were of that opinion, but 98 (85, 22%) examinees also thought that he is *rough* and *selfish*, which is acceptable. All three opinions were more common than the one that he is *greedy* and *unthankful*, which was accepted by 85 (73, 91%), that is 77 (66, 96%) of the examinees, with the levels of importance presented in table 2.

Other offered alternatives were not chosen. This means that all the examinees successfully described the character of bey Kostadin and correctly assessed his traits.

Table 2. Beg Kostadin's traits

Beg Kostadin is:					
a) self-sacrificing	0	0,00%	e) greedy	85	73,91%
b) noble	0	0,00%	f) selfish	98	85,22% ^{e*h***}
c) unjust	101	87,83% ^{e*h***}	g) humane	0	0,00%
d) rough	98	85,22% ^{e*h***}	h) unthankful	77	66,96%

e in relation to e), h in relation to h)

* - $p < 0,05$, ** - $p < 0,01$, *** - $p < 0,001$

By analyzing the text of the poem the examinees pointed out the *characteristics of Marko Kraljević*. Most of the examinees (77, i.e. 66,96%) pointed out his *humanity*, which is statistically the most quoted characteristic in relation to his *courage* ($p < 0,05$) and others ($p < 0,001$). *Nobility* is the other most chosen characteristic with 74 examinees (64,35%), which is statistically more common in comparison with *goodness* ($p < 0,01$), other traits (unselfishness, self-sacrifice, justness, honesty, wisdom) ($p < 0,01$). This task was of the open type, which means that the examinees independently assessed the traits in the order which they thought was the most prominent.

Table 3. Marko Kraljević's traits (characteristics)

Marko Kraljević is					
1. humane	77	66,96%	3*, all others***	11. strong	15 13,04%
2. noble	74	64,35%	4**, all others***	12. polite	7 6,09%
3. brave	60	52,17%		13. frank	3 2,61%
4. good	51	44,35%		14. well-intentioned	3 2,61%
5. unselfish	44	38,26%		15. caring	2 1,74%
6. self-sacrificing	42	36,52%		16. modest	0 0,00%
7. clever	23	20,00%		17. sincere	0 0,00%
8. just	18	15,65%		18. caring	0 0,00%
9. honest	17	14,78%		19. nice	0 0,00%
10. wise	17	14,78%			

e in relation to e), h in relation h)
 * - p<0.05, ** - p<0.01, *** - p<0.001

Understanding of the message of the poem very often creates problems for students. That's why we wanted to find out how much the examinees could recognize and formulate the messages. The highest number of them mentioned the proverb *He that praises him/herself, spoils him/herself* as the message of the poem which is, apart from the sentence *Goodness is the most precious treasure*, statistically the most common answer in comparison with the others (p<0,001). The other answers are acceptable though, because they are completely suitable.

Table 4. *The proverb which expresses the message of the poem in the best way*

Messages		
a) <i>He that praises him/herself spoils him/herself.</i>	38	33,04% all except b***
b) <i>Goodness is the most precious treasure.</i>	28	24,35% others***
c) <i>He that does well, wearsies not himself, he that mischief hatches, mischief catches.</i>	12	10,43%
d) <i>One good turn deserves another.</i>		
e) <i>One should never turn his/her back on the family and should always help others in need.</i>	6	5,22%
f) <i>Always get people off the hook.</i>	5	4,35%
g) <i>Better a good head on one's shoulders than a lot of money.</i>	3	1,74%
h) <i>Good news travels fast, bad even faster.</i>	2	1,74%
	1	0,87%

a in relation to a), c in relation to c)
 - p<0.001

By the analysis of the statistic significance of the obtained data, the success of the examinees from group E is evident in contrast to group K. It is especially important to point out the success with understanding unfamiliar words, character traits, actions, behavior, and messages. The mood of the examinees, as well as the satisfaction of this kind of work, interesting tasks, various activities (acting, drawing, sculpture, modeling, etc.), various aspects of reading the work of literature, all tell about the pleasant emotions and bigger involvement of the pupils.

4. POSSIBILITIES OF INTEGRATION OF MOTHER TONGUE AND FOREIGN LANGUAGE IN PRACTICE

In practice we often find examples of thematic connections of related contents among which are the contents of English as the first foreign language of preschool and lower primary school children in Serbia and the surrounding countries. Entire projects in primary schools were designed on a specific topic, for instance *Bread* (<http://uciteljicaljilja.files.wordpress.com>), *Apple* (www.djordjenatosevic.edu.rs www.osmiloradmarkovic.edu.rs/carolije/carolije_br_6.pdf), *Интегративна настава - Јабука*, *Spring* (www.dijanaana.wordpress.com), *Magical village* (<http://kreativnacarloija.wordpress.com/carobno-selo/integrativno-nastava/>), *Play, My imagination can do many things* etc., where English language teachers, among other teachers, are also the implementers of the contents as equal partners of designed integrative activities. Thus a stronger interconnection between mother tongue and a foreign language is established, which enables better communication and understanding. Motivation for learning is bigger, the results better.

Correlation between Serbian and English language is possible in explanation and acquiring unfamiliar words. For example, when the abovementioned poem *Marko Kraljević and bey Kostadin* is interpreted, by analyzing characters and explaining the meaning of unfamiliar words: inhumanity, humane, noble, philanthropic, caring, self-sacrificing or unjust, selfish, rough, ungrateful, arrogant, the pronunciation of these English words can also be interpreted and explained. Words adopted like this are more easily and longer remembered, and children translate them successfully from one language into another when there is the need for that.

Interpretation of literary creations by integrative approach establishes a creative dialogue between cultures, between artistic worlds of creations coming from different literatures. Thus, by interpretation of the fairy-tale *Selfish giant* by Oscar Wild, which is in the third primary grade curriculum in Serbia or the folk tale *The world cannot be satisfied*, within integrative approach to the topic *Many different people, many different tempers*, except contents of other subjects we can create thematic connection with the English folk tale *Magical tree* (Borisova, T., and associates (2006): *Reader for the second primary grade*, Bulvest 2000, Sofia). In this tale Mr. Smith's selfishness and arrogance are deprecated. Children and magical tree which fulfills all wishes have an impact on him and make him sociable, careful, noble, tolerant.

Possibilities for integration of related contents of all subjects are numerous, these are only some suggestions. What should be the stimulus for primary and English language teachers in using the advantages of cross-curricular connections are positive experience and high level of achievement of group **E** in this case as an important recommendation.

5. SUMMARY

The obtained empirical data and positive attitudes of the examinees about the integral approach to the national literature are the best recommendation for the improvement of the teaching quality. From a passive observer and insufficiently active pupil, by means of integral teaching the pupil becomes *an active participant* in the process of understanding a work of literature. In that way pupils get the possibility to improve their confidence and independence, show creativity, through their involvement as well as responsible attitude towards the given task. The analysis of the pupils' answers from the **E** group shows that *their knowledge is at a higher level*. This is applicable and creative knowledge, which overcomes the level of recognizing and reproduction, on which the knowledge of the **K** group pupils was based.

E group examinees were at first surprised, but later thrilled with this kind of work. The largest number of those pupils thought this method of teaching was *interesting, dynamic, and pleasant*. The atmosphere in the lesson itself, due to frequent changes of various activities, different and interesting contents, better involvement of the pupils, as well as the application of interactive electronic presentations, made these lessons more pleasant but also very productive at the same time. To prove this impression, a large number of literary and artistic works was written and painted as the result of such kind of approach.

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A Functional Typology of Linking Adverbials

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Abstract: Linking adverbials in English (e.g. *however, consequently, on the contrary, in other words*) are an important means of marking various types of relations between sentences and parts of text, and as such, they are of interest for EAP and ESP teaching. For this reason, in the paper a functional typology of linking adverbials, based on their description in authoritative grammars of the English language, is proposed, together with lists of linking adverbials of each type.

Key words: English language, linking adverbials, functional types of linking adverbials, grammars of English, academic writing

1. LINKING ADVERBIALS

Here are three examples of the use of linking adverbials in academic texts:

- (1) You cannot think reality is objective and observable and also think that it is entirely socially constructed (your ontology). Similarly, you cannot think that people are rational, purposive decision makers who control their own destiny and also believe that people are shaped by culture and institutions, act within their roles and are subject to chance, history, and accident (your views of human nature regarding the “problem of action”).¹
- (2) Hirsch focused on the input and output sides of cultural businesses, ignoring the internal workings, or the “throughput.” Peterson (1994), on the other hand, highlights the importance of the internal process in his discussion of “decision chains.”²
- (3) Having overcome the main Persian army, he moved south towards Egypt, and the Samaritans saw this as an opportunity to enhance their own national security by cooperating with the Greeks. As a result, they were given permission to build a temple for themselves on Mount Gerizim [...].³

In these examples, the adverbials *similarly*, *on the other hand* and *as a result* have been used to mark explicitly relationships between sentences: the first to signal addition by similarity, the second to signal a contrast, and the third to signal the fact that what follows can be considered a result of what has previously been said. For these and similar adverbs, prepositional phrases, adverbial phrases, and non-finite and finite clauses used as cohesive devices for linking sentences or larger units of text, we have adopted the term LINKING ADVERBIALS as used by Biber et al. in the *Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English* (1999). In our view, *linking adverbial* is a straightforward term that covers both their function (linking) and their grammatical nature (adverbial). Other terms are also used in the literature, such as: CONJUNCTS, CONNECTIVES, LINKING ADJUNCTS, LOGICAL CONNECTORS, SENTENCE CONNECTORS, etc.

It should be noted that linking adverbials are most frequently used in speech and in academic (scientific, scholarly) written texts. Yet there is an important difference in usage – while in speech

¹ Example quoted from: Alexander, Victoria D. 2003. *Sociology of the Arts: Exploring Fine and Popular Forms*. Malden, MA: Blackwell Publishing, 14.

² *Ibid.*, 94.

³ Example quoted from: Drane, John. 2000. *Introducing the Old Testament*. Oxford: Lion Publishing, 208.

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only a relatively small number of linking adverbials is used with any frequency, in academic texts the variety of frequently used linking adverbials is much greater, with regard both to the linking functions performed and to the repertory of individual adverbials used.⁴ One of the principal reasons for this lies in the fact that academic texts need to be clearly, firmly structured, and the various relationships between ideas and arguments explicitly marked; and it is precisely in this that linking adverbials play an important role.⁵

In view of the importance of linking adverbials in academic texts, and consequently, in the development of EAP and ESP reading and writing skills, the aim of this paper is:

- to propose a functional typology of linking adverbials, including their main subtypes;
- to provide, for every type, lists of individual linking adverbials.

We believe that such a typology is important not only because of the functional importance of linking adverbials, but also because of certain differences between English grammars concerning the typology of linking adverbials and the lists of linking adverbials of different types.

We have tried to provide such a functional typology by comparing the way that linking adverbials are described, divided into types and listed in the following authoritative English grammars:

- *A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language* (Quirk et al. 1985)
- the *Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English* (Biber et al. 1999)
- *The Cambridge Grammar of the English Language* (Huddleston and Pullum 2002)
- the *Cambridge Grammar of English* (Carter and McCarthy 2006).⁶

2. TYPOLOGY OF LINKING ADVERBIALS

2.1 Enumerative linking adverbials

Enumerative linking adverbials signal the order of items listed in a unit of text; in other words, their function is to give structure to a list and also identify particular segments of text as parts of the list. These linking adverbials can be divided into two subtypes:

- 1) SERIAL enumerative linking adverbials, which can indicate the position of an item in a list in either of two ways – the linking adverbial can mark its order in the list, or else mark the stage of enumeration at which the item occurs (the beginning, continuation, or end of a list). It is therefore possible to distinguish two groups of serial enumerative linking adverbials:
 - ORDINAL enumerative linking adverbials, closely related to ordinal numbers, mark an item as the first/second/third etc. item in a list. They are: (to mark the first item) *first, firstly, first of all, in the first place*; (to mark the second item) *second, secondly, in the second place*; (to mark the third item) *third, thirdly, in the third place*; etc.
 - PHASAL enumerative linking adverbials mark the phase, or stage, of enumeration. They are: (to mark the beginning of enumeration – the first item) *to begin with, to start with, for a*

⁴ See, for example, Biber et al. 1999, 880-883.

⁵ It has been observed that "Logical connectors [...] have always had a high profile in EAP teaching. They are generally seen as a key to understanding the logical relationships in texts and therefore relevant to the teaching of reading, listening and writing in EAP." (Dudley-Evans and St John 2010, 78).

⁶ Full bibliographical references are given at the end of the paper.

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start; to mark the continuation of enumeration (subsequent items): *then, next*; to mark the end of enumeration (the last item): *finally, last, lastly, last of all*.

- 2) CORRELATIVE enumerative linking adverbials, which can be used when only two items are listed: *on the one hand ... on the other (hand), for one thing ... for another (thing)*.⁷

Notes on typology and terminology:

- In grammars, enumerative linking adverbials are treated either as a subgroup of a larger group that also comprises additive linking adverbials – thus indicating that their functions are closely related – or as a separate group. We feel that, although there certainly are similarities between enumeration and addition, the functional differences between these two groups of linking adverbials (i.e. the fact that, unlike additive linking adverbials, enumerative linking adverbials give an explicit structure to a series of items) justify their being grouped into two separate types.
- In addition to the term ENUMERATIVE, other terms used in grammars for this type of linking adverbials are ORDERING and LISTING.

2.2 Additive linking adverbials

Additive linking adverbials are used to signal the addition of information to what has already been said in the text. This can be either the addition of information that reinforces preceding information, or it can be the addition of a similar kind of information. Additive linking adverbials can therefore be divided into two subtypes:

- 1) GENERAL additive linking adverbials, which are used to mark a general addition (either non-emphatically or emphatically) to information already stated. They are: *moreover, further, furthermore, in addition, besides, also, again, what is more, more, then, above all, in particular, on top of it all, on top of that, to cap it all, to top it all*.
- 2) SIMILARITY-MARKING additive linking adverbials, which signal that the information which is being added is in some way similar or comparable to the preceding information in the text. They are: *similarly, likewise, equally, by the same token, in the same way, comparably, correspondingly*.

Notes on typology and terminology:

- In making a distinction between the two subtypes of additive linking adverbials, we have followed Quirk et al., who refer to them as REINFORCING and EQUATIVE, because we believe that the difference in their cohesive function and the fact that they cannot be used interchangeably warrant their being treated as two distinct subtypes.
- These linking adverbials are referred to as ADDITIVE in all grammars.

⁷ See also Popović Pečić 2011.

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2.3 Adversative linking adverbials

Adversative linking adverbials signal that the content of the sentence in which they are used is in some sort of opposition to what has already been stated. More specifically, they indicate either that there is a contrast between the new information and the information in the preceding text, that the new information is unexpected in light of previously stated information (concession), or that something already stated is being replaced by something different. Adversative linking adverbials can therefore be divided into three sub-types:

- 1) **CONTRASTIVE** adversative linking adverbials are used to link two sentences or larger parts of text whose content is being contrasted. They are: *however, on the other hand, in comparison, by (way of) comparison, by (way of) contrast, in contrast, conversely, contrariwise, oppositely*.
- 2) **CONCESSIVE** adversative linking adverbials have a concessive meaning, i.e. they are used to signal that the information in a sentence is unexpected in light of the information already given. They are: *nevertheless, nonetheless, however, still, yet, though, in spite of that, all the same, at the same time, for all that*.
- 3) **REPLACIVE** adversative linking adverbials signal that a sentence introduces something different in place of the negated content of the preceding sentence. They are: *instead, on the contrary, rather*.

Notes on typology and terminology:

- Although some authors (Huddleston and Pullum, Carter and McCarthy) treat contrastive and adversative linking adverbials as separate types (replacive linking adverbials tend to be grouped together with contrastive ones), we believe that the three subtypes distinguished in our typology have an important feature in common, namely, that of introducing content that is, as we have already said, in some sort of opposition to preceding content, and that their grouping together is therefore justified.
- The terms generally used in grammars for these linking adverbials are **CONTRASTIVE** and **CONCESSIVE**. Quirk et al. also use the terms **REFORMULATORY**, **ANTITHETIC** and **CONCESSIVE** for the three subtypes of **CONTRASTIVE** conjuncts.

2.4 Resultive-inferential linking adverbials

Resultive-inferential linking adverbials signal that a sentence or larger unit of text states either a result or consequence of what has been said in the preceding text, or a conclusion that follows from the preceding text. That is to say, the statement(s) in the preceding sentence or text can be interpreted either as the cause of what is subsequently stated, or as a premise for inferring a logical conclusion. In both cases, the statement introduced with a resultive-inferential adverbial follows from the preceding statement either as a result or as a conclusion. These adverbials are *therefore, as a result, consequently, in consequence, as a consequence, accordingly, hence, so, thus, then*.

Notes on typology and terminology:

- These linking adverbials are treated as a separate type in all grammars.

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- The terms used for these linking adverbials – RESULTIVE, RESULTATIVE – usually emphasize the fact that they are used to introduce a result. However, we have chosen the term used by Biber et al., RESULTIVE-INFERENTIAL, as we believe that it more accurately describes their dual function.

2.5 Summative linking adverbials

Summative linking adverbials indicate that a sentence or larger unit of text represents a summing up of the preceding text. They explicitly signal that what follows is:

- a summing up of a larger unit of text: *in sum, to summarize, to sum up*;
- a final conclusive statement: *in conclusion, to conclude*;
- a final overall look at the points made in the preceding text: *(all) in all, overall, altogether*.

Notes on typology and terminology:

- All the grammars – with the exception of Huddleston and Pullum's which does not mention them at all – recognize these linking adverbials as a separate type.
- In these three grammars the same term is used – SUMMATIVE.

2.6 Rephrasing linking adverbials

Rephrasing linking adverbials signal that the sentence in which they occur is a rephrasing or elaboration of what has been said in the preceding sentence or larger unit of text. There are two subtypes of these linking adverbials:

- 1) GENERAL rephrasing linking adverbials, which signal that a sentence contains a rephrasing of what was previously said, as a clarification or as a more concrete or abstract statement of the same idea: *in other words, that is, that is to say, which is to say, put otherwise, to put it another way/put another way*.
- 2) Linking adverbials FOR MORE PRECISE REPHRASING: *more accurately, more precisely, specifically*.⁸

Notes on typology and terminology:

- All grammars mention these linking adverbials, but group them together with exemplificatory linking adverbials. However, we believe that, although there may be a slight similarity of function, rephrasing and exemplificatory linking adverbials are functionally different and are therefore better presented as two separate types.
- The terms for this group which includes both rephrasing and exemplification linking adverbials vary: APPOSITIVE (Quirk et al., Biber et al.), CONNECTIVES OF ELABORATION (Huddleston and Pullum), and META-TEXTUAL (Carter and McCarthy).

⁸ Unlike general rephrasing linking adverbials, linking adverbials for more precise rephrasing do not allow for the order of the sentences they link to be reversed (Popović Pečić 2009, 121).

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2.7 Exemplificatory linking adverbials

Exemplificatory linking adverbials are used to introduce something that is offered as an example for a general statement mentioned in the previous sentence or larger unit of text. They are: *for example, for instance, thus*.

Notes on the typology of these linking adverbials in grammars and the terminology used can be found in Section 6.

2.8 Dismissive linking adverbials

Dismissive linking adverbials are used to indicate that the validity of what has been said before is not relevant for the statement expressed in the given sentence. They are *anyhow, anyway, at all events, at any rate, in any case, in any event, in either case/event, either way*.⁹

Notes on typology and terminology:

- Three of the four grammars (with the exception of Huddleston and Pullum who do not refer to them at all) include dismissive linking adverbials in the group of concessive linking adverbials. It seems to us, however, that their meaning is not concessive in the true sense of the word, and that since they cannot be used interchangeably with concessive linking adverbials, they should be treated as a distinct type.
- Since they are not recognized by grammars as a distinct functional type, there is no corresponding term for them. The term we have adopted is borrowed from Halliday and Hassan's *Cohesion in English* (1976, 254-255), where these adverbials are listed as DISMISSIVE EXPRESSIONS, with the explanation that “whatever it is that has gone before is in any case being dismissed as irrelevant”.

2.9 The disjunctive linking adverbial *alternatively*

There is a single disjunctive linking adverbial – *alternatively* – and it is used to signal that what is stated in the sentence is offered as an alternative to the content of the previous sentence. In a wider sense, the relationship between the two statements linked by the SLA *alternatively* is one of disjunction, roughly equivalent to the coordinating conjunction *or*; as a matter of fact, the two are relatively often used together.

Notes on typology and terminology:

In all grammars, this linking adverbial is included in the group of contrastive linking adverbials. Although there might be some basis for this, since there is necessarily some difference between two alternatives linked by this adverbial, what sets the linking adverbial *alternatively* apart is the fact that it is not used to signal a contrast, but rather to link two alternative options. It can therefore be used, as we have already mentioned, after the coordinating conjunction *or*; while the meaning of contrastive

⁹ The linking adverbials *in either case/event* and *either way* are mentioned in Halliday and Hassan (1976, 254).

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adverbials, on the other hand, is approximately equivalent to the coordinating conjunction *but*. For this reason, we have assigned this linking adverbial to a group of its own.

2.10 Conditional linking adverbials

Conditional linking adverbials indicate that the situation expressed by the sentence in which they are used follows from the (non)occurrence of the possible situation expressed in the preceding sentence. There are two subtypes, depending on whether the situation introduced by the linking adverbial follows from the occurrence (affirmative conditionality) or non-occurrence (negative conditionality) of a previously mentioned situation:

- 1) Linking adverbials of AFFIRMATIVE CONDITIONALITY: *in that case, then*.
- 2) Linking adverbials of NEGATIVE CONDITIONALITY: *otherwise, else*.

Notes on typology and terminology:

- Three of the four grammars treat these linking adverbials as a distinct type, while one (Biber et al.) makes no reference to them.
- Quirk et al. use the term INFERENCE, and Carter and McCarthy refer to INFERENCE. The term we have adopted is based on Huddleson and Pullum, who refer to them as adjuncts of CONDITION.

2.11 Transitional linking adverbials

Transitional linking adverbials are used to signal a shift in discourse, serving to introduce a topic not directly related to what has been said before. They are: *by the way, incidentally, meanwhile, now, parenthetically, by the by(e)*.

Notes on typology and terminology:

- In three of the four grammars – with the exception of Carter and McCarthy who include them in the group of META-TEXTUAL linking adjuncts along with rephrasing and exemplification linking adverbials – transitional linking adverbials are listed as a separate type.
- The term used in Quirk et al. is TRANSITIONAL discursal conjuncts; in Biber et al. TRANSITION linking adverbials, in Huddleston and Pullum, markers of INFORMATIONAL STATUS.

3. CONCLUDING REMARKS

The typology that we have proposed in this paper represents a systematized inventory of linking adverbials used for linking sentences and larger units of text. However, from the point of view of teaching and creating teaching materials, the typology and the list of corresponding linking adverbials should be approached from a functional perspective, i.e. from the point of view of their use by students in language production and students' comprehension of their specific cohesive roles in concrete texts.

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Moreover, the fact that there are – at least according to the typology proposed in this paper – eleven types (and about twenty subtypes) of linking adverbials, comprising at least 120 individual linking adverbials, raises certain questions that deserve further consideration. In our opinion, some of the important questions concerning the teaching of linking adverbials in an academic context are the following:

- which cohesive functions expressed by linking adverbials are the most important for language production in EAP and ESP;
- which particular functional types should be introduced to EAP and ESP students early on, and which can be introduced later, at a more advanced level;
- which particular linking adverbials should be learned in order for given types of functional linking to be realized;
- how linking adverbials should be introduced, explained and practiced, and what terminology should be used for presenting linking adverbials to students.

We hope that the typology and list of linking adverbials that we have offered might be useful for formulating answers to these and similar practical issues in the teaching of English for academic purposes.

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Introducing ESP in GE Classroom: Reasons and Implications

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Abstract: ESP, regarded as a distinct branch of Teaching English as a Foreign language and thus different from General English (GE) taught in secondary schools, is primarily dealt with in vocational secondary schools and tertiary level of education. However, if ESP is seen only as an approach to language learning and considering all teachers' chief task - to prepare students for further education or professions, it is recommendable to integrate it in the teaching process. The aim of this paper is to present reasons for introducing ESP in GE secondary school classrooms and provide some practical guidelines. The first part is concerned with the relationship of GE and ESP, and is followed by the description of needs analysis carried out at the beginning of the final school year among 50 students of Gymnasium – general type. Needs analysis, usually connected with ESP and rarely carried out among secondary school students, was done in the form of questionnaire consisting of 20 questions focusing on students' goals, attitudes, self-assessment and expectations from English language learning. The results of the survey determining students' needs and wants, opinions on strengths and weaknesses, provide teachers useful insights into what fields to focus on using the analysis as a basis for designing teaching aims and materials. Since the survey indicates that students have clear perceptions of their language wants and reveals the need for introducing ESP to some extent in non-vocational secondary schools the paper proves that it is advisable to introduce particular topics, texts and teaching methods to enhance specialist vocabulary as the foundation for further study of ESP thus contributing to learning effectiveness and students' satisfaction. The paper concludes with theoretical and practical implications for EL teachers at both secondary and tertiary level.

Key words: general English, teaching, secondary school

1. INTRODUCTION

One of the major aims of secondary school teachers, primarily in gymnasiums, should be to prepare their students for further studies and careers and with the English language (EL) being a dominant International language necessary for worldwide communication and commercial exchange, this is especially true for EL teachers. EL teaching (ELT) requires constant reevaluation of the proposed curriculum owing to the increasing need for English. For a conscientious EL teacher trying to devise the most efficient and effective ways of teaching there are some questions lingering: a) if we do our jobs according to the proposed curricula and meet the teaching objectives, have our students gained the adequate knowledge regarding their future studies and occupations?; b) if we know that students will continue EL learning primarily focusing on English for Specific Purposes (ESP), can we implement it in the teaching process, and is that necessary? and c) if this being the case, what is there yet to be done? Hence, the study presented in this paper aims to: find out students' real needs in EL learning and determine what should be modified in syllabi accordingly that will altogether lead to improved teaching.

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Owing to ever increasing importance of EL at global level it has been taught as a compulsory subject in Serbia from grade 1 since 2003. In Serbian gymnasiums EL is taught as a second language along with other subjects for educational purposes with the teaching aim equally focused on all four language skills (reading, writing, speaking and listening) and is very general. Secondary school students usually have a good mark as a main purpose of learning English, whereas in the final year of their schooling when considering their future professions and plans to continue their academic studies, a new kind of purpose and motivation may arise. The students' real-life interests come in the foreground and future in which English is seen as a means to help accomplish goals in life is not so distant anymore. With the motivation, interest and needs having changed, another sort of English can be introduced i.e. English for Specific Purposes usually taught in Serbian vocational – secondary schools and universities.

Recognizing that students have a specific purpose for studying English a needs analysis was carried out to determine what is necessary to actually achieve it. This study is based on the students' opinions and expectations and aims to explore the needs of students through questionnaires and interviews based on a needs analysis, using the obtained information as a guide, and to discuss the implications for EL teachers in designing classroom activities. Its main purpose is to point at the importance of introducing ESP to some extent in GE classroom because adapting the teaching process by introducing topics to fulfill the specific students' needs and in accordance with their future goals is the foundation for further ESP studies at tertiary level.

2. ESP AND GE

The focus of the study is the integration of two (questionably) distinct branches of ELT – ESP and GE with the main difference between them being the purpose for learning English. ESP developed as a branch of ELT in 1960's to meet the learners' interests and requirements and three often cited reasons for the emergence of ESP are: the demands of a Brave New World, a revolution in linguistics and focus on the learner (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987). A widely accepted definition of ESP is the one proposed by Dudley-Evans and St. John who presented a broad definition using absolute and variable characteristics (Dudley-Evans and St. John 1998, 4-5). The definition accepted in this paper was given by Hutchinson and Waters who regarded ESP as "an approach to language teaching in which all decisions as to content and method are based on the learner's reason for learning" (Hutchinson and Waters 1987, 19). The authors suggest that the foundation of ESP should be based on the question "Why does this learner need to learn a foreign language?" (ibid.). Accordingly EL teaching is based on the needs of the discourse community which the students are expected to join. The three dominant characteristics of ESP are: 1) it is defined to meet the specific needs of the learners; 2) it makes use of underlying methodology and activities of the disciplines it serves; 3) it is centered on the language appropriateness to these activities in terms of grammar, lexis, register, study skills, discourse and genre (Dudley-Evans 1998). Therefore, ESP is based on specific professional and educational purposes of specialized learners with the main aim to improve communicative competence and is basically about content based instruction in the disciplines of law, economics, physics, medicine, tourism etc. It has long been accepted that the two main strands of ESP are: English for Occupational Purposes (EOP) and English for Academic Purposes (EAP).

It is worth mentioning that the scholars dealing with this topic have not come to the complete agreement regarding the separating line between GE and ESP. Hutchinson and Waters state that the difference between the two in theory is nothing but in practice is a great deal (Hutchinson and Waters 1987, 53). Main differences between ESP and GE can be found in terms of field-specific vocabulary

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versus vocabulary general and preferences of some grammatical structures and stylistic characteristics. However, ESP relies on lexical and syntactical characteristics of the language in general and principles of effective teaching language for general purpose are the foundation of ESP. Therefore the teaching of ESP is in many ways similar to the teaching of GE but with features that are typical for different specialized subjects. Thus, it may be concluded that the distinction between ESP and GE is not clear-cut and the foundation of ESP teaching lies in GE teaching. According to McDonough (1984) ESP should be regarded as an instructional activity containing range of activities and emphases which are not totally different from other areas of language teaching. Since ESP and GE share the same principles of language teaching, both having the same main objective – effective and efficient learning and considering ESP as an approach to teaching it can be concluded that it is possible to introduce ESP in GE classroom.

3. METHOD

To accomplish the goals of the paper two data collection instruments, a needs analysis questionnaire and an oral interview, were used. Questionnaire was chosen to be the means of the survey as it can be used for quantitative presentation of collected data that were manually calculated. In the literature various definitions of *needs* can be found depending on the purpose of analysis, but they all are focused on a learner (eg. Hutchinson and Waters 1987, Tarone and Yule 1989, Seedhouse 1995, Dudley-Evans and St. John 1998, West 1994). The most commonly accepted definition and categorization of *needs* are given by Hutchinson and Waters (1987, 54) making a distinction between *target needs* and *learning needs* further categorized into *necessities*, *lacks*, and *wants*. Although in learner-centered approaches proposed by modern methodology learners' needs are the focal point of teaching, needs analysis still tends to be associated with ESP, as ESP views students' needs as the first priority, and is rarely carried out in GE classroom.

In order to evaluate the proposed curricula and determine students' needs and expectations, opinions on strengths and weaknesses the needs analysis was carried out at the beginning of the final school year among 50 students of Gymnasium – general type who answered 20 questions in the questionnaire. A needs analysis questionnaire was created based on other similar questionnaires (eg. Peterson 2008, Coskun 2009). The questionnaire was drawn up in Serbian to eliminate any misunderstanding that the use of a second language might bring about. The data gathered from the questionnaires were analyzed in terms of percentages and based on the responses provided to open-ended questions. The interviews with some of the students followed in order to gain further insights.

The first part of the questionnaire addressed the students' attitudes towards the importance of the EL for their future studies or occupations and their own evaluation of the language knowledge gained throughout schooling¹. The students were to evaluate their knowledge of different language skills by marking the appropriate fields corresponding to school marks. The second part focused on the perceived future: the students were to provide information regarding their plans for enrollment at universities and future jobs, anticipated possible language problems while English language learning and use in the future as well as to specify expectations from learning EL at universities. The final part had the aim to elicit students' suggestions and ideas for improvement EL learning in the remaining school year by completing open-ended questions. After collecting and analyzing the results of the survey some students were interviewed orally in order to obtain more detailed answers on preferred teaching techniques and methods. This qualitative and quantitative method provided results described and analyzed in the paper.

¹ These students have been learning EL since the third grade of primary school, and in secondary school the New Headway published by OUP has been used as a schoolbook

4. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

90% of the students who took part in the survey (45 of them) had been learning EL for 7 years prior to the survey, and 10% had received longer EL education. Results of the present study indicate that English is perceived as important by Serbian secondary school students for the students' academic studies and future work. The results show that students are aware of the status of EL as a global language – choosing from 6 possible answers 68% (34) students stated this to be the main reason for learning it, 9 students chose communication with foreigners, 7 of them saw gaining different knowledge, whereas only 1 student stated that he had been learning it because it is a school subject. When asked to evaluate the importance of EL on the scale from 1 to 5, the average mark given was 4.84 and almost all of them agreed that EL was necessary for continuing education (except from 1 student). The results revealed that 78% of the students were satisfied with the EL knowledge they had gained, although most of them estimated their EL skills to be on the intermediate level, more precisely: 8% of the students marked pre-intermediate level, 50% intermediate, 42% upper-intermediate and 4% advanced level. These results comply with the results gained with the task to evaluate individual language skills. When asked what they had been doing to improve their EL knowledge, the students stated different ways: reading books/newspapers, the Internet, communication with foreigners, and as many as 52% resort to watching films and listening to music. However, 72% of the students regarded their present EL knowledge as sufficient for their general needs in the future.

The next part of the questionnaire focused on students' future prospects. They were to state the faculties they were planning to enroll and preferred professions, and 6 questions focused on EL teaching were regarding their future plans. As many as 89% of students expressed the opinion that EL would be necessary for their future profession. The findings of this study revealed that 68% of students perceived communication to be the most important language skill they would need in the future, whereas 10% of the students responded that all language skills were important. As regards communication, results of the study indicated that the competence of engaging in conversation should be further developed because 34% of the students responded that they anticipated difficulties with that language skill, and quite surprisingly 28% anticipated difficulties with grammar. 30% of the students recognized the lack of knowledge of specialised vocabulary. The most important results for this study were provided by the next question addressing ESP. The students were asked whether they had been learning the vocabulary that would be useful to them at studies. As many as 60% responded negatively whereas 35% responded affirmatively, and 5% did not provide answers. Subsequently the students were to provide suggestions based on their preferences regarding the future school work. The responses proved that students are aware that it is not enough to know GE in order to attend the faculty for 46% stated vocabulary specific for their field of study as a preference. As regards students' expectations from studying EL at the next level of education, 70% of the students expected to develop EL knowledge. The results to the final question turned out to be interesting – when asked what language skills the students expected to improve at faculties all skills were marked in almost equal percentage. The interview that followed focused on answers to the questions regarding suggestions and ideas for school work.

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5. IMPLICATIONS

As may be deduced from the presented results many of the students are not well-prepared for the specific English courses in their field of study and have not yet developed the ability to communicate effectively in English. Students' language proficiency level can determine the ESP teaching and the study proves that students' problems with communication may hinder their further ESP studying. Given that, three approaches to learning can be seen as desirable to be applied. The *communicative* approach to teaching proves to be appropriate method to address learners' wants and future needs. The identification of communication as the main necessity means that syllabus should be focused on everyday life contexts and situations to reinforce communicative competence and improve proficiency. In order to meet students' needs teachers should adopt the *learning centered* approach developed by Hutchinson and Waters (1987). That approach focuses on what students should do in class to develop different skills and learn language items with the emphasis on the appropriate content and communication within the classroom. The survey results impose *learner-centered* approach proposed by Altman (1980) and considered to be a cornerstone of a successful language learning. As students' individual differences and plans have been revealed, those differences should be addressed accordingly through appropriate instructions. ESP instructions, activities and methods should be learner-centered designed in such a way to meet individual needs and allow each student to develop their potentials. Introducing ESP also imposes another advisable approach - *genre* based approach with emphasis on materials and tasks based on authentic linguistic data.

The main contribution of the survey is that the results imply that it is advisable to introduce ESP vocabulary learning since the knowledge of the specific vocabulary/lexis/jargon is of great importance. In Hutchinson and Waters terms the knowledge of the jargon can be regarded as necessity since that is "what the learner needs to know in order to function in the target situation effectively" (Hutchinson and Waters 1987, 55). Therefore, teachers' task is to at least basically acquaint students with the vocabulary specific for the field they will be studying and dealing with. The fact is that teaching ESP at secondary school level is bounded since ESP and the field of study are intertwined because the knowledge of the field is necessary in ESP teaching, and the students have not had experience in the lectures from chosen science or occupation. Therefore the specialized language learning will hardly exceed that basic level and cannot be further deepened and thorough.

The oral interviews aimed to determine what field specific vocabulary should be introduced and by what techniques. The questionnaire and the following interview revealed that students interested in the fields of Economy are satisfied with the knowledge gained at school. All 8 of them regarded as valuable what they had learned on formal letters writing, money and trade vocabulary, tourism vocabulary, telephone conversations. Students whose future area of interest will be Education (3 students), Geography (3 students) and Law (5 students) shared the opinion that they were familiar with basic vocabulary but that they could benefit from additional practice. The familiarity of specialized vocabulary was recognized as a lack by the students planning to continue education in the following fields: Medicine (8), Faculty of Organizational Sciences (5), Political Sciences (4), Pharmacy (5), Electrical Engineering (3) and Natural Sciences (6 students). 9 students had not decided yet what they would study.

Defining the learners' necessities and analysing the curriculum made obvious that the teacher should be willing to make the necessary changes if he wanted to meet the students' needs. Recognizing items or abilities important to students, or which they are not good at, should help the teacher with planning and administrating classes more successfully and effectively. Thus, the teacher is to assume the role of an advisor and provide materials, situations activities and tasks that involve real communication and use of a specific vocabulary. Therefore, the teacher should resort to additional materials that compensate for the lack of texts dealing with the subjects the students had chosen. Since

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secondary school teachers are not ESP experts they may select from already existing materials developed by specialists and combine them according to learners' needs and change them according to target situation. ESP vocabulary can be taught by use of similar techniques used for practising GE vocabulary. Different texts dealing with topics related to the subject area can be found and the teacher should create comprehension activities and exercises on vocabulary to be done with the groups of students formed according to their future field of study. Oral interviews also revealed that when choosing adequate teaching method and techniques even traditional methods could prove to be useful. Students explained that the introduction the *grammar translation* method employed on specific authentic texts can be useful way to present and introduce specific jargon and that the use of mother tongue would facilitate the learning. Specialized terminology is introduced in context, and the terms translated into the native language leave no room for misunderstanding.

The analysis imposed a new role for the students, as well. Being in the centre of the teaching process the students were to choose the teaching techniques and methods to satisfy their interests best. They agreed that the best way to deal with specific vocabulary is by applying various task-based, activity-based and problem solving techniques within their groups. Students suggested they investigate and present an area of future study as a project work. They were encouraged to conduct research using variety of different resources, including the Internet. Reading some books and articles related to the subjects they will be studying in the future proved to be useful as well. As a result students were able to express their creativity and a motivation level rose when they were doing something that was evidently useful and in line with their needs. Completed projects brought a great deal of satisfaction to both a teacher and students who gave their best to contribute to the group. Depending on the field of study projects were of various kinds and focused on different aspects. For instance, a group of students interested in medicine and pharmacy did role plays on the situations they would probably find themselves in while attending universities or after graduating; the group of students interested in Faculty of Organizational Sciences chose to present jobs they hope to be working in the future, and even made a very amusing commercial for the Faculty.

All things considered the best way to deal with ESP at this level is by relying on eclectic approach (Tarone and Yule 1989) that combines exercises, techniques and teaching styles from different methods. It can be noted that while introducing ESP in GE classroom teaching process is shifting from teaching to learning what also improves the key competences proposed by the Ministry of Education².

6. CONCLUDING REMARKS

One contribution of this study is proving needs analysis to be an indispensable step in evaluation of teaching methodology in any language teaching as it contributes to more efficient designing materials and carrying out classes. This method was sufficient in extracting relevant information to achieve the objectives of the study. In this case it proved to be the principal method for redesigning teaching aims, teaching methods and materials in order to provide each student the framework to meet the needs of a future (academic) career. It may be concluded that a thorough analysis of learners' needs leads to effective strategies applied to improve the teaching process and its results.

The paper has proved Dudley-Evans' point that ESP features can be used in senior secondary school classes (Dudley-Evans 1998, 5). The paper has also established that the separating line between ESP and GE is very vague (Anthony 1997), and ESP, as a part of a language system, cannot be taught in isolation and depends on GE knowledge. It can be said that ESP has already entered GE classroom

² Eight key competences include: communication in mother tongue; communication in foreign languages; mathematical competence; digital competence; learning to learn; interpersonal; intercultural and social; entrepreneurship.. CHECK THIS

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by using teachers' own specialist knowledge of using English for real communication and use of "authentic language", the language as it is used by native speakers in real life situations, as often as possible. In the language learning process what is learned in GE classes is usually continued with ESP and that division can be sad to be rather formal. When secondary school teachers try to meet the needs of their students' future professions they actually build the bridge between GE and ESP. Secondary school teachers are not ESP experts but having in mind the their students' professional development they become creators of that valuable link. The stronger the link is, the greater benefit students will have.

A survey indicates that students have clear perceptions of their language needs for further studies or occupational purposes mostly regarding communication. It also shows that GE taught at secondary schools in Serbia does not satisfy the needs of all students equally considering their plans for the future. Therefore, the integration of ESP of different fields in secondary schools is recommended and ESP can be considered as a valuable complement to GE. Acknowledging that much of what is taught is based on curriculum, and teacher's belief, the paper has proved that English teachers should consider the idea of fulfilling students' goals regarding their future, and not only follow the set curriculum.

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Significance of Pragmatic Competence for Business English Learners

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Abstract: Pragmatic competence is the ability of language learners to communicate effectively and to use speech acts in socially appropriate ways. Firstly, this paper analyzes the role of English language as the primary language for international business communication. Due to the trend of globalization around the world, companies enter the global market and become more and more internationalized. Employees in multi-national companies are required to possess a certain level of knowledge of English language. Secondly, the paper deals with Business English learners and their specific needs based on their professional context. They need to adequately communicate and take part in work-related situations, such as telephoning, meetings, negotiations, entertaining business partners, in order to conduct business successfully. This paper considers these business situations and the importance of being capable of participating in challenging activities and avoiding communication failure. Additionally, the paper deals with issues related to importance of development of pragmatic competence. Since achieving pragmatic competence in order to become communicatively competent is of great significance, teaching pragmatic competence is widely regarded as an integral part of learning and teaching a language. Finally, the author proposes classroom activities which enhance the learners' adequate and effortless use of business English language.

Key words: pragmatics, pragmatic competence, business English language learner, work-related language needs

1. INTRODUCTION

During the second half of the 20th century due to expansion in science, technology and economy the demand for one primary international language led to accepting English as the language for international communication. The dominance of English used as a lingua franca in international business context is now beyond dispute and English is and intrinsic part of communication in multinational settings and a fact of life for many business people (Nickerson, 2005:368). International business community is characterized by a multinational workforce continually moving and communicating across borders, leading to numerous situations in which English is frequently used by non-native speakers.

2. TEACHING BUSINESS ENGLISH

Business English (BE), as relatively recent development, has its roots in ESP and it has attracted increasing interest. BE became an independent area of study in the late eighties and early nineties, due to the globalization of trade and commerce, which made it necessary for business people to move out of their home countries and work across national, linguistic and cultural boundaries. Business people found themselves operating in bilingual and multilingual occupational settings (Swales, 2000:59). The

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networks of interpersonal relations of the business world are complicated. They involve business-customer relations, business-business relations, and relations between different departments/sections of the same business (Ellis and Johnson, 2002). The participants in the relational networks differ in many aspects such as access to knowledge of professional practice, market positions, power relations, and the frames of reference and cultural norms and conventions in the case of intercultural communication. Such differences play a significant role in interpersonal interaction as they help shape the structure of the interaction and induce strategic use of language.

BE is concerned with teaching communication rather than just language forms and skills. There is an increasing awareness that the teaching BE is an interdisciplinary endeavor. Therefore necessary research needs to be conducted in three fields: subject knowledge, business practice and language skills and they should be integrated. After all, communication requires knowledge of the subject matter of communication, the procedure of and strategies and tactics for communicating the message, and the professional contexts in which linguistic choices are made.

BE itself has become an umbrella term including English for General Business Purposes (EGBP) and English for Specific Business Purposes (ESBP) (St, John, 1996:3). EGBP courses are formed on the basis of learners' general language level rather than on their job requirements. Such a course is focused on traditional four skills and grammar and vocabulary development. On the other hand, ESBP courses are organized for experienced learners who bring business knowledge to language learning course. These courses need to be carefully tailored and focus on language skills and specific business communicative events.

3. PRAGMATICS AND PRAGMATIC COMPETENCE

Pragmatics has been regarded as one of the grounding branches of linguistics. There are numerous definitions of pragmatics. Pragmatics is the term used to refer to the field of study where linguistic features are considered in relation to users of the language (Levinson, 1983:7). According to Crystal (1985: 240), pragmatics is the study of language from the point of view of users, especially of the choices they make, the constraints they encounter in using language in social interaction and the effects their use of language has on other participants in the act of communication. Pragmatics is the study of communicative action in its sociocultural context. Communicative action includes not only speech acts - such as requesting, greeting, and so on - but also participation in conversation, engaging in different types of discourse, and sustaining interaction in complex speech events. Yule (1996: 3) points out that pragmatics is concerned with: the study of speaker meaning and meaning as communicated by a speaker and interpreted by a listener, the study of contextual meaning and it involves the interpretation of what people mean in a particular context, the study of how more gets communicated than it is said and how a great deal of what is unsaid is recognized as part of what is communicated, the study of the expression of relative distance and the question of what determinates the choice between the said and the unsaid and the study of the relationships between linguistic forms and the users of those forms.

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The notion of pragmatic competence originates from pragmatics. Pragmatic competence is a component of communicative competence and one of the earliest definitions of pragmatic competence has been proposed by Hymes (1971) and it divided the notion of communicative competence into grammatical and pragmatic competence to achieve a desired communicative effect. Leech (1983) sees pragmatic competence as the speaker's and writer's ability to accomplish goals which require not only getting things done but also attending to interpersonal relationships with other participants. Crystal (1985:243) relates pragmatic competence to the use of language in social interactions. Bachman's (1990) model of language competence highlights the awareness that the achievement of communicative competence does not end up with improving learners' grammatical knowledge and requires the development of pragmatic competence. Pragmatic competence is determined as the ability to communicate effectively and involves knowledge beyond the level of grammar. It is a process of achieving full communicative competence in a target language. Rose and Kasper (2001:60) defined as the speaker's ability to employ different linguistic resources in an appropriate way for a given context. Chomsky defined pragmatic competence as the knowledge of conditions and manner of appropriate use of the language, in conformity with various purposes. Canale and Swain (in Rose and Kasper, 2001:57) included pragmatic competence as one important component in communicative competence. Pragmatic competence was identified as sociolinguistic competence and was defined as the knowledge of contextually appropriate language use. Pragmatic competence refers to the communication activities in the language people use.

Since English language is seen as an important element for conducting successful business, it is priority for business people to be able to confidently and adequately use the language in order to accomplish business goals effectively. For that reason it is of great importance to incorporate pragmatic competence development activities in a productive BE course.

4. BUSINESS ENGLISH LEARNERS AND THEIR PROFESSIONAL NEEDS

Business English learners (BELs) are usually employees in multi-national companies who have specific needs based on their professional context of communication. They are required to possess a certain level of knowledge of English language and to be prepared to work in various environments. Therefore they are people who know exactly why they are learning the language and they do not only need to know general English, they also need to develop a range of communicative and pragmatic competences and to learn the functional language to perform specific tasks. Business people do not always need to know the full complexities of English grammar and they do not need only the ability to apply the grammatical rules of a language in order to form grammatically correct sentences but also to know when and where to use these sentences and how to adjust them to different situations. There are structural areas that might require more attention such as conditional sentences in negotiating, modality for expressing possibility. Also certain concepts are typically discussed in business-related situations, for example: describing changes and trends, quality, products, processes, strategies.

Frequently, they feel that BE courses do not sufficiently deal with their specific work related needs because there is a mismatch between the language taught for meetings, telephoning, negotiating

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and the language used in real-life meetings, telephoning, negotiating. Therefore a productive BE course must be adapted or, if possible, entirely designed in accordance with those needs.

A BE course aims at developing abilities and skills for learners to deal with real-life situations that they would encounter and the course should be adjusted to meet all needs including their need to learn and enhance their ability to participate in diverse situations and to adequately react when making phone calls, giving presentations, participating in meetings, conducting negotiations, entertaining clients or writing emails and reports. The BELs rely on knowing and recognizing language patterns in order to participate effortlessly in work related situations. If they fail to do that the communication fails as well.

5. EXAMPLES OF CLASSROOM ACTIVITIES

Teaching pragmatic competence is an integral part of teaching a language and the process of course designing. Pragmatic competence is not learned merely by exposure to the language and it requires teachers to teach the learners how to express themselves and how to make their own decisions about how to use the target language. It starts with encouraging learners to think about how a particular speech act differs in their own language. Firstly teachers need to offer explanations of how and why certain expressions are preferable in certain situations. For instance, if the learners want to complain on the phone, they need to be careful about the choice of the expressions because what seems acceptable in one might not be appropriate in another language.

A combination of exercises in textbooks and materials created by teachers for a specific group of learners provide learners with a wide range of necessary vocabulary related to business situations. BELs who take part in an international business environment find most useful exercises with actual examples of such situations.

Making telephone calls is one of the most frequent activities performed by business people. Nevertheless a lot of BELs feel uncomfortable and do not know how to answer the phone, make first contact, state the purpose of calling, ask for information, make excuses, make and/or change arrangements, apologize, make complaints and end a phone call confidently. In order to help them learn how to cope with telephoning, teachers need to draw their attention to each of these segments of making phone calls and start with introducing phrases they may find useful. A list of such useful phrases is the following:

Answering the phone:

Hello, John Peterson speaking.

Good morning, Data Tech.

Ken speaking.

Making contact:

I'd like to speak to Mary Johnson.

Could I speak to Sarah Thomson, please?

Could I have the sales department, please?

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Asking for information:

Could I have your name?

Can I take your number?

Can I ask who is calling, please?

It's a very bad line. Do you think you could call again? / Could you speak a bit louder?

Stating the purpose:

I'm calling about ...

The reason I'm calling is...

Making excuse:

I'm sorry he is in a meeting.

I'm afraid she is not available.

I'm not getting any answer at the moment. Would you like to try again later?

Mr Jackson is out at the moment.

I'm afraid he/she's not at his/her desk at the moment.

I'm afraid he/she's away on business.

Checking information:

Can you spell that, please?

Can I read that back to you?

Let me read that back to you.

Sorry, did you say?

Sorry, I did not catch that.

Could you repeat that please?

Let's just run through that again. The first one was...

Changing arrangements:

I'm afraid I can't come on Friday / then.

We've got an appointment for 11.00, but I'm afraid something's come up.

Can we fix another time?

Responding:

That'll be fine.

No sorry, I can't make it then.

My diary is rather full that day / week.

Sorry, I've already got an appointment at that time.

Apologizing / showing understanding:

I'm really sorry about that.
I understand how you feel.

Ending a call:

Ok, that's it. Thanks very much. That was very helpful.
I think that's everything.
Thanks for your help. Goodbye.
Thanks for calling.

After introducing useful phrases, BELs are asked to take a look at the following exercise and try to think how they would say the following things:

How would you react in the following situations?

1. *you are Simona Kent and you want to speak with David Cotton*

2. *you are David Cotton's secretary, he is in an important meeting, make excuse for your boss*

3. *you are David Cotton's secretary, ask the person who is calling for the reason of calling*

4. *you are David Cotton's secretary, ask for additional information, name, phone number, etc.*

5. *you are Simona Kent, explain the purpose of calling to David Cotton's secretary*

6. *you are Simona Kent, ask David Cotton's secretary to arrange a meeting for you and her boss on next Friday*

7. *you are David Cotton's secretary, you call Simona Kent the following day to apologize because your boss has to reschedule the meeting you scheduled for next Friday*

8. *you are Simona Kent, let David Cotton's secretary know that you are not happy about the rescheduling and insist that you have meeting as scheduled earlier*

9. *you are David Cotton's secretary, try to calm down Simona Kent, explain how busy your boss is and promise that this inconvenience will never happen again*

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10. you are Simona Kent, end phone call in a polite way although you are very upset

When they complete this exercise, BELs are asked to think what type of phone calls they make most often and to mark the phrases they find most useful for performing their jobs.

After practicing segments of making phone calls BELs are prepared to make a complete phone call. They are divided in pairs and each pair is given the following role play instructions:

Sara Alfonso's personnel manager calls reception manager of the Central Star Hotel to arrange accommodation for her.

Instructions for the personal manager:

You are a personnel manager of a publishing company. Your telephone number is 01753 320492. Call the Central Star Hotel to confirm a reservation for Sarah Alfonso for three nights for the period between Friday 22 April – Sunday 24 April. She will be arriving very early on Friday (around 5.30 AM), so ask the hotel if it is possible for her to get the room so early. She is vegetarian and would like to have a late lunch at the hotel. You will pay accommodation with a Visa Card, No. 4209 1802 3853 8620.

Reception Manager:

You are the Reception Manager of the Central Star Hotel. You will receive a call from someone confirming a hotel reservation. Note the caller's name, company and telephone number. Note also the name of the guest and all other details concerning the booking e.g. how the caller will pay, and any special requirements of the guest. The menu in your restaurant contains a wide selection of vegetarian meals. You are not sure if the room will be available so early but promise you will check that and confirm it later that day.

BELs are given time to discuss the situation in pairs and write the phone call. They are asked to present it. In the end they are encouraged to discuss what kind of problems they had in putting together such a phone call.

These and similar exercises help BELs build confidence and feel more comfortable to performing daily business tasks.

6. CONCLUSION

During the second half of the 20th century English became primary language in international business communication. Business people found themselves operating in diverse occupational settings and performed business activities mostly in English language. In the late eighties and early nineties this greatly affected language teaching and BE attracted increasing interest. Teaching English no longer meant teaching only grammar and vocabulary but it meant teaching learners how to effectively communicate in business environment. Pragmatics, as the study of language from the point of view of users and the choices they make, provides theoretical foundation for productive BE courses. In order to improve learners' pragmatic competence, teachers need to analyze their work-related language needs. A detail analysis of such needs gives teachers insights into what the learners use English for

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and learners' preferences. Consequently it gives them guidelines for designing a successful BE course. It is essential for a well prepared course to include practical activities which would enhance learners' ability to recognize language patterns and respond in the most adequate way in a wide range of business situations.

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An Overview of Business English Courses Development at the Faculty of Economics in Brčko: Past, Present and Future Tendencies

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Abstract: This paper presents a review of the practices in teaching Business English to students of Faculty of Economics in Brčko and Faculty of Business and Economics in Bijeljina (University of East Sarajevo). The teaching and learning experience is observed through the prism of ten years' work in the field of General and Business English and described from different points of view: from the position of a teaching assistant for courses English Language 1, and 2 and then from the professor's perspective as well. First of all, the paper aims to provide an overview of teaching in terms of various study programs which, over the course of the last ten years, have undergone many significant transformations (transition from both General and Business English to strictly Business English courses, changes in Business English curriculums, changes resulting from the termination of English courses in third and fourth year of undergraduate studies and, finally, the transition from two four semester to two one semester courses). The paper will examine the results of different teaching approaches and methods applied, as well as the forms of written and oral evaluation of students' knowledge whose variations occurred due to the changes of subject professors. In addition, the paper will devote an adequate attention to the most recent results of specific teaching methods and techniques applied in the field of Business English at the Faculty of Economics in Brčko, observed from the perspective of its students. The special emphasis will be placed on those students who spent some time studying in English-speaking countries as well as those who, after they were awarded the title of Professor of English Language and Literature, decided to continue their education in the field of economics.

Key words: Business English, new technological aids, teaching methods, extracurricular activities

1. INTRODUCTION

Since it was founded in 1976, the Faculty of Economics in Brčko, which now operates as an organizational unit of the University of East Sarajevo, has had the study of foreign languages integrated in its curriculum. Up to school year 1989/1990, when certain changes made courses English language 1 and 2 obligatory, it was possible to take one of the four electives: English, German, Russian or French. However, the importance of English language, epitomized by the fact that every continent except Antarctica has at least one English-speaking country (Antarctica has no countries and no permanent population so, naturally, there are no English-speaking countries there) combined with the situation where this language has undoubtedly taken a leading role in the field of business communications and international agreements, consequently led to the abandonment of this

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multilingual practice. Beside the fact that this language is indisputably the primary language of science, global trade and commerce, latest-version applications and programs, new freeware, shareware, peer-to-peer, social media networks and websites, several other reasons influenced this decision to a great extent. The first one was rationalization – it was very difficult for a small organization, such as the Faculty of Economics in Brčko, to find resources and organize classes for relatively small number of students who opted for non-English courses. The second reason reflected in requirements for knowledge of English which started to appear more and more often in job advertisements. Knowing English began to open employment opportunities in many countries and markets, since many companies were looking for dynamic and versatile individuals who were not only qualified and experienced but also able to communicate in various languages, especially in English. Therefore, learning English improves one's chance of getting the position that he or she really wants. All this reasons strengthened the will of Faculty's management to implement their idea in full and make English courses obligatory.

Since then, English language courses have undergone many transformations. Those changes were sometimes welcomed and sometimes criticised by both students and faculty members. However, over the past ten years, they gradually shaped the process of teaching English into what it is today: a course that aims to prepare future entrepreneurs for turbulent and, hopefully, successful and productive business life.

2. A BRIEF HISTORY OF THE DEVELOPMENT OF COURSES ENGLISH LANGUAGE 1 AND ENGLISH LANGUAGE 2

Academic year 2003/04 brought several significant changes in the domain of teaching a foreign language at the Faculty of Economics in Brčko. These changes were primarily marked by retirement of the former professor in charge, Silvija Mitrovic. With over 250 students of the first year only and large groups that consisted of up to forty students, there was a need for the admission of new teachers. For that reason, the Faculty employed a new assistant, Bojan Medjedovic. Finding a new professor in charge turned out to be much more complicated task. The specific situation in Bosnia and Herzegovina, as well as special characteristics of Brčko area, significantly affected work of the Faculty, too. Faculty of Economics in Brčko functioned then, as it functions now, within University of East (then Serbian) Sarajevo. This meant that wages and benefits for employees were coming from the budget of the Republic of Srpska, and therefore were significantly lower than those in the Brčko District. For that reason, the salary of a university professor was lower than the salary of a teacher in a primary school in the District. Consequently, the small number of professors and masters of English language and literature opted for jobs in primary schools and high schools, rather than for jobs at University. Unable to hire a proper teacher for the subject, the Faculty authorized assistant Ninoslava Paravac for verification of attendance and evaluation of students' knowledge.

In an effort to shape the teaching process best way they could, the two young assistants distributed courses English language 1 and 2 in a way that Bojan Medjedovic got the course English language 1, where general English was learned, while Ninoslava Paravac, as more experienced employee, was put in charge of English language 2, which covered area of Business English.

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Since careful observation showed that undifferentiated practice groups were not most optimal for successful teaching, a system of forming groups through knowledge tests was introduced. Although working with groups that consisted of both students who did not have English as a subject in high school and those who had brought the highest grades from English was much easier for professors (thanks to the fact that students with prior knowledge were active and answered most questions, so they accelerated the pace of learning in class), this approach showed its weaknesses in the first few months. Formation of groups based upon the principle of alphabetical order of last names had numerous disadvantages: while more advanced students were bored with explanations of basic grammar rules, and thus lost motivation to work, students with very little or no experience in the field of English language were facing constant difficulties. The latter even admitted publicly, on several occasions, that the fear they were experiencing when it came to verbal communication with their assistants did not come from the teachers; they were terrified of possible reactions and potential mocking by their more advanced colleagues. Precisely that was the reason to resort to differentiation of students in groups according to the level of knowledge. At the beginning of semester, all students took tests according to which they were sorted into four groups, where groups 1 and 2 were reserved for lower and 3 and 4 for higher levels of knowledge. Advantages of this approach were numerous: students beginners entered more freely into conversation in a foreign language, they were freer with reading, translating and answering questions, while students at higher levels got more opportunities for conversation and additional activities. Thus, it was possible to harmonize working tempo based upon the characteristics of the groups, which certainly led to better and higher quality work.

As a course, English language 1 was based upon the following principles: students of the first year attended lectures and practice classes on a weekly basis. The lecture (two school lessons) was attended by all students together, while practice classes (two school lessons) were attended by groups of students. Textbook used in first two semesters was Oxford's New Headway Elementary. On the second year the textbook used was pre-intermediate level of the same edition. After they have attended four semesters, students would take an exam. The written exam consisted of a test of grammar and vocabulary previously taught, and then there was an oral exam which consisted of three parts: reading, translation and conversation with the professor. The concept of the English language 2 exam was based upon the same principle. The only difference was in the choice of the textbook (In Company, Pre-intermediate and Intermediate) and the fact that a written exam involved writing business correspondence on the given topic.

In the school year 2007/08 the Faculty employed a professor from the Faculty of Foreign Trade in Bijeljina. Teaching process continued to function on the same principle as before. However, in order to completely transform the course into Business English, a new textbook was chosen (English 365, Cambridge University Press), which did not turn out to be the most appropriate choice for learning language at the Faculty. Considering the insufficient number of articles for reading and translation and the fact that it was very often based on previous business experience, the textbook was soon dismissed. Apart from the introduction of the new book, there were other changes primarily reflected in the new course called English language 3. Lectures were held on the second, third and fourth year, with knowledge assessment tests after each two semesters. Yet, this working method was soon abandoned and a new system was introduced, which has been used even today. The new system comprised two courses: English language 1 (winter semester of the first year, In Company Pre-

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Intermediate, first half of the book) and English language 2 (summer semester of the second year, second half of the book). Sadly, with this new approach, the Faculty of Economics lost one of its most recognizable characteristics, which was learning English language during the entire study period.

The following few years brought another significant changes in the domain of personnel, reflected in changes of another two professors and departure of the former assistant, Ninoslava Paravac. However, in 2010 assistant Bojan Medjedovic gets a master's degree and becomes elected to the position of the teacher in the domain of Business English. Thus the fluctuation in the teaching staff stabilized, at least when it comes to this course, and also the evaluation system, which had varied to a greater or lesser extent, thanks to the changes of teachers.

3. THE USE OF NEW TECHNOLOGICAL AIDS

New information technologies are increasingly being adapted and integrated into the educational process at the Faculty of Economics in Brčko. Due to the ongoing modernization, which is primarily reflected in installing projectors and internet connections in the main amphitheatres and setting up a high quality audio system in the premises provided for the freshmen and sophomore, the teaching strategies in general have been largely modernized. This infusion of technology into academic education has presented new avenues by which professors could enrich and enhance their activities and support pedagogy and learning. The adoption and use of these technologies in the delivery of instruction created only positive reactions and consequences. Student body, accustomed to the traditional classroom approach (which, in their primary and secondary schools was primarily based on the chalkboard method and occasional use of a CD player), responded very well to the new and innovative ways of teaching. To illustrate, even the simple and small things, such as the classical audio workout that requires filling in the gaps of less familiar songs' lyrics or choosing one of two answers with a similar meaning or sound can be enriched by HD video displayed on the big screen which infallibly leads to creating a positive atmosphere, maintaining students' concentration, raising spirits and serves as a good preparation for the rest of the class. The effect is even more striking if a teacher, after distributing the text, performs a song accompanied by a musical instrument connected to a modern sound system. Although, at the first sight, this approach may seem inappropriate for an academic lecture, reactions always prove to be more than encouraging: students begin to perceive the teacher as a "human being" - that is, not as a rigid professorial figure that has devoted its life solely to science but as someone who is ready to put in additional effort in order to make several hours of lectures more interesting. Other ways to start a lecture can be equally efficient. The use of computer games and learning applications such as Business English Hangman, a collection of Hoyle Word Games and Longman's Language Games, due to their vividness and humour, can adequately serve as a great warm-up activity and provide an easy and unobtrusive introduction to serious vocabulary or grammar issues. It is quite enough to form three or four groups of competitors who will strive to achieve the best possible results, in order to form a healthy competition at the very beginning of lectures or exercises. This competition will be additionally stimulated and encouraged by each next

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task no matter how serious or demanding it proves to be. This way, it is possible to lay the foundation for a successful class practically even before we get engaged in a serious work.

However, although helpful to a large extent, the new technical aids are often insufficient to ensure successful teaching. The analysis of information obtained through student surveys conducted at the University of East Sarajevo every semester has led to several important findings regarding currently the most popular form of visual presentations – PowerPoint software. Student feedback has shown an interesting phenomenon: while, in the case of senior teachers, the use of new computer-based technologies itself has been hailed as a significant step forward, in cases of younger teachers the student population seemed to be much more rigorous. The comments revealed that PowerPoint presentations, created simply by transferring some fundamental thesis or a part of course book text on the screen, often elicit the same feeling as writing with a chalk on the board. Moreover, the conclusion suggests that the poor and uninventive slides can be counterproductive – they often make it look as if a teacher designed them with the minimum of effort and put together something to serve more as a personal reminder than as a means of clarifying problems at hand. If we expend this analysis further by including responses made by high school students who took part in the "experimental class" (Business English class attended by both high school undergraduates and first-year students of the Faculty), one can see that the thing that immediately captured the attention of young audience was colourful and detailed audio/visual presentation. These data clearly testify in favour of the fact that keeping up with technology does not necessarily lead to good teaching; it is essential to make the extra effort in order to transform the available technical devices into tools for providing improvements in the particular field of education. The experience with English language courses, both at the Faculty of Economics in Brčko and in other faculties, has practically demonstrated the validity of this conclusion. It turned out that even just by a few simple "tricks", such as the proper selection of animated PowerPoint templates, especially those which are aligned with the business subject matter that is being addressed, can significantly strengthen the impression of the presentation and thus the effect of the teaching process as a whole. For example, a lesson that analyses the techniques for effective time management and explains how dependent we are on time can fit greatly in an animated template where the hands separate from the clock and fade into the distance or chase in circles at high speed and so on. Also, active theme-based presentations, especially those that are amusing and somewhat humorous, can make a serious lesson in the field of general and business English far more interesting and ensure constant maintenance of observers' attention (e.g. an overview of the differences between The Simple Present Tense and The Present Continuous Tense can be done through the presentation inspired by the famous TV show - The Simpsons).

If the teacher does not mind making an additional effort and if he/she strives to facilitate the work of their students, it is important not to forget one element that is always especially welcomed. This element is primarily reflected in the transmission of each exercise directly to the projector as well as in displaying the correct answers on the screen. Providing correct and clearly presented answers in the same form in which they are to be written in the textbooks completely prevents any kind of confusion that can arise from lack of clear visibility (as it is often the case with chalk/blackboard method) and inaccurate or indistinct answering. It also enables a significant time saving. However, although this method of presenting undoubtedly contributes to better teaching, it is also very demanding since it requires extensive and careful preparation. Designing each slide in details, starting

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from the choice of the used font, the animated gifs retrieval, the image stacking and audio and video file insertion have neither been a simple nor a short-term endeavour. Formatting might take up to several hours and, if materials require Photoshop processing, presentation can turn into a really long project. However, once the rich audio-visual unit is completed, a designer/teacher will be able to use the same material (with possible some minor adjustments and modernization) until the syllabus changes. In that way, all the hard work pays off over and over again. Most importantly, the progress in the work of those to whom these slides are primarily intended becomes clearly visible. This is further illustrated by the fact that, in the most reason survey of the students who regularly attend lectures, in 95% of examinees, English language got the maximum score in the part where students grade preparedness for classes.

Apart from presentations, quality audio-video resources play a very important role as powerful and unique classroom materials. Summaries of unsuccessful organization of a business meeting or unproductive telephone communication contrasted with the positive examples give an opportunity for discussions, comments and suggestions. Also, humorous sketches that demonstrate a particular use of a verb tense (e.g. Headway pre-intermediate video), accompanied by the necessary supporting material distribution, can serve as a very interesting and fun exercise. Combined with the proper worm-up activities and the aforementioned PowerPoint presentations, these audio and video resources create a powerful foundation for innovative and interesting classes.

4.INDEPENDENT AND GROUP WORK OF STUDENTS

When it comes to independent and group work in the classroom, problems stemming from the fear of Business English (of which students often have false notions and perceive it as something incomprehensible and particularly complicated) come to the fore. United with the “stage fright” (students often tend to experience anxiety when faced with a full amphitheater), this fear can be a cause of serious difficulties. There are rather rare cases when individuals dare to take on certain obligations and demonstrate their knowledge in front of teachers and peers. One of the quality ways to overcome these obstacles seems to be working in small groups. Beside the fact that this type of organizing develops teamwork and inter-personal skills, group work also provides gradual, step-by-step approach toward individual experiences and projects. Since different types of seminar and homework papers are not sufficient enough, due to the fact that a good knowledge in the domain of business terminology as well as the leadership abilities are of utmost importance for the future of a young businessman/businesswoman, students should have the opportunity to step on the podium designed for teachers, as often as possible, not only for the reasons of writing on the board (although this approach must not be neglected in any way) but to take the role of a lecturer, as well. The first step in this direction can be achieved in the worm-up section of the class. The aforementioned computer applications, designed for the purposes of learning English language will take students out of their seats and get them in front of the cathedra computer. Also, vocabulary and grammar exercises, such as English Grammar in Use CD-ROM or similar multimedia workbooks, are one of the reasons for students to abandon their usual roles of passive observers and to select, check and explain their answers to the rest of the class. In this way, more insecure individuals will dare to take the initiative,

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firstly in small groups, alongside their more successful colleagues and then even independently. After they get used to this model and start to speak out freely, students should be faced with another, more serious step. This step can be reflected in delegating certain tasks of lesser complexity. In other words, a small group of volunteers can be enabled to, in a controlled environment and emulating the style of their teacher, explain an article from the textbook, explain unfamiliar business terms (PowerPoint presentation mandatory) and ask questions related to the text they covered. Also, it is possible for individuals, who seem to be capable of this venture, to present and clarify a certain grammatical problem. However, in both cases it is necessary to be very careful because the volunteers, despite great effort they put into it, often prove to be rather unsuccessful in their attempts to fill in the teacher's shoes.

The third step, which usually comes last, seems to be most challenging for students who decide for it. It includes the practical application of knowledge adopted. To illustrate, we will explain this approach in teaching with first-year students. Since several textbook lessons deal with the problems of product/service presentation and investment providing, at the end of the semester students are offered the opportunity to independently design, develop and elaborate a presentation in which their main task will be to convince their teacher - a venture capitalist, to invest his money in their new business idea. Students are given a certain period of time for the necessary preparations after which they submit an application for a meeting in a written form. The application also contains all the basic information regarding the purpose of the proposed meeting. The performance itself is evaluated on a variety of levels, ranging from language skills, through the quality of presentation in all its segments to the way in which students customize their appearance to the requirements of the situation.

A few small surprises can additionally contribute to the quality of these small but very important projects such as recording of the entire event and the formation of the committee that will evaluate the presentation (all this without any prior announcement). The mere formality of the event and the publication of the video on the official web page of the Faculty (after its technical processing and with the full consent of the participants) will stimulate future young entrepreneurs to engage in more serious tasks. The student feedback we have received so far - both from those directly involved in the projects and those who comprised the audience - brought nothing but positive reactions and encouragement to continue with practicing of these mini forms of independent work.

5. THE IMPORTANCE OF EXTRACURRICULAR ACTIVITIES FOR TEACHING BUSINESS ENGLISH

On 22nd November 2012 the Faculty of Economics in Brčko was officially established English Club S11. As a non-profit organization, the Club was formed with the intention to help its members to, through socializing, cooperation and direct contact with the teachers, further develop their knowledge in the field of Business English. The Club is completely open, which means that, in addition to current and former students, it gathers a significant number of high school students and other interested individuals from the Brčko District of Bosnia and Herzegovina.

The Club was formed as a sort of supplement to the process of studying at the Faculty. The members have three teachers of English language and literature at their disposal as well as the capability to work in smaller groups. All of this gives them the chance for additional clarification of

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problems related to the fields of business meetings, negotiations, business presentations, telephoning, faxes and e-mails etc. Working with groups of three or four has enabled the introduction of some additional ways of learning such as handouts which include the matching of business terms with their definitions, the simulation of business meetings, the various forms of business communication based on delegated roles, and so on. The material addresses a wide range of adult themes from a variety of professional areas but most of the activities do not require specialist knowledge. The activities are aimed at learners of Business English at pre-intermediate level or above. They can be done by in-service learners: people who need English for their work. Most of the activities can also be done in their existing form by pre-service learners: people training for a career in the business world. The fact that, even during midterms, members of the Club refused to postpone the meetings only shows how interesting Business English can be, if approached properly.

6. CONCLUSION

Activities in the area of teaching Business English, in addition to all their specificities, function on the same principles as the study of any other area of this language. Therefore, the experience gained in working with students majoring in economics can be incorporated into other work and be applied to other, more or less, related areas. This relation can equally and successfully operate in the opposite direction, and it is even possible to adjust the experience gained in learning other languages to the system of studying Business English.

This paper puts emphasis on relatively new teaching techniques that are used at the Faculty of Economics in order to help students of this college to, in an easier and successful way, cover all the material from syllabus of the subjects English language 1 and 2. More importantly, it helps them to gain the knowledge and skills necessary for surviving in a turbulent business environment. The paper stressed the importance of the innovative ways for presenting the material as well as the feedback from direct users – the things that greatly affect both the quality and the final outcome of the teaching process. It is obvious that, in addition to personal abilities of teachers to transfer knowledge and motivate students, the proper use of technical tools and encouragement to work independently represent a significant step toward achieving the desired goal. Their implementation enables the modernization of the teaching process, breaks the monotony and motivates learners, which undoubtedly leads to raising the overall quality of teaching.

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Exploiting Authentic Video Materials in Business English Teaching

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Abstract: The paper aims at looking into some ways in which teachers of foreign languages can incorporate authentic video materials in their lessons. Emphasis is placed on Business English teaching, although the approaches and techniques described are relevant to the EFL context in general. First, the paper provides a brief overview of how authenticity is defined by other authors. Some differences between authentic and graded textbook materials are outlined. Then it goes on to examine some approaches and techniques for teachers to design their own task-based activities and provides the rationale behind them. Authenticity of materials as a tool for raising cultural awareness is discussed in the context of global business and communications. The paper focuses on several examples from the author's own practice, demonstrates two types of video materials used with university students – a documentary and a reality show – and gives examples of several tasks based on them. Finally, follow-up activities are suggested which include the use of realia, web-based researches, etc.

Key words: authentic materials, competence, skills, target language, learner needs, learner motivation, cultural awareness

1. INTRODUCTION

Authentic materials have long been an integral part of mainstream foreign language teaching for a number of reasons. They contribute to the exposure of students to the target language used in natural, not pre-designed contexts, thus facilitating the development of their communicative competences, strategic skills and cultural knowledge.

One reason for teachers to include authentic materials in their courses lies in the nature of designed textbook materials. There are several features which outline the difference between the two types. In ready-to-use materials the language is changed in a controlled way, to adapt to the level of learners. Texts include carefully chosen vocabulary, structures are simplified or limited, length is also considered. This is generally beneficial to the learning process because learners get the sense of achievement and fulfillment. On the other hand, they are not fully exposed to the diverse features a language has, such as colloquialisms, slang, professional or age jargons, regional dialects, cultural peculiarities etc. Video and audio materials are also graded – speech and pronunciation features of utterances are controlled, a lot of repetition is involved in order to help comprehension and acquisition of particular language points, especially at the lower levels. Conversations are often devoid of

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additional noises or they are included unobtrusively. Inaccuracies of language, which occur in normal, everyday speech, are avoided. These are by no means drawbacks since language acquisition is a gradual, ongoing process and the different stages require different levels of ‘realness’ of the target language. However, graded textbook input alone does not prepare learners adequately for successful and satisfactory communication or other use of the target language in ‘live’ contexts. They sometimes report that when reading a newspaper, fiction or other non-graded sources they feel their knowledge is often insufficient. This is because learners face those features discussed above – slang, jargon, specialized vocabulary, lengthy texts etc. When watching video materials such as films or other programmes, the first feeling is often almost complete incomprehension. If they have to participate in real-life spoken intercourse, the experience may be daunting because their ear is not tuned in to the various accents and pronunciation patterns. Authentic materials are perceived by both teachers and learners as an essential supplement to textbooks, which compensates for the partial lack of the above mentioned linguistic and extra-linguistic features in graded materials.

Linguists, teachers and materials designers have focused their attention on a number of issues when considering how and how much to integrate authentic materials into the classroom. Such issues include: the difficulty and appropriateness of using authentic materials with low-level students; whether materials and tasks should be modified in order to prevent students from being put off by unfamiliar structures, vocabulary, accents and other features (Rogers & Medley 1988); how enthusiastic students are to interact with authentic materials. Chavez (1994) draws on issues related to a) the perceived difficulty of authentic texts, b) authentic texts’ contribution to language learning, c) learners’ reluctance or eagerness to interact with authentic texts and d) the factors determining authenticity.

A number of authors have given different definitions of authentic materials which, however, have one feature in common: these are materials not designed for the purpose of learning a foreign language. The standard definition of authentic as “produced by native speakers for native speakers” may be supplemented by Peacock’s view (1997) which states that these are ‘materials’ that have been produced to fulfill some social purpose in the language community. Such ‘materials’ add new value to the learning of a foreign language. Among the benefits are: creating a sense of naturalness in terms of meaningful communication, boosting learner and teacher motivation, as it presupposes a more creative approach to learning and teaching, providing a meaningful context for raising awareness of cultural issues, thus provoking learners’ intellectual curiosity both towards the target community and its language.

2. SPECIFICS OF THE BUSINESS ENGLISH CLASSROOM

Business English learners, both in-service and pre-service, are assumed to have at least some level of command of English, so they are not basic learners. In-service learners are already experienced in a given area of business and are often familiar with some of the specific terminology. Apart from learning vocabulary and structures, they usually need to become more confident with using these in real contexts. They need to understand spoken discourse in real business communication and to become equipped with the skills and strategies to cope in various business contexts. Pre-service

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learners, although lacking experience, usually do or have done studies in the relevant areas, so the least they have is some theoretical business background and are likewise minded.

What is taught in the Business English classroom falls into three main areas: a) Business English content, b) skills and c) raising cultural awareness. Authentic materials may prove beneficial to mastering the three aspects.

In terms of content, learners can see the specialized language ‘in action’, the way it is used in real business contexts. Through video materials they can master correct pronunciation of vocabulary which is not commonly used in everyday speech. Learners get more exposure to various accents and rates of speech, which is essential when doing business in the global world.

Apart from mastering certain specialized vocabulary, Business English learners need to develop the appropriate skills and strategies to carry out successful communication. Clifton (2005) talks about consciousness raising activities to help learners to develop strategies in business interaction such as politeness strategies in business meetings, giving criticism, repair strategies (modifying utterances), presentation skills etc. He suggests that authentic transcripts of business interactions can be used with students where they are asked to analyse them and identify the language to perform those functions. Learners, he argues, become more aware of how English works in those situations and therefore, more receptive to their acquisition. In addition, video materials provide learners with visual and audio cues so they are tuned in to the finer features of communication such as intonation, pitch of the voice, body language, speed of delivery, emotional state etc.

The cultural content has gained special significance when teaching and learning business English. Brown (2007, p. 380), defines culture as “the ideas, customs, skills, arts, and tools that characterize a given group of people in a given period of time.” Acquiring cultural knowledge is inseparable from learning a foreign language, since language reflects the culture of the target community. Reversely, the cultural content can be a powerful tool both for learner motivation and better acquisition. The question of how much culture and which culture or cultures should we focus on in order to optimize the learning process is another issue worth considering. Kilickaya (2004) emphasizes the importance of introducing various cultures, including learner’s own culture in order to create a deeper perspective and wider acceptance and tolerance. She mentions the metaphorical representation of this cultural integration as the ‘colour purple’ where one’s own cultural lens (blue) overlaps with the cultural lens of people from other cultures (red). This comes as the outcome of projecting learners’ own culture against the background of other cultures and results in creating respect for what is different. This is particularly relevant to Business English students, who need to acquire a good level of intercultural competence, what Tomalin (2008) calls cultural sensitivity and intercultural skills. Developing cultural awareness is the way to deal efficiently with other cultures. This, in business, is a vital skill as English is the medium of interaction and failure to display this sensitivity and tolerance may lead to misunderstandings, misinterpretations or even be a barrier to successful business transactions. Business English textbooks try to introduce the cultural element into their contents but it often takes second place to content and skills. When it happens, it is very often introduced through transcripts and photos from films, excerpts from books, newspaper article etc., which are authentic sources in their nature. Also, teachers often do not have experience with a lot of cultures, or if they do, it is sometimes purely theoretical. This raises the topic of how the cultural issue

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should be approached in order to make it dynamic and significant rather than just a section of the lesson. Authentic materials provide both examples and relevant contexts to demonstrate how cultural differences may affect business communication. Those examples vary from appropriateness and inappropriateness of behaviour, body language, mode of communication and reach to the deeply rooted mindset which determines matters such as levels of subtlety of disagreement, attitudes to work and risk, hierarchical or democratic relations etc. Teachers need to approach this from various perspectives. As Cullen (2000) states, a given culture must be revealed through various features – not only through the most attractive ones. Or as he puts it “we need to ‘sell’ different views of the culture to our students”. He calls these selling points, the features that sell a ‘product’ most successfully. Especially relevant here are video materials where learners may either witness interactions between cultures or justify the speaker’s choice of language or behaviour by looking at the cultural reasons underlying them.

Two things should be emphasized once again when considering using authentic materials. Firstly, learners’ curiosity and interest is better provoked when they feel they are tapping into the ‘real thing’. Secondly, the difficulty of a given piece of material should be carefully assessed before learners are subjected to it.

3. EXPLOITING AUTHENTIC VIDEO MATERIALS IN THE BUSINESS ENGLISH CLASSROOM

The increasing popularity of video materials is largely due to the fact that they influence learners through various cues – visual, audio, kinesthetic – thus providing a more complete perception of the target language. Also, in the mind of the learner the concept of enjoyment is essential and watching videos relates directly to it. Learners become more engaged since they perceive the activity at hand as entertaining, at the same time being aware of the practical implications of what they are doing. Using video materials, however, should not be for the sake of watching alone. In order to make the best of these advantages, the use of such materials should be based on carefully designed tasks with a clear rationale underlying them. Here is a possible procedure for teachers to design a set of tasks for students to do when working with authentic video materials.

The choice of material must be topic-oriented – to teach business vocabulary in a given content area (trading, finance, branding, entrepreneurship etc.) or to introduce and exemplify a particular business skill, for example dealing with questions, presenting and so on, or both, as is usually the case. In any case, the teacher needs to follow several steps in the preparation stage.

Firstly, having selected the piece of video material, teachers can make a full transcript of it in order to exploit the vocabulary to the fullest later in the lesson. This may also come useful if they decide to give it to the students either as a helping tool during the lesson or as a further reading after it.

Having the transcript in front of them, teachers can now start to choose which language points they want their students to practise and what types of activities to focus on. They can decide to introduce or consolidate terminology, functional exponents, metaphorical language, pronunciation of particular recurrent spellings, grammar, spot cultural peculiarities etc. Accordingly, each task should

be designed with a clear objective. Longer transcripts can be divided into chapters and each chapter can be given a separate title. Such chunking of the material will allow the teacher to use certain parts relatively independently of each other or to make a sequel of authentic video lessons.

When building a lesson on authentic video materials at least two stages should be considered – a lead-in stage and the main task-based stage. The lead-in introduces the topic of the video and warms students up for the following tasks. In this stage the teacher must supply enough activities to a) familiarize learners with the topic, b) input/ elicit some of the vocabulary to ensure that learners comprehend and do the following tasks successfully and c) give some background to what they are going to watch, including historical, economic, personal, cultural or any other information. These three things are especially important with pre-experienced learners or people who have little or no knowledge related to the video content. This stage can last for longer than typical lead-ins and may include other authentic or non-authentic materials such as newspaper articles, printed profiles of people or organisations, pictures, cut-up vocabulary exercises etc. Comprehensive pre-teaching is essential because even students with good command of general English may be hindered by too much specialized terminology. The following section contains two video materials with some tasks based on them.

4. VIDEO MATERIAL 1

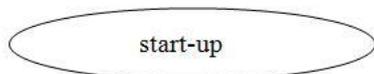
Learners watch an episode of a reality show (*Dragons' Den*) in which young entrepreneurs pitch a business plan to a board of five wealthy and influential investors. In return for the investment the entrepreneurs offer a certain percentage of equity stake in their company. The pitch is successful only if one or more of the investors agree to invest the money asked for at the beginning. The language points targeted are: a) vocabulary to do with entrepreneurship – starting a company, pitching a business plan b) functional language for presenting, handling questions, accepting, refusing, c) idiomatic expressions used in a business context, d) dealing with figures.

Possible lead-in activities:

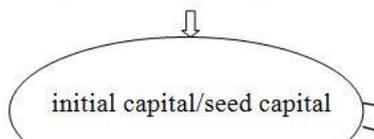
1. Through a series of questions the teacher elicits/teaches some of the vocabulary which learners will encounter in the video. The teacher draws a diagram on the board or writes the new vocabulary explaining it in the meantime.

Example questions and answers:

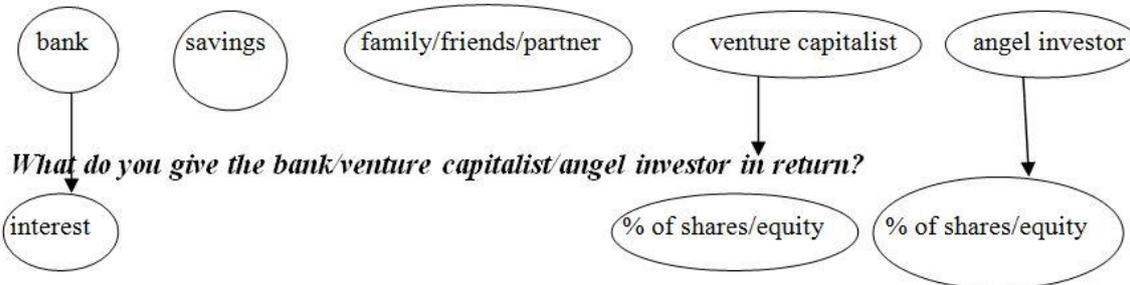
How do you call a company which has been just set up?



What do you need to start your own company?



Where does the seed capital usually come from? Where do you go if you need seed capital?



2. The teacher can extend this activity by handing out, in cut-up pieces of paper, the new terms and their respective definitions. Students work in groups to match them. After they have finished, the teacher can hand out worksheets with the terms matched up to the definitions and further clarify or emphasize some points if necessary. The rationale behind this is to allow more opportunities for learners to become confident with the vocabulary they will come across in the video. Here is a part of the worksheet:

equity	the value of a company's shares
venture capitalist	a person who invests in a business venture, providing capital for start-up or expansion
return on investment - ROI	the profit that you make from capital you have invested
rate of return - ROR	
a pitch	the things someone says to persuade people to buy something

3. With this particular video, the next step can be to familiarize the learners with the backgrounds of the investors. With bigger groups this could be done by dividing learners into small groups, 4 – 6 students, and with smaller groups, as a whole class activity. The teacher hands out the profiles of the investors. Each student reads a profile and shares the information with the other students in the group. Besides providing information, this activity allows speaking time and requires the use of the target language to fulfill a particular task – supplying information.

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Learners are now well-prepared and feel relatively confident about what they are about to watch. Practice shows that they are also interested enough to anticipate the watching stage.

4. Other lead-in activities may involve using printed authentic materials such as newspaper or magazine articles, photos, cartoons etc. which introduce the topic of the video material. Learners may be asked to discuss certain aspects of the printed material, express opinion, look for specific information (surprising facts, figures etc.) and share it with a partner. They can guess or anticipate information before it is supplied, rearrange words to come up with company slogans etc. The list is practically limitless as it will vary with the raw material and the individual objectives. The rationale is to back learners up with the necessary tools for the following tasks and to lead them smoothly into them.

The **‘while watching’** stage can be tailored to suit the needs of each learner or group of learners. This could include the whole range of activities employed in the classroom, as long as they are based on the watching material. As a video can be divided into chapters, what follows are some possible activities for each chapter:

1. *Focus on vocabulary* – These could focus on the different content areas of Business English – the language of marketing, branding, advertising, competition, management etc, depending on the material used. Gap-fill exercises can be included, focusing on different aspects of vocabulary. With this particular video they focus on the terms pre-taught in the lead-in stage, other terms which students have previously learned and can now revise, adjectives, prepositions and prepositional phrases, idiomatic expressions etc. Apart from the focus on particular linguistic items, general comprehension is always the underlying goal. Here are several ideas:

- Gap-fills – students watch the introduction to the programme once. They can listen for words from the warm-up and tick them on their worksheets. Then they are given another worksheet with gapped parts of the transcript. They watch the introduction for a second time and fill in the gaps.

Parts of the transcript can be summarized for the same purpose. Depending on the learners and on the procedure, the teacher may decide to supply the missing words in a jumbled order or not. The rationale is that students have ample practice of specialized vocabulary and feel confident to use it when a real-life situation arises.

- Question-and-answer activities are a straightforward way to a) check comprehension of specific information, b) focus on particular lexis, e.g. chunks, abbreviations or c) express opinions. Examples of the three types are listed below:

- a) *The next sequence is filmed in France and Switzerland at the HQ of two leading multinationals. Who are they?*
- b) *In globally competitive markets, companies need USPs. What does the abbreviation USP stand for?*
- c) *In the programme, WATER is described as the **‘ultimate commodity’**, **‘liquid gold’** as well as **‘the perfect product to illustrate how the best capital markets work’**. Discuss your understanding of these three descriptions with your partner (Trosch 2011).*

2. *Focus on figures* – Any time a video material includes such data, Business English learners will benefit from a focus on figures. Firstly because getting the figures right is vital in business and secondly, because a lot of learners often struggle with large numbers. Percentages and calculations need to be done quickly and they are an inseparable part in a lot of business areas – from creating and presenting a business plan to negotiating business deals. Such activities can be again gap-fills but this time only the figures are taken out. When designing the task, the teacher may decide to copy part of the transcript word for word or summarize this section where figures are involved. The second approach will make the task more difficult as learners will need to relate sections of the actual conversation/speech to the right part of the summary. Again, it is up to the teacher to decide how many clues to offer learners in order to facilitate their performance. Here is an example of such a summary without additional clues:

So far, it has cost Kirsty £ _____ to set the business up and she has sold _____ units. She projects she is going to sell _____ units in the first year. All her products contain _____ fat. (Answers: 20,000; 250,000; 300,000; less than 3%)

3. *Focus on idiomatic English* – a lot of idiomatic expressions are used in Business English. One way to focus on them is to design another gap-fill activity in which learners listen for missing metaphorical expressions. The number of the words can be pointed out by including the respective number of gaps for each phrase. After students have got the idioms right, they can try to provide an explanation of their meaning by looking at the context of the sentence they appear in. If the teacher wants to make this easier, he or she can give the explanations in a jumbled order and ask students to match them. Example:

*“I’m gonna give you £100,000, because that’s what I believe will be required to _____ and have the best chance of being successful.” (Answer: **get this business off the ground**)*

5. VIDEO MATERIAL 2

Learners watch a documentary (or part of it) on the biggest UK retail shop Tesco. The thematic areas covered by the material include: general information about Tesco; background information; expansion strategy; marketing strategy; main competitors and competitive advantage; distribution and logistics; product range and strategies to meet consumer demand; entering new areas of human activity – education, health etc.

Lead-in activities:

Students are given a list of the biggest retail supermarkets in the UK and are asked to guess which the biggest one is (*the market leader*). Then they guess the second biggest (*the challenger*). The rest are *the followers*. The teacher makes sure learners come up with or are taught the terms in italics. The next

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step can be asking learners to provide more information on Tesco or the teacher may supply this and ask learners to look for specific information.

While-watching stage: two sections are taken for the purposes of this paper.

INTRODUCTORY SECTION – two extracts are discussed here.

Extract 1 – suggested activities:

Learners are given the following phrases and are asked what they are - ‘I’m loving it’, ‘Just do it’ (Slogans of McDonald’s and Nike).

Learners watch the extract and then answer questions and do gap-fill exercises to focus on specialized terminology. Here are some of the questions designed.

- What is Tesco’s market share in the UK? *Answer:* nearly a third of the UK grocery market
- How do you call a business like Tesco selling directly to customers? *Answer:* retailer
- What is Tesco’s slogan? *Answer:* Every Little Helps
- Who was the founder of Tesco? *Answer:* Jack Cohen
- What quality did he have? *Answer:* entrepreneurial gift

Extract 2 - suggested activities (Trosch 2011):

After watching the second extract learners answer the following questions:

1 *What was Tesco’s founder’s idea about his new supermarket?* They are given words to rearrange in order to find out: IT/IT/CHEAP/PILE/HIGH/SELL (*Answer:* Pile it high, sell it cheap)

2 *What was the main difference in strategy between the two main supermarket rivals at the time?*

Learners fill in the gaps to get the answer:

Sainsbury made a throughAnswer: niche / quality

Tesco it was,,Answer: price / price / price

3. Rewriting the retail Bible – Learners are asked to discuss the following question:

By the end of the 60s and the early 70s Tesco was not doing well. Which of the following strategies do you think Tesco chose to change this situation?

A BE EVERYWHERE B SELL TO EVERYONE C SELL EVERYTHING

As learners see when watching on, Tesco chose all the three, and the rest of the video is logically organized around them.

Apart from the purely linguistic aspects of the material, it also provides insights into some aspects of the British culture. To this end, such means are used as music, famous figures from the show business which people commonly associate with particular social status, archive footage, typical meals.

6. MARKETING STRATEGY SECTION

The activities designed around this section focus on the type of customers Tesco appeals to.

Learners watch the section and are asked to do the following tasks:

Answer the question: *What questions did the market researchers ask? Why?*

Then they are given a list of adjectives and phrases describing customers and are asked to match them to the type of customer each retailer – Asda, Sainsbury’s, Tesco – has.

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Adjectives and phrases: *fussy, specific list, hard to define, an enigmatic breed, hard working, focused around meat, just buy it, high income basket, not health conscious, good value for money*

Next learners are asked to listen for Tesco's three ranges of products.

Tesco's products come in three different ranges:

_____ (*Answer*: finest range at the top of the market)

_____ (*Answer*: medium range)

_____ (*Answer*: value range, the people on the budget)

Now learners fill in the gaps in the following extract.

So, if I opt for Tesco's value range, all the ingredients for say, a traditional British fry-up cost me a _____ £2.92. In their standard range, the same traditional spread sets me back a _____ £6.33. And for a finest range fry-up, complete with fresh fine tomatoes I have to fork out a _____ £11.66. Only in Britain would you find a class system for fry-ups. Tesco use their three-tier product lines to ensure they attract all sorts of customers. And they have the ideal weapon to make sure they can target them precisely – club card. *Answer*: student-pleasing; family-friendly; gastronomical

Finally learners work out the meaning of the highlighted words from context.

What do the highlighted words mean?

- a) something that has three layers
- b) to cost somebody a particular amount of money
- c) to spend a lot of money on something, especially unwillingly

In an ideal learning setting, provided there is sufficient space and appropriate classroom arrangement, a lesson based on authentic materials can be made even more authentic by using realia or other means in the classroom. For example, if learners are to role play a meeting of a company's executives, the teacher might try to rearrange the classroom so that it looks more like a boardroom. Learners may sit round a table, they can put in front of them paper name tags with their respective positions, bottles of water can be put on the table. If learners are role playing a socializing or networking event, there could be a subtle music as a background. After watching a video about a given product or a range of products, provided they are available, the teacher may bring those to the classroom. One particularly enjoyable activity is blind tasting of two or more rival food or drink products. Some products will not be available but if they are, the real 'touch' of them brings a little aspect of the respective country's culture and contributes to all the impact-making factors in language learning mentioned earlier – learners motivation, learner reluctance or eagerness, relevance to learners' needs, learner autonomy and initiative, enjoyment.

7. CONCLUSION

In summary, several conclusions can be drawn. First, authentic materials will always present certain difficulty for learners as they are not graded and therefore, exhibit all natural features of the target language. However, if they are carefully and smoothly 'served' to learners, they can bring great sense

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of enjoyment and achievement. Individual approach, must always be applied as different learners react differently to the ways of teaching and learning. Secondly, it is important that not material should be graded but the tasks which we design to exploit it. Careful selection according to the target group is the first step to successful results. The next one is grading the tasks for our learners from easier to more challenging ones, from receptive to productive. And thirdly, it is of paramount importance to assist learners to 'elbow' their way through the daunting experience of the 'real' language by giving them enough cues, so that the sense of achievement outstrips the sense of failure.

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An Instructional Design Approach in Teaching Business English

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Abstract: This paper investigates how different Instructional Design (ID) methods apply to the Business English (BE) environment, referring to organization and delivery of instructional methods which apply to both academic and industrial settings. Generally accepted ID models are reviewed and evaluated. These methods could be used to develop effective BE programs at all levels, ranging from curriculum to the most basic learning tasks. Proper ID implementation involves development of materials, planning of the actual training and evaluation of instructional methods which requires a general systematic approach to the organization of instructional processes. It is argued that ID is particularly useful in a Business English context, as dynamic and systemic interactions are more emphasized. Besides discussing the ideal systematic organization and methods of instruction, this paper will shed light on the trends that may affect the ID field in the future. As newly emerging technologies continue to impact the nature of the field, a stronger emphasis is placed on all aspects of online instruction. More recent trends to automate ID involve modular and re-usable design, adaptable and flexible authoring tools and instruction which is increasingly rule-based and data driven. The contents of instructional materials are easily searched, linked, replicated and archived representing just some of the digital shift benefits in an ESP and BE context.

Keywords: Instructional Design (ID), Instructional Technology (IT), Instructional Strategies, Business Context and Consulting Practices

1. INTRODUCTION

Instructional Design (ID henceforth) refers to the process of establishing the knowledge foundation by defining instructional goals, methods and strategies. ID improves learning based on the analysis of the learner's needs and systematic content development (Siemens 2002). Moreover, it involves systematic development of effective instructional materials based on generally accepted learning principles and theories that ensure the highest quality of instruction, development of corresponding methods and activities, and evaluation of the process (Kearsley 2000). Reiser and Dempsey 2007 point to the large-scale ID implementation in developing educational and training programs in a consistent and reliable manner. ID, or ideally the Instructional System Design (ISD) may follow a number of distinct approaches, as will be shown in the following section. Although the ID models¹ presented apply to instruction in general, it is evident that contemporary systemic approaches and technological methods, used in business environments, are relevant to BE learners.

¹It is important to emphasize that a review of theoretical models is by no means comprehensive. The aim of this review is to acquaint the reader with the general historical trends and to demonstrate the relevance of technology implementation in ID processes.

2. INSTRUCTIONAL DESIGN MODELS

Most of the theoretical views and corresponding methods are based on Cognitive and Behavioral Psychology, as well as the more recent Constructivist approach. The original ID models, used in the military trainings in the World War II, were based on the behavioral psychology, analysis and evaluation processes. Kirsley 2000 points out that the ID implementation rapidly generalized, and that in the decades that followed it came to represent the training standard both in the military and business environments. ID, or rather ISD, was further implemented in the Information Technology (IT) sector. The early approaches already included programmed instruction methods, such as Skinner's 1958 model based on programmed instructional materials and empirical evidence advising close communication and the learner's feedback. Mager 1997 also proposes objectives for programmed instruction consisting of planned outcomes of the learning process followed by evaluation.

Hierarchical ID analyses were early on advocated by Dale 1946 and Gagne 1965. Dale's model assigns highest priority to learners' tasks, such as reading and comprehension, participation in workshops and presentations. A learning hierarchy is also advocated by Gagne who insists that basic skills are to be mastered before attempting complex endeavors. Gagne's domains of learning are considered to be the fundamentals of ID, i.e. verbal, intellectual and psychomotor skills as well as strategies and cognitive attitudes. Teaching activities or "events of instruction" represent the foundation for more complex learning outcomes. Another influential taxonomy approach based on distinctive domains of learning, i.e. Cognitive, Psychomotor and Affective, was proposed by Bloom 1956. Phases in each domain are hierarchically arranged representing a sequential ordering within the teaching processes, e.g. the application phase precedes analysis, which in turn precedes synthesis at the cognitive level of learning etc. The learners' progress is emphasized in the "criterion referenced" model introduced by Glaser 1962 where individual results are tested against the objective standards.

This type of ID is entirely founded on the criteria obtained by comparing the entry level results to the progress achieved through instructional methods. These approaches gradually evolved in terms of complexity prior to 1970's when the systemic information-processing methods to instruction were generally adopted. The Component Display Theory proposed by Merrill 1983 emphasizes the presentation methods and the feedback on adequate solutions. Acquisition of new information is based upon previously acquired facts. Motivational Design proposed by Keller 1988 is fundamentally learner-centered. Presentation of instructional materials must be motivational in nature and relevant in order to trigger learners' attention, confidence and satisfaction.

Programmed Logic for Automatic Teaching Operation (i.e. PLATO) was one of the early IT applications, represented through exercises and instructional simulations. In parallel with technology application, cognitive approaches, e.g. cognitive load theory, were gaining prominence by the end of 1980's and throughout the 1990's. In addition to more traditional cognitive approaches, ID of the 1990's was influenced by the constructivist theory which proposes a natural learning environment and a spontaneous learning process. As the constructivism evolved, technological tools advanced rapidly and were increasingly integrated in an educational environment. Consequently, the on-line learning was generally viewed as a realistic alternative to the traditional methods. Universities and higher education institutions resort to online courses to deliver efficient education. Evolvement of the internet and a wide range of information resources contribute to the scope and realistic aspect of the learning experience. Consequently, it is generally recognized that on-line learning must be incorporated as a crucial part of the curriculum. The last years of the IT growth and expansion show that the learning process is no longer restricted to formal education; a contemporary and effective ID must account for ubiquitous knowledge acquisition that may take place at any point in an individual's life.

2.1 Systemic View of Instructional Design

A relative freedom to modify the ID gradually gives rise to systemic approaches, which are more dynamic, interactive and ultimately superior to traditional models. A well-known Systems Approach Model (Dick and Carrey 1996) focuses on complex interrelation of all stages, rather than isolated components presented in a linear fashion. It presents a thorough and coherent view of all major stages, such as: identification of instructional goals, analysis of the instructional process, learning context, objectives, evaluation tools, instruction strategy, development of instructional materials, and all aspects of evaluation. This model allows for a revision of the instructional process, and the freedom to relate the course content to the learners, context and all phases of the learning process. Merriënboer's 1997 4C/ID consists of the four components i.e. learning tasks, supportive information, 'just in time' information, and 'part-task' practice, which reflect a higher degree of integration and coordination comparing to earlier models. This model supports a wide range of tasks. Part-task exercises aim at automating repetitive aspects of complex task, as well as compiling and structuring of more complex learning processes. This refers to recurrent simple tasks necessary to perform more complex tasks presented 'just in time'. I would like to point out that this approach is very convenient in presenting the language structures at morphological or syntactic levels, where smaller structural units are combined to produce more complex ones using recursive rules.

The most commonly used approach is the ADDIE model which has generally been considered the standard method universally used for instructional and learning processes. ADDIE, also referred to as Instructional System Design or ISD (see Clark 1995), represents the acronym for analysis, design, development, implementation and evaluation which originally were distinct phases of the instructional process. As the model gradually evolved, it acquired a more dynamic cyclical character allowing for evaluations and revisions at any stage. The overall assessment consists of two major phases. The formative assessment allows the instructor to test activities and tasks at each stage and summative assessment evaluates the overall course content and methods. A modified model of ADDIE is referred to as "Prototyping" – as it allows detection of potential problems in early phases of the design process and modifications depending on the context, followed by a series of rapid reproductions and revisions before the final version is obtained (Reiser, 2001). Reiser 2001 and Reigeluth 1979 consider all five categories of activities and add another distinct phase of the process, i.e. management, which adds a new dimension to instruction viewed as a systemic whole.

2.2 Implementation of ADDIE in the Business English Context

The most-commonly-used ID model, i.e., ADDIE, has been tested in the BE environment. Jones 2007 shows how this approach is used to design a university BE program. Students participate in two projects completed in two BE courses, i.e., individual projects where students perform research on small and medium-sized companies and a group project with the aim to present a business plan. The courses are supplemented by a web-site and self-access on-line materials. The students are presented with the performance objectives and evaluation materials. Following the ADDIE model, the course participants are walked through all phases of the project keeping in mind the progress and obstacles. Jones adopts a contemporary ID view in conjunction with Instructional and Educational Technology referring to development and delivery of instructional processes in a wide range of professional environments. In contrast with the early approaches, both theoretical and practical aspects of the process are emphasized and all components of the process are carefully planned, integrated and

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presented. The training refers to the resources and media used to organize and deliver instruction. He takes the 'project management' approach referring to 'foundation-building' and analysis of the audience, as well as the evaluation of the overall process.

Although ADDIE has evolved from a simple linear representation of the process phases, Jones shows a systemic application of the model, founded on the basic learning concepts and technical delivery of the process. Within this model, main components are cyclically represented thus allowing for repetition of the whole process or even specific phases depending on contextual requirements. Evaluation is a crucial component of the process linked to all other phases; the learner's feedback or evaluation may again represent the basis for implementation of any phase or the whole process. This aspect of the systemic approach focuses on the 'Formative Evaluation'; each stage refers to the evaluation process as well as other stages. The Analysis, for example, is based on test results, interviews and students' feedback, as well as the faculty and the "subject-matter experts". Jones refers to the "exit level competencies", as compared to Mager 1997 (cf. Glaser 1962). Design is based on objectives that could be reviewed and revised conforming to the systemic cyclical view of the model. In this experiment ADDIE is applied both at the curriculum level, referred to as "macro-level" and "micro-level" including basic language acquisition tasks and activities with the business emphasis. Language skills, practiced through activities and designed by the curriculum, increase in complexity and are reviewed throughout the process. Development includes all course materials and tools, including different types of exercises and fundamental activities in the learning process. Based on the background requirements, various supplementary activities and projects may be implemented.

The overall instructional process may be compared to a business project including development of a business plan. Exercises on main linguistic skills such as listening, speaking, reading and writing are conducted through simulation of business activities. Based on the experiment, Jones provides a set of suggestions for conducting a BE course. The course objectives and goals, such as improvement of basic linguistic skills along with confidence to conduct business in English, are clearly defined. The students' competence becomes more apparent when concrete objectives are established. This also endows the students with insight on how business is conducted in a real professional environment. Everyone takes part in management and decision making simulating a real-life business atmosphere based on productivity, accountability and transparency. Well designed courses also promote business competence including communication strategies and social skills.

3. TECHNOLOGY IMPACT ON ID

Technological advances make a tremendous effect on ID processes. Although the technological impact on education was evident in 1980s, tremendous effects were felt in 1990s (Reiser 2001). Merrill, Li and Jones 1990 argue that interactive and automating capabilities contribute to development of new ID models. In parallel with technological movement, ID activities have expanded to include different types of business processes. Reiser 2001 refers to the "electronic performance support systems" which result in different instructional processes and application of electronic tools and systems in order to implement effective educational systems. Increased use of the internet resulted in the growing distance learning trend. Consequently, there was a need to redesign the ID in order to include elements of the internet-based instruction. ID was also affected by the information management systems (IMS) trend, referring to specific organizational and general instruction processes. Internal databases and online systems enable collection, organization and distribution of information in technologically advanced ways. ID must therefore include effective IMS training.

Reiser's 2001 definition of ID encompasses two practices considered to be the core of the field, i.e. systematic ID procedures and instructional media. He argues for the broad term Instructional

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Design and Technology rather than Instructional Technology, since the latter term refers to the equipment used to supplement the learning processes, such as PCs and audiovisual equipment etc. This term also overlaps with Instructional Media which represents a distinct albeit inseparable ID component. Within the last century instructional media were mainly considered a supplement to instructional processes. This traditional view allocates the primary role to instructors, who are given the ultimate authority in selecting the appropriate instructional media. It could be argued that the role of instructional media becomes more prominent with the ID evolution. Some aspects of the media are even considered equal, or even more significant, as in distance education. As technology advanced distance education acquired a significant role. A number of factors are responsible for the prominence of educational technology, such as strong interactive capability, ubiquity and easy access. Instruction may be presented in a number of different ways including a wide range of content, which provides the realistic and universal views of the learning process and professional environments. Learners have more freedom to choose, control and participate in instructional activities. Instructional technology comes to represent a viable alternative to a more traditional live instruction.

Wilson 2001 provides a general review of technology effects on conventional educational practices and established institutions providing a strong argument for distance education. We can particularly observe these evolving trends at higher educational levels, and in the industrial sector. Current technological trends relate to almost any aspect of the instructional process. Standardization of teaching curricula provides a common set of instructional methodologies and outcomes. Standard processes and outcomes are relatively universal and may apply to a wide range of methods at a given educational level or institution type. It also allows for easy distribution and access of content in real time and in different geographical locations. Standardized assessment of learning results in transparent and accountable practices. One of the most important ID principles applies to aligning of the standardized instructional methods, learning outcomes and assessment measures. Furthermore, instructor's role is narrowed down to implementing general standards. The learner-centered approach resembles the psychological constructivist model which focuses on individual and collaborative construction of meaning. In this framework students are presented with complex projects and supported by colleagues and instructors. The learning process is based on construction of meaningful experiences and collaborative efforts between the students and instructors. Wilson 2001 provides the analogy of instructor guided activities, 'webquests' and cases where solutions are achieved through collaborative efforts. The learner-centered approach faces a difficult task of striking the balance between instructors' authority and learners' activities. There is an apparent contradiction between standardization and the learner-centered model in relation to distance learning. This conflicting issue emphasizes the ID role which enables the standard-based curricula and provides convenient access to distance learners at the same time. Convenience of distance learning and immediate access to online resources is ever more relevant to the fast-paced global business environment. Professional groups that aspire to gain specific skills and qualifications tend to resort to online learning. Certified tests provide online professional credentials, skills and competencies without posing a serious threat to accredited educational institutions. However, distance learning continues to improve instructional processes and outcomes gradually overcoming the past reliability issues. The trend to facilitate online learning will continue making it even more accessible to professionals aspiring to advance their careers in a more convenient and expeditious manner.

Wilson 2001 shows how a proposed automated data-driven ID resembles the component display theory proposed by Merrill and Gagne's nine events of instruction. These theoretical approaches advocate strategies based on instructional goals and rules. A corresponding automated design with the programmed rule system, based on the learning outcomes, context and the learner's profile, generates recommended strategies and instructional materials. This type of design could provide generic instructional strategies that could quickly adapt to different learning contexts and

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outcomes based on the system rules enabling thus re-usability of data and improved efficiency. An efficient ID is based on a finite set of templates, rules and outcomes relevant to different professional environments. Digital content, essentially modular can easily be replicated and reused without competitive constraints. Wilson 2001 argues that instructional tools have become more flexible and powerful, including 3-D modeling programs, programs that enable prototyping of interfaces which allow for testing in initial stages of development thus saving on investments and improving the overall efficiency. Contemporary authoring tools conform to ID by enabling the systemic non-linear approach to instructional processes. Wilson 2001 refers to IT advances as the 'Digital Shift' which result in a number of trends, e.g. content is easily archived, searched, replicated and linked. This has direct repercussions on automated instructional strategies and processes and implications for the online learning trend.

4. ID AND BUSINESS ENGLISH

4.1 ID Trends in the Fast-Paced Business Context

The previous section shows how advanced technologies have influenced dominant instructional methods. We have observed progressive ID evolution characterized by more sophisticated technological features and software methodologies. Clark 1995 argues that the new software methodologies have resulted in a major paradigm shift known as 'Agile Design' (AD). This is not just a specific methodology, but a philosophy or ethos that emphasizes intense interactions within and among organizations, rapid delivery of design solutions, continuous feedback and change that helps the learners adapt to faster networked business environments. The AD trend is significant, as the major principles condition appropriate implementation of the BE learning processes and improve participants' interaction. Thus the emphasis shifts from processes and tools to individuals and mutual interactions, while traditional contract negotiation is replaced by collaboration with clients. The actual implementation of ID processes does not strictly follow the plan; the processes are adapted to any necessary changes of the original plan. All relevant documentation is supplemented by innovative software. As Fowler 2003 points out, AD tends to be more adaptive and people-oriented rather than predictive, and process-oriented.

Although, the AD represents the general ethos with the aim to guide the software design, it may refer to all aspects of the learning process in general. Clark 1995 points to certain distinctive criteria that should be reflected by a universal type of ID. Adequate selection of learning objects, processes and tools does not refer to SCORM or AICC standards, but ultimately accommodates the learner's needs. The learning material is not reduced to the smallest possible units to be re-used and iterated; rather the contents are divided into the logical units and packaged into the most adequate media that facilitate the learning process. Clark 1995 lists a number of delivery methods conducive to AD concepts, such as MP3s and portable I-pods rather than e-learning programs (Captivate or Articulate). Pdfs are more suitable than e-learning programs and enable focus and interaction even before the process starts. Networking tools are suggested as interactive media in a dl (distributed learning environment). Clark 1995 claims that classroom is among the most expensive learning media, and that a dl environment allows for a self-paced participation of the largest number of audiences. Contrary to a general belief, methods, such as ADDIE or ISD are more easily applied to a dl, comparing to traditional classrooms. However, he recommends a general 'blended learning' approach which combines both dl and a traditional classroom teaching method. Aside from the benefits of dl for purpose oriented learning, the attrition rate is significant. Traditional learning offers interactive and social attributes of the learning process rather than just the information delivery. Live environments

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allow the learners to perform and interact with the instructor and other learners, and obtain direct and immediate feedback in case of any doubt or dilemma. The emphasis on performance and activities has been also envisioned by creating more advanced and sophisticated tools, e.g. html files, swf flash files (shockwave files), and xml files that enable interaction through editing, and QA functionalities. Clark proposes a list of basic AD tools used by the learners in a dl environment, e.g. Networked Computer, Learner Management System and Guide, iPod, Twitter, and Pdf reader. These tools facilitate access and enhance the collaborative and networking aspect of learning. Within the AD framework, iteration refers to the learning platforms cf. traditional frameworks where iteration refers to the learning content. Iteration allows for fixing of any defects before the delivery stage. Learning objects are subsequently selected, and iterated. This approach may be very useful to BE learners. For example, learning objects may be associated with recurring lexical items pertaining to business activities, or simple morphological and syntactic units that could be combined to form more meaningful structures. Although more research needs to be done in this area, it is obvious that this type of approach could save on resources and ultimately provide more efficient and rapid learning solutions.

4.2 Shortcomings of Traditional Business English Materials

Business English materials from the content point of view also represent a controversial issue. Inadequacy of numerous BE studies is closely related to the crucial difference between BE materials and actual business language. Williams 1988 provides an empirical study which reflects enormous discrepancies between the language used in business meetings and the corresponding teaching materials. She concluded that the authors of teaching materials relied mainly on educated guesses and intuition in selecting language samples, rather than empirical facts. Powell 1996 also criticizes textbooks and other instructional materials used to teach meetings, presentations, etc. as an unrealistic representation of the business language. Ventola 1987 claims that the textbooks do not adequately represent language variation in business activities and interaction. D. Boxer & L. Pickering 1995 criticise materials for over-emphasising direct language use as opposed to indirect or the implicit language forms. Cauldwell & Hewings 1996 point to the oversimplification of the textbooks which present a narrow view of the language. According to Scotton & Bernsten 1988, materials recommend overly polite language comparing as opposed to direct requests which are commonly used by native speakers in real business scenarios.

The fact that Business English does not have a precise definition renders the BE materials based on intuition even more inadequate, as they represent the author's subjective view. Based on extensive research, Nelson 2000 provides a succinct summary of major problems encountered in BE teaching. The general overview of the literature shows that the authors of BE materials excessively rely on intuitive hunches and individual experience. Materials are oversimplified and do not represent a realistic business setting. The language structures and lexical items presented in text-books are substantially different from the language used in actual business environments.

4.3 Business Language Use: Towards Pragmatic Awareness

The beginning of the new millennium is marked by an increasing number of relevant and empirical research studies that are crucial in bridging the above mentioned gap. Dudley-Evans & St John 1996 point out that there has been a noticeable accumulation of works emphasizing practical aspects of the business language use. Johnson 1993 takes a pragmatic approach in presenting teaching materials by focusing on skills required in a business environment, such as communication and presentation skills, socializing, and entertaining. Flinders 1988 also points to an increased use of ready-made and media oriented materials, relating the language knowledge to communication and managerial skills,

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professional contexts including different types of businesses, as well as the inter-cultural context. Dudley-Evans & St John 1996 also discuss business communication skills, contexts, and business methodologies used in BE teaching. The BE definition is directly relevant to the classroom and even more importantly to the actual business setting. Nelson 2000 argues that the research on BE is rarely concerned with practical aspect of the teaching process rather than the analysis of the language itself. It has not been sufficiently addressed by academics, and the teaching of BE is by and large conducted outside of academia. Research is performed and retained by corporations that may expediently use it as a competitive edge over rivals.

Frendo 2012 presents a typical approach on practical BE training and consulting with an aim to improve communications in an international business environment directly relevant to the student's needs. This type of approach resembles contemporary in-company training which is in stark contrast to the traditional ESP and BE education within a broader category of Teaching English as a Second Language. His work is based on 'framework materials' which take into account the students' background knowledge and their language needs. It is important to note that the students here are active participants in the instructional process. Frendo 2012 insists that 'framework materials' are 'authentic materials' which reflect actual business environments and were not created for instructional purposes only. As active participants, both students and trainers have a task to describe a typical career structure and think about the relevant issues including training and qualifications, recruitment, interviews and types of jobs and roles. They also have to discuss issues relevant to meetings, e.g., attendance, agenda that may include reviews, problem-solving, planning and reporting. The roles and the plan of the workplace are outlined. Frendo 2012 points to the advantages of framework material as minimalist, flexible, and directly relevant. He proposes the methodology which includes introduction of topics and key lexis, making notes, prepare for discussions, informal presentations and feedback. This type of instruction accounts for varying degrees of aptitudes and abilities. Furthermore, instructors obtain focused feedback from participants who represent main resource. This type of methodology also appears to be relevant the actual language and business processes used in a real-life business setting. Instructional materials are far more comprehensive, pragmatic and direct comparing to traditional approaches. However, as I argued in this paper, the most adequate approach must be more analytical and systemic in nature, and must abide by general ID principles. 'Framework materials' are still a major step forward in presenting the learners with authentic materials that reflect a realistic business setting. The following section presents a general ID approach addressing the issues beyond authentic BE materials, participants' feedback and the relevant business processes. Instructional Design for BE could be presented as a general 'consultant-type' of approach which presents all aspects of an organizational structure, communications and management.

4.4 Consulting Practices and Instruction

I argue for inclusion of real-life business scenarios in designing BE instruction processes. An effective ID simulates a realistic business environment, including all relevant aspects of conducting day-to-day business activities. The effective course development must account for a wide range of organizations, and a variety of distinct business processes, different management techniques and business development strategies. I suggest that a successful ID should emulate contemporary business consulting practices corresponding to the general course objectives. Following Wade 2010, these methods are adapted to actual BE courses representing the 'ultimate ID' which may be particularly helpful for advanced levels of BE instruction required by senior professionals aspiring to advance their careers. Instruction processes are carefully organized and conducted in order to simulate current consulting practices thus helping the BE learners to rapidly adapt to relevant environments. It is

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important to note that this type of ID may apply both to BE course participant acquiring English as a second language and the native English speakers aspiring to adapt to fast-paced business environments by learning all relevant processes and perfecting the BE terminology. Wade uses the term “customized content development” to refer to comprehensive instruction materials which include instructor-lead training materials and tools. Customized instructional materials prepare the course participants for practical activities with the aim to achieve superior performance. The course participants should be presented with a wide range of business areas which enables them to gain corresponding skills. At the same time they are instructed on how to hone specific skills, such as leadership and management skills, customer service and marketing skills etc. Moreover, they learn how to come up with the most effective solutions concerning the training requirements that help them achieve their professional goals. A number of advanced technological tools and interactive programs may be used to deliver distinct training solutions, ranging from traditional instructor led training to individual self-paced training. A needs analysis and a general strategy are presented. The course participants are instructed on how to design and recommend solutions to attain their goals. Instructional tools are customized to present any product or skill to clients. Such tools may include an online troubleshooting directory that helps implement corrective actions in encountering performance issues. An online interface simulating recorded calls may help apply the techniques obtained through instructional processes. The e-learning module on the New Digital Landing Platform is used to administer exercises which simulate the real-life business scenarios using the media, visual and auditory tools suited to a wide-range of professional settings. E-learning represents a significant cutting-edge training method which bridges geographic distance and thus provides ubiquitous solutions for instant access to training in geographically dispersed regions. Advanced authoring tools may speed up and intensify the process of e-learning, by enabling rapid delivery of larger content at a lower cost. Template oriented interactive exercises, graphics and screen layouts are used in forming essential elements of a high-level e-learning design, development and implementation. Effective courses should also include mobile-learning which allows clients to access e-training instantly using mobile devices at any time. The mobile learning technology will gain even greater prominence, as the trend to work from home and provide consulting services becomes ever stronger. Wade 2010 also recommends a Desktop Trainer as an efficient instruction tool that enables proactive communication. This tool instantly displays current updated information, while focusing on the most essential details. The BE learners would greatly benefit in being able to instantly access resources, instructors and other course participants. At the same time, they are provided with the crucial “know-how” consultant instruction directly relevant to the modern business trends.

Course participants should be trained at all levels ranging from performance to executive levels in order to acquire corresponding skills and values, and the ability to apply these skills. Appropriate training implies not only direct teaching and information delivery, but also triggers profound behavioral changes, development of professional values and the ability to apply the right solutions to any issue, and helps even develop the leadership potential and skills. The course participants may also attend workshops specifically tailored for individuals with the managerial potential, as well as the experienced managers. Appropriate training provides both information and strategies necessary to implement a successful management process, solve all problems and take corrective actions. Teaching BE should also include topics on business development and marketing in order to provide effective training that aims at developing customer and marketing communications skills. Course participants should also be acquainted with the standard networking forums and strategies used to make and maintain business contacts and improve sales. Knowledge of the social media is necessary in order to maintain successful customer relations and overall business success. An effective ID also addresses financial issues, as it ultimately reduces the cost of travel, communication, materials and improves all aspects training.

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5. CONCLUSION

This article has presented a number of major issues related the ID field and its relevance to BE as an ESP sub-discipline. Some general trends in this field have been reviewed including both traditional and recent research projects. General ID trends and development, including cognitive, behavioural, constructivist and systemic approaches have been presented. Some models based on IT have also been reviewed, as technological advances have had a major impact on the ID evolvement. The last section provides a general outline of the most recent trends used in ID development and BE instruction with an aim to emulate the actual business context. Traditional approaches to BE teaching contradict the actual language communication needs in real-life business environments. However, majority of theoretical postulates relating to instructional models and materials are and will always remain relevant to the contemporary business processes along with the new modes of communication.

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Today's Necessity: Business English and Business Correspondence

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Abstract: This paper argues about Business English in general and Business Correspondence in particular. Business English is English language especially related to international trade. It is a part of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) and can be considered a specialism within English language learning and teaching; for example, the teachers' organization called International Association of Teachers of English as Foreign Languages (IATEFL) has a special interest group called Business English Special Interest Group (BESIG). Many non-native English speakers study the subject with the goal of doing business with English-speaking countries, or with companies located outside the Anglosphere but which nonetheless use English as a shared language or lingua franca. Much of the English communication that takes place within business circles all over the world occurs between non-native speakers. In cases such as these, the object of the exercise is efficient and effective communication. Business English means different things to different people. For some, it focuses on vocabulary and topics used in the worlds of business, trade, finance, and international relations. For others it refers to the communication skills used in the workplace, and focuses on the language and skills needed for typical business communication such as presentations, negotiations, meetings, small talk, socializing, correspondence, report writing, and so on. In both of these cases it can be taught to native speakers of English, for example, high school students preparing to enter the job market. It can also be a form of international English. It is possible to study Business English at college and university; institutes around the world have on offer courses (modules) in B.E., which can even lead to a degree in the subject. This research paper highlights and argues about Business English and Business Correspondence and it gives help to English learners to polish their skills and subskills. Business correspondence is the communication or exchange of information in a written format for the process of business activities. Business correspondence can take place between organizations, within organizations or between the customers and the organization. The correspondence is generally of widely accepted formats that are followed universally.

Key words: Business English, Generator for Business Letters, Conversation: wordlists and Business Correspondence.

Before starting this research paper with Business Correspondence, we firstly provide a list - Generator for Business Letters, Conversation – Word Lists and Business Correspondence. Then finally we research and discuss Business Correspondence in detailed form.

Generator for Business Letters

Guide for the Generator

Enquiry

Offer

Order

Order Confirmation

Dispatch Note and Acknowledgement of Receipt

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Invoice and Overdue Notice

Conversation - Word Lists

Introducing and Greeting People

Hotel and Restaurant

Asking for and Giving Directions

Phone

Presentation

Opinion and Statements

Agreeing and Disagreeing

Linking Arguments

Business Correspondence

How to Structure an English Business Letter

Word List Salutation, First/ Final Paragraph and Greeting

Word List Enquiry, Offer and Order

Word List Dispatch Note and Acknowledgement of Receipt

Word List Invoice and Reminder

Business correspondence is the communication or exchange of information in a written format for the process of business activities. Business correspondence can take place between organizations, within organizations or between the customers and the organization. The correspondence is generally of widely accepted formats that are followed universally. The main points in Business correspondence is maintaining a proper relationship, serves as evidence, create and maintain goodwill, inexpensive and convenient, formal communication and independent of interpersonal skills. Types of Business Correspondence are Business Letters, Email and Memorandum. Business letters are the most formal method of communication following specific formats. They are addressed to a particular person or organization. A good business letter follows the seven C's of communication. The different types of business letters used based on their context are as follows, letters of enquiry, letters of claim/complaints, letters of application, letters of approval/dismissal, letters of recommendations and letters of sales. Official letters can be handwritten or printed. Modernization has led to the usage of new means of business correspondence such as E-mail and Fax. Email is the least formal method of business communication. It is the most widely used method of written communication usually done in a conversational style. Memorandum is a document used for internal communication within an organization. Memo may be drafted by management and addressed to other employees.

How to Structure an English Business Letter

Sender's Address in a Business Letter

Position in British English: In British English, the sender's address is usually placed in the top right corner of the letter.

Position in American English: In American English the sender's address is usually placed in the top left corner, below the date, or at the end of the letter, below the signature.

Sender's address below the date:

Sender's address below the signature:

Date in a Business Letter

British English

Write: 30 October 2010

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Position: on the right, one line below the sender's address (in letters with a ready printed sender's address, the date can also be put in the top left corner)

American English

Write: October 30, 2010

Position: top left corner (sometimes centered)

Recipient Address In a Business Letter

Ms / Miss / Mrs / Mr / Dr ...

house number, street

place

area code

COUNTRY (in capital letters)

In American English, the area code is usually at the same level as the place, separated by a comma.

Position: on the left

British English

In British English, the recipient's address starts on the same line as the date or one line below the date.

American English

In American English, the recipient's address starts two lines below the sender's address (or two lines below the date if the sender's address isn't placed in the top left corner).

Salutation in a Business Letter

If you know the person's name:

Dear Ms / Miss / Mrs / Mr / Dr + surname

Dear Mr Miller

You can also write the person's full name. In this case, leave out the title (Mr/Mrs). This way of writing the salutation is very handy if you don't know the gender of the person.

Dear Chris Miller

If you don't know the person's name:

There are several possibilities to address people that you don't know by name:

salutation when to use

Dear Sir / Dear Sirs male addressee (esp. in British English)

Gentlemen male addressee (esp. in American English)

Dear Madam female addressee (esp. in British English)

Ladies female addressee (esp. in American English)

Dear Sir or Madam gender unknown (esp. in British English)

Ladies and Gentlemen gender unknown (esp. in American English)

To whom it may concern gender unknown (esp. in American English)

Business partners often call each other by their first names. In this case, write the salutation as follows:

Dear Sue

Punctuation

In British English, don't use any punctuation mark or use a comma.

Dear Mr Miller or Dear Mr Miller,

In American English, use a colon:

Dear Mr. Miller:

Subject Line in a Business Letter

A subject line is not really necessary. You may want to use one, however, so that the reader immediately knows what your letter is about. There are three common methods to distinguish the subject line from the body of the letter:

- Use "Subject:" or "Re:"

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- Type the subject in bold letters
- Type the subject in capital letters

British English

The subject line is usually placed between the salutation and the body of the letter (with a blank line in between).

American English

In American English, the subject line can also be placed between the recipient's address and the salutation (with a blank line in between).

Body of a Business Letter

Capitalize the first word of the text (even if the salutation ends with a comma). The text is left-justified and a blank line is put after each paragraph. It is not common to indent the first line of a paragraph.

Content

- first paragraph: introduction and reason for writing
- Following paragraphs: explain your reasons for writing in more detail, provide background information etc.
- last paragraph: summarize your reason for writing again and make clear what you want the recipient to do

Note: Your text should be positive and well structured.

Greeting in a Business Letter

British English

If you used the recipient's name in the salutation, use 'sincerely'.

If you did not use the recipient's name in the salutation, use 'faithfully'.

American English

Use 'sincerely', no matter if you used the recipient's name in the salutation or not ('faithfully' is not common in American English).

Salutation - Greeting

British English

Salutation Greeting

Dear MsWexley

Dear Jane Wexley

Dear Jane

Yours sincerely / Sincerely yours

Dear Sir Yours faithfully / Faithfully yours

Dear Sirs

Dear Madam

Dear Sir or Madam

American English

Salutation Greeting

Dear Ms. Wexley:

Dear Jane Wexley:

Dear Jane:

Sincerely, / Sincerely yours,

Gentlemen:

Ladies:

Ladies and Gentlemen:

To whom it may concern:

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Sincerely, / Sincerely yours,

In emails you could also write:

•Regards

•Kind regards

•Best wishes

Enclosures in Business Letter

If you wish to enclose documents, you can either list all enclosed documents separately or just write the word 'Enclosure' below the signature.

Word List Salutation, First/ Final Paragraph and Greeting

Salutation – Addressee known

Dear Ms / Miss / Mrs / Mr / Dr ...

Salutation – Addressee unknown

Dear Sir / Dear Sirs

Gentlemen

Dear Madam

Ladies

Dear Sir or Madam

Ladies and Gentlemen

To whom it may concern

First Paragraph

We have received your letter dated ...

Many thanks for ... / Thank you (very much) for ...

This is to confirm ...

We hereby inform you ...

Final Paragraph

If you have any questions, do not hesitate to contact us.

We look forward to your reply.

We are looking forward to hearing from you soon.

Greeting – Addressee known

Yours sincerely / Sincerely yours

Greeting – Addressee unknown

Yours faithfully / Faithfully yours

Sincerely / Sincerely yours

Word List Enquiry, Offer and Order

Request

We got your address from ...

Your advertisement has come to our attention.

We were told that you produce ...

We intend to buy ... / We are considering the purchase of ...

We have a steady demand for ...

We would like to know more about ...

Could you please send us information about ...?

Please send us your catalogue/catalog.

Offer

We are pleased to hear that you are interested in our products.

We hereby send you our offer.

Enclosed please find our offer. / Enclosed you will find our offer.

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We are pleased to make the following offer:

We assure you that your order will be dealt with promptly.

Please let us know your requirements as soon as possible.

We look forward to receiving your order.

Order

Enclosed please find our order. / Our order is enclosed.

We would like to place the following order:

We herewith order the following items:

We require the goods urgently.

We would be grateful if you could deliver as soon as possible.

Please let us know when we can expect the delivery.

Word List Dispatch Note + Acknowledgement of Receipt

Dispatch Note

We are pleased to inform you that your goods were sent today.

We hereby inform you that your goods will be delivered tomorrow.

We hope that the goods will arrive in perfect condition.

We look forward to doing business with you again.

Acknowledgement of Receipt

We have received your delivery.

Your delivery arrived in perfect condition on ...

Thank you very much for executing our order professionally.

Word List Invoice + Reminder

Invoice

Please find enclosed invoice no. ... for ...

Thank you for your order.

We look forward to doing business with you again.

Reminder

According to our records, we have not yet received a remittance for above invoice.

May we remind you that your payment is overdue for three months.

This is to remind you that above invoice is still unpaid.

We would appreciate if you cleared your account within the next days.

Please send your payment promptly.

If you have already sent your payment, please disregard this letter.

CONCLUSION

The strict rules of grammar are in such cases sometimes ignored, when, for example, a stressed negotiator's only goal is to reach an agreement as quickly as possible. (See linguist Braj Kachru's theory of the "expanding circle".)

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Communicative Competence –The Ultimate Goal of Business English Teaching

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Abstract: Considering the fact that Business English Teaching is a challenge, encountered at an early stage of our ten-year-long teaching career, as well as the fact that it still remains one, we have decided to try and share some of our views, ideas and opinions on how to achieve the ultimate goal we have been trying to reach in our classroom - communicative competence of BE students. This paper will show what aspects of communication are essential for us as human beings and how language helps us in our co-existence and cooperation; how communication gets even more complex in the intercultural sphere of business; what the greatest 'expectations' that teachers have to face and deal with in BE classes are - should they be only teachers or a bit of business people as well? It will also try to underline the subtle difference between the theoretical competence and performance, and the way it is influenced by the personality of the student, where the role of the teacher instantly widens into a confidence booster, a life coach, an adviser and critical audience. Since this area is becoming increasingly popular and needed among business people and students of business oriented Universities, we as BE teachers ought to be well informed, connected and cooperative in order to meet their needs in the best way possible.

Key words: communication, information gap, competence, performance

1. INTRODUCTION

We all know that business world today is very dynamic, demanding instant response, adjustment and constant growth, both personal and professional. More and more people face that uncertainty in their native languages on daily bases. This does not happen just in theory, and it really may sound scary. This idea of the unknown has always been frightening. On the other hand, it might, "provide matchless opportunity for those bold enough and determined enough to take advantage of it", as Tom Peters, a management guru, would put it in his book "Re-imagine!"¹ He also says that this is a new age "that begs for those who break the rules, who imagine the impossible". Should we take his advice and do so, we would find perfect solutions for our students who not only need to be able to deal with "the unknown" of the business world, but also do it in a foreign language. It really is almost impossible, but it is the ultimate goal we as BE teachers strive to reach – communicative competence of our students.

¹ Tom Peters, Re-imagine! , Dorling Kindersley Limited, London, 2004

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2. COMMUNICATION - OUR BASIC NEED

The word communication stems from the Latin verb *communicare*, which means make common, announce, while the noun *communicatio* contains meanings of community and communication. The basic relation of these terms leads us to the very foundation of communicating as establishing a community, a social relation with others. To communicate, in this context, might mean to adjust your own actions to be in compliance with the community and social life, and in that sense we can say that the essence of communication is “a transition of individual towards the collective”.²

Communication is a skill that is acquired. Most of the people are born with a physical ability to speak, but they have to learn how to speak and communicate effectively. Speech, listening and our ability to understand both verbal and non-verbal meaning of the message, are skills that we can develop in many different ways. Some basic skills of communicating can be acquired while we are observing other people and forming our behaviour according to what we see. Some of the skills we get in the process of education, through their practice and evaluation.

American scientists and teachers who are interested in the field of communication created a definition of this area in 1995. in order to make it more accessible to the general public: “The area of communication is focused on the way people use messages to generate meaning within and between different contexts, cultures, channels, and media. This area promotes effective and ethical practice of human communication.”³

Mass communication, telecommunication, internal communication, intercultural communication, verbal, applied, political, corporative, are just some of the fields contained in this concept. This list can be further widened into journalism, media production, public relations, business communication, marketing communication, which shows how wide variety of its use actually is.

We should particularly emphasise the difference between everyday and professional communication. A person who communicates well in everyday life is not necessarily an effective professional communicator. In professional communication it is crucial to be aware of its interdisciplinary nature, to be analytic, and a good judge of cultural, political and social context, which is quite a challenge. The specifics of professional communication will vary with various professions and specialties. Some of its characteristics are:

- it incorporates the four basic language skills – speaking, writing, reading and listening;
- it requires profession-specific communicative skills: providing progress reports, explaining research, discussing company policies, analyzing problems, offering recommendations, giving on-the-job instruction;
- in professional communication, effective listening skills are a necessity⁴

² Zorica Tomić, Komunikologija, Čigoja, Beograd, 2003.

³ Association for Communication Administration. (August 1995). Summer Conference on Defining the Field of Communication. Annandale, VA.U.S. Department of Education. (2000). Classification of Instructional Programs, 2000. Washington DC. (www.aca.org)

⁴ L. Gill-Salom and D. Westal, ”Technical and Professional Speaking: Who Needs It?” Language for Special Purposes: Perspectives for the New Millennium. Vol 2. Ed. Mayer, F. Berlin: Gunter Narr Verlag, 2001. 466-473

3. INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATION IN THE WORKING ENVIRONMENT

Due to the fast rhythm in which events and scientific development take place in different fields of life today, the need of learning languages for everyday life communication starts to be overcome in comparison with the need of active communication in business. With the globalization of the world economy, English is, more than ever before, the common language of business. Exchanging ideas at a global level is essential in areas such as: environment, nutrition, medicine, technology, politics, economics and so on.⁵

The way people think, communicate and behave reflects the culture they come from. Culture influences our perception, the way we interact with others, our personalities and reactions. In order to successfully negotiate in an international business situation, it is essential to be an interculturally effective person. That person should be able to communicate with people from other cultures in a way that wins their trust and respect, and to be able to adapt to local circumstances, both professionally and personally. Nowadays, communication in the workplace, especially in the multinational companies, brings together part-time workers, managers, supervisors, consultants, support staff and many others, of various nationalities. Their personal traits, such as physical abilities and qualities, educational and personal background, life and work experience, and many other, may differ a lot, creating a huge diversity.

Awareness of cultural differences is crucial for cooperation of any kind, the lack of which can cause failure of many international enterprises. Beside possible misunderstandings in communication, people coming from different cultural backgrounds tend to have different conceptions of the very purpose of negotiations. For some cultures, usually western, the first and the most important goal of a business negotiation is, mostly, reaching a written contract, which represents a final group of rules and obligations that both sides commit to. Some other cultures, for instance Asian, consider the goal to be not only signing the contract, but also establishing a certain relationship among the parties, which demands much more effort and time.

4. CHALLENGES FOR TEACHERS IN BE CLASSES

More and more individuals have specific academic and professional reasons to improve their language skills. For these individuals, Business English courses hold a particular appeal. Now, some teachers have started to focus on communicative competence, intercultural competence and vocabulary awareness. The new approach is a student-centered one, and its goal is to identify the particular needs of the students.

In order to identify the needs, the teacher must know whether the student is still learning or already practicing his profession. Teaching a manager and a Management student is not the same. The first possesses certain working experience and is familiar with the specific language of the profession, whereas the other, usually, has just began gaining both general and working experience, and that demands additional attention of the teacher.

Many elements must be considered before the very process of teaching begins. It is important to identify which specific language skills students have already acquired, and which are needed on the job. It is also advisable to make a profile of each student containing such information as age, previous

⁵ P Gubbins and M. Holt, 2002, ed. *Beyond Boundaries, Language and Identity in Contemporary Europe*, Cromwell Press Ltd.;

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training in English, job title and responsibilities, communication activities engaged in on the job (telephoning, meetings, writing memos...) and self-assessment of listening, speaking, reading and writing skills. Discovering precisely which language skills students are lacking is not a simple task and can take several weeks to complete.⁶

Once the needs have been defined, the crucial question arises: How to meet them? Preparing lessons in detail doesn't seem enough. So what a responsible person could do is "Re-imagine!"⁷ the whole teaching process, as well as himself as the deliverer of it. Reading economic sections in magazines, *The Economist*, *Business Week*, and all different kinds of online sources, could be a good start. It might make you very much aware of the fact that you are a layperson. After a couple of years of teaching and struggling with it, it might also make you consider joining the enemy. And what could be a better way than to take a course in marketing, and finally get to the core of it, which my friend and I eventually did.

Getting well acquainted with the terminology can help you in transferring the concepts hidden behind it. But, still, one cannot gain the practical experience in the field, be aware of all the collocations and professional idioms, which can be stressful. After facing the fact that one person is not able to be a doctor, a manager, an engineer, and a teacher at the same time, the solution appeared—cooperation! As Nick Robinson says: "Bridging this gap between what the student knows and what the teacher knows is a vital step towards a successful ESP class"⁸ As he further explains, this is a two-way information gap in the classroom, and we have to use our class as the main resource. The students can discuss complex concepts in detail, explaining them and practicing communication skills at the same time. Group activities, problem solving, role plays of their everyday activities are ideal. They make the learner an active participant, improve the classroom atmosphere, and help the development of their social skills and creative thinking, thus preparing them for the real life situations in the professional settings. At the same time it enables the teacher to get the insight into potential problematic areas of communication, as well as into the specific areas that have to be included in the teaching program.

It is possible to find sample units of textbooks and additional supplementary activities for textbooks on the publishers' sites. In addition, the publishers and countless other websites offer flashcards, reading texts, podcasts, grammar and vocabulary exercises, and game ideas. These are sometimes available specifically for Business and ESP students, and are often available for free. The additional benefit of material from the Internet is that you can often cut and paste it and make any changes you like in order to make it more specific to or manageable for your students. For example, you could take a grammar exercise and rewrite it so that all the sentences refer to what your students do in their jobs⁹.

⁶Peter Master, Responses to English for Specific Purposes, San Jose State University, California, USA, 1998., Carolyn Feuille "English for Business"

⁷ Tom Peters., *Re-imagine!*, Dorling Kindersley Limited, London, 2004

⁸ Nick Robinson, Cambridge University Press, United Kingdom, "Vocabulary in ESP: Ideas for bridging the 'information gap'", Zbornik radova, "Jezik struke-teorija i praksa", Univerzitet u Beogradu, 2009.

⁹ Alex Case, Preparing for your first Business or ESP class - Articles, 2011 <http://www.usingenglish.com/articles/preparing-for-your-first-business-or-esp-class.html#V7CqGRu7to700dfq.99>

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5. COMPETENCE AND PERFORMANCE

Being competent in some area means that you are able to do something, you possess skills and authority. I couldn't agree more with Carolyn F. from California, who enlists which areas students of business English should be competent in: "basic communication skills within the corporate environment, particularly interpersonal communication skills, assertiveness, non-verbal communication, grammar, pronunciation, writing, and listening skills."¹⁰ She adds that "interactive listening and speaking skills such as asking for clarification, confirming, focused repetition, giving feedback, and understanding reduced speech", are also vital in business communication.

The classroom environment should be a playground which offers your students a possibility to play, act, make mistakes, and try again. Within this safe and friendly environment, (this feeling, which comes in time, should be very seriously worked on), they should be challenged to constantly, but unconsciously improve. Many students come to my classes tired, stressed or with a predominant feeling of being forced by their companies. Sometimes they act worse than teenagers, and "need warmers, controlled practice games and the encouragement of being given points even more than General English classes. Popular business activities like case studies and role play meetings are also basically just games. If some students are resistant to games, you can usually get away with doing exactly the same by calling it "a business situation practice activity" or suchlike".¹¹

Supposing that you have managed to provide your students with competence in the safety of the classroom environment, the issue of performance comes up. In their companies there is no rehearsal, no change of roles and very often, there is no second chance. Their performance can be significantly influenced by their personalities. According to McCroskey, the dominant personality traits which determine the effectiveness of communicative competence are within the dominance of assertiveness or responsiveness in one person. Assertiveness "includes defending your own beliefs, being independent, having a strong personality, being dominant, willing to take a stand, acting as a leader, being aggressive and competitive. Responsiveness items include: being helpful, responsive to others, sympathetic, compassionate, sensitive to the needs of others, sincere, gentle, warm, tender and friendly."¹²

What about other personality traits of your student that might get in your way while trying to push him/her over that fine line that separates mere theoretical competence from effective performance? There the teacher takes another role-a multidisciplinary one. The real cause of the lack of fluency and competence within performance has to be found. Combining and mixing many ingredients, such as confidence-boosting, reassuring, criticizing, giving constructive advice, exposing students to unexpected business-like situations, and many others, the teacher reaches the final product – a competent student who can actually show what he knows in practice.

¹⁰ Peter Master, Responses to English for Specific Purposes, San Jose State University, California, USA, 1998., Carolyn Feuille "English for Business"

¹¹ Alex Case, Preparing for your first Business or ESP class - Articles, 2011 <http://www.usingenglish.com/articles/preparing-for-your-first-business-or-esp-class.html#V7CqGRu7to700dfq.99>

¹² Richmond, V.P., and McCroskey, J.C. "Reliability and Separation of Factors on the Assertiveness-Responsiveness Measure." Psychological Reports, 67, 1990

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6. CONCLUSION

The complexity and responsibility of being a teacher demands no further discussion. An additional effort has to be made in order to meet the needs of Business English students. The fact that their professional success is to a large extent based on their communicative competence increases the level of our responsibility even more. Having in mind manifold factors which influence the development of our BE students, we, as their teachers, have to act as facilitators of the process, in the best way possible. And the final advice you can give your students, as well as yourselves, is the one Paul Arden¹³ gives in his book, and that is to be persistent and want to constantly improve. He says that “Nearly all rich and famous people are not notably talented, educated, charming or good looking. They became rich and powerful by wanting to be rich and powerful.” At first it might sound silly, but please, think seriously about it, and you will see that “It’s not how good you are, it’s how good you want to be”, that really matters.

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Teaching Business English One-to-One

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Abstract: The demand for Business English lessons is increasing world-wide with the process of globalization and multinational companies spreading their businesses overseas. Therefore, the term itself is used to cover the English taught to a wide range of professional people as well as students who are preparing themselves to start their professional career in the world of business. Business English cannot be viewed as a separate entity from General English as the students of Business English need to speak, listen, write and read in English in the same way as every other student. The only thing that makes a difference is the context the language is used in. The goal of teaching Business English is producing a generic user of the language; however, the language studied needs to be governed by the student's need, which means that the course should be tailor-made focusing on the student's working environment, their job positions and tasks they perform. Moreover, with the rise of multinational companies it has become more common for them to send their staff on a "one-to-one" language course as they are often in a hurry and have specific needs which cannot be met in a group. For this reason, they need to be trained to meet real-life business situations. Some teachers think that there is a point before which a student should not attempt to learn Business English (e.g. elementary level), although in practice that is not the case as they start learning the language they need for their job from day one. Even though teaching Business English one-to-one requires different approaches and skills to teaching groups of students, it is a preferred choice for many individuals and it is the best way for them to learn it no matter what level they are.

Key words: business English, one-to-one teaching method, business context

1. INTRODUCTION

We are all aware that English has become the international language of business and with the growing changes and the advance in technology as well as the way we communicate, it has gained a role, it has never had before. We are facing an incredible challenge when it comes to teaching Business English. The globalised world, endless possibilities and new markets worldwide make the business people seek professional language training and prepare themselves for the real business situations they encounter in their everyday life. As such, business people have expectations and needs that aim at developing generalized business skills such as giving presentations, taking notes, participating in meetings, making phone calls, negotiations, socializing. Tom Hutchinson and Alan Waters analyzed why the English language has acquired so much importance at the world wide level (1987) and concluded that "The effect was to create a whole new mass of people wanting to learn English, not for the pleasure of prestige of knowing the language but because English was the key to the international currencies of technology and commerce."(p.7) On the other hand, Phillipson points out: "English has a dominant position in science, technology, medicine, and computers; in research, books, periodicals, and software; in transitional business, trade, shipping, and aviation; in diplomacy and international

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organizations; in mass media entertainment, news agencies, and journalism; in youth culture and sport, in education system, as the most widely learnt foreign language.”

This dominance of the English language is strengthened with the development of the economy as well as the widespread use of technology and the Internet, and having the proper Business English communication skills will surely not only represent an advantage in job interviews, but will enhance the potential for earning by making a person stand out for career advancement or promotion. Studies have shown that there is a rising number of companies worldwide interested in hiring employees with bilingual skills. Companies are recognizing the link between language proficiency and language performance and the majority of them are actively seeking to assess and improve the Business language skills of their employees. Although it is a long-term investment, acknowledging and embracing not only bilingualism and plurilingualism in global corporations is an opportunity cost and a means of gaining a competitive advantage. However, it is a well-known fact that without language proficiency, communication is hindered and without effective communication, business performance suffers. Therefore, multinational organizations which have recognized the importance of language learning tend to equip themselves with the communication tools they need for global success.

2. TEACHING BUSINESS ENGLISH

As William Bradridge says “teaching Business English means saying goodbye to crowded classrooms of unmotivated noisy teens and hello to negotiating your own time schedule and better pay with very motivated and highly intelligent professionals.” The term Business English is used to cover the English taught to a wide range of professional people as well as students who are preparing themselves to start their professional career in the world of business. Business English cannot be viewed as a separate entity from General English as the students of Business English need to speak, listen, write and read in English in the same way as every other student. The only thing that makes a difference is the context the language is used in, it is a mixture of specific content and general content, i.e. Business English is English for communication in a specific context.

As some authors have already pointed out there have been some major influences in the last decade which have had a great impact on the process of teaching and learning Business English. This development and constant progress of technology has allowed people to establish a closer and permanent connection and led to a globalised world of business, which forces people to be efficient while English has become the tool for this global communication. Therefore, students are no longer interested in grammar or even basic business language, since they need to know specialized vocabulary if they want to improve their effectiveness in their business surroundings. They need to be fluent and quick when communicating; however, they also need to be aware of cultural differences and their implications in the world of business.

Even if it may seem hard, teaching business English is rewarding and special as it gives the teacher the opportunity to answer the student’s immediate needs for English, it represent a strong connection with day-to-day activities of real life, and the teacher may build a special relationship with the students in order to find out more about their working lives and the particular needs regarding the English language. It is very important for the teacher to understand what the student wants, however, it is always important for the teacher as well to use different styles and provide as wide a range of activities as possible, therefore teaching business English requires setting highly specific goals and

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objectives which leads to having a carefully planned syllabus and carefully selected materials and activities. If the teacher manages to find out what the student needs to do and in what context, then they can plan their lessons accordingly and adapt their material to suit the student's needs.

There are two categories of business English learners: job-experienced language learners who are already in the business surroundings or pre-experienced and the ones who are preparing themselves for the future job from colleges and universities. Depending on the category of the students to be taught, there needs to be a curriculum designed that will accommodate their need for communication, rather than develop their language skills. There needs to be a context that the curriculum should cover. There is an increasing awareness that teaching business English should include aspects such as knowledge of the subject matter of communication, strategies and tactics for communicating the message as well as the professional context in which linguistic choices are made. These fields should be incorporated in each and every curriculum and should become its essential components without being treated separately. Most of the business English students already work in the business environment and for various reasons they have a desire to improve their language skills. The teacher's role in such a situation is not to teach them how to conduct business, yet they are there to give them a linguistic framework which will help them develop their language skills within the business context.

Teaching business English in such situations differs from general English in the choice of vocabulary or lexis which is taught, whereas the grammar points remain the same. Instead of giving an example such as, "We have just seen John.", we will say "We have just receive your invoice.". In many cases Business English learners are influential and powerful in their company and they will often expect their teacher to be well-informed about the matters of their concern. Should their teacher be someone who is a complete layman saying things such as: "Oh, you are an accountant? I don't know anything about accounting!?" The teacher is not expected to teach the learner how to do their jobs, however they need to assume the role of a layperson who is well informed, therefore they will ask the questions about the learner's field of expertise after a research on the Internet. The question "Can you explain what a balance sheet is?" will not appear ignorant but it will be a question that will provide a teacher with the relevant information about the student and about the student's weaknesses. Briefly, this will kill two birds with one stone: the learners will have the chance to practice the language explaining their field of expertise and the teacher will be the language provider who will correct or provide a phrase or a word where necessary. It is very important to establish the type of the student-teacher relationship in which both parties are seen as experts – the learner as an expert in the field of their expertise and the teacher as an expert in the field of language teaching and a source of linguistic input necessary for the student. It is a two-way street and as Pete Sharma puts it "for one business English teacher, life is a cold through the snow to a remote factory on the outskirts of a mining town. Over the year, she learns as much about mining as the students learn about language. (...)" It is also rightfully concluded that "it is a misconception that in the field of ESP the teacher has to be an expert in the subject matter" (Ellis, p.17). This means that the teacher does not have to be an expert in negotiation strategies or management theory, but an expert in presenting and explaining the language that will help the learner solve the language problems. To some up, the business English teacher has the task to prepare the student to communicate in a foreign language about business problems which the student specializes in.

3. TEACHING ENGLISH ‘ONE-TO-ONE’

With the rise of multinational companies it has become more common for them to send their staff on a “one-to-one” language course as they are often in a hurry and have specific needs which cannot be met in a group. For this reason, they need to be trained to meet real-life business situations. What is distinct about “one-to-one” teaching is that each student has a different learning style; they do different jobs, and have different interests. Therefore, their needs differ greatly and they change rapidly when they become aware of different ways of learning.

The main difference between teaching a group and teaching one-to-one is that when you have only one student, you can devote 100% of your attention to every aspect of their development. Learning a language one-to-one gives the opportunity to the student to bask in the teacher’s attention and individuals who like constant attention may not function well in a group but may make quick progress when not having to share the teacher. Progress in one-to-one is more rapid than progress in a group and often represents a better investment of time and money. Furthermore, the student can have greater autonomy when it comes to their learning process and they can be a reliable source of information the teacher can exploit when preparing the course syllabus.

Most of the business English learners need to develop skills in writing and giving presentation in English. The teacher can help the student by giving them useful phrases for introducing the topic, linking the ideas and finally concluding a presentation. Then, another topic that all professionals can make use of is writing letters, memos, invitation and short reports. When teaching business correspondence the students need to have a communication goal set by the teacher. Some people think that business English is only about boring charts, figures, some technical processes, however, it is mostly about establishing a good relationship with a colleague, a customer, a supplier. They are taking classes because they need to do their job more efficiently. If the teacher finds out precisely what is it they need to do and in what context, they can prepare a tailor-made course to meet all the student’s needs.

With ‘one-to-one’ courses teachers have the chance to maximize each lesson to the student’s needs and thus target the activities to the student’s strengths and weaknesses. In this way, the student’s has a unique opportunity to practice intensively. It goes without saying that if a student speaks for most of the lesson, they will make progress faster, so, the teacher is responsible for maximizing the time for the student.

Even though teaching Business English one-to-one requires different approaches and skills to teaching groups of students, it is a preferred choice for many individuals and it is the best way for them to learn it no matter what level they are.

Some teachers think that there is a point before which a student should not attempt to learn Business English (e.g. elementary level), although in practice that is not the case as they start learning the language they need for their job from day one.

4. PROBLEMS IN TEACHING BUSINESS ENGLISH “ONE-TO-ONE”

The business learners use the language to achieve the specific goal. They are likely to apply the same critical standards they use in business to the language training and training material as they do in the business life. They will be critical of their own performance and of the performance of their trainer. The majority of them are going to evaluate what they are doing and what is being done as the classroom setting is influenced by the sense of purpose. Even the material used in class, exercises and activities must acknowledge it. Therefore the teacher has to plan really carefully when selecting material for the classroom use.

Another important thing that needs to be considered is that these students are highly aware of time. The moment they step into the classroom they are taking the opportunity to improve their communicative skill for some reason and this can put a great pressure on the course. Furthermore, the students willing to improve their language competence are people with different experience. “The business person who walks into the classroom on a Monday in order to improve performance while attending international meetings may have had years of experience engaging in meetings and negotiations, and might very well have just come off a training course on computers, time management or marketing. He or she will judge the materials in the English course with exactly the same thoroughness and sense of expectation that will have been applied to the materials on the marketing course.” (Ellis, p.18)

There are some learners who have difficulty learning the language; they do not recognize the structures, apply the wrong rules and may have some personal barriers which hinder their progress. In such situations, the teacher should be flexible and patient in order to help the student develop their potential.

5. TEACHING BUSINESS RESOURCES (AUTHENTIC MATERIAL, NEWSPAPER, MAGAZINES, THE INTERNET)

One of the things that has to be considered when starting with teaching Business English is the material that is supposed to be used in class. The teacher needs to select the type of the material which will help the student get ready for the real life situation in workplace. The structures that the business English students need to learn are the same as the ones for general English students. The only difference lies in context and in vocabulary. Vocabulary is best learnt in context; therefore, authentic material that can be obtained from the student would be the best choice. A key issue, as previously noted, is the authenticity of the material. It must be admitted that students hardly learn the language in the classroom setting just by using a text book, and the only feasible solution is to employ methods and strategies that help create authentic business context in classrooms where the learner can understand the business concepts and situations and practice their skills. As Ellis defined it “Authentic material is any kind of material taken from the real world and not specifically created for the purpose of language teaching” (2000). The aim is to base the material on the student’s language needs and create the authentic business context in classroom.

Authentic material is beneficial to the language learning process as it increases the student’s motivation for learning and at the same time exposes the student to the real life language. However,

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there are some disadvantages to using the authentic material, as these texts often contain difficult language unnecessary vocabulary, complex language structures, and at times they are culturally biased. For this reason the teacher must plan and decide when and how to introduce them paying special attention to the student's level of English.

The practice of teaching business English with the help of material which should be there to supplement the course book as well as with the help of technology enhances the performance and the quality of the teaching learning process. Thus, the teacher is able to stimulate the interest of the student and at the same time supports the language teaching and learning process. The material can be found anywhere and it can virtually be anything from English language newspapers and magazines, music on the radio, technical texts, brochures, leaflets, company information, etc. and it is the matter of teacher's will and creativity how they will make use of the material's authenticity in class.

The Internet is a source of authentic material as well. The teacher can look for the sites that discuss specific topic, and prepare the questions about the content of the sites and involve the student in a question focused discussion. The company websites are a very useful source of authentic material, which provides the necessary vocabulary for the student to practice. It is clear that some of these materials are intended for native speakers; however, the teacher can adapt all the activities and material to suit their student enlivening the language class in this way.

6. CONCLUSION

The key to success in teaching Business English one-to-one is combining authentic material, integrating business skills and implementing new ICT teaching and learning tools. However, we should never forget that the business English students are just human beings and that by creating a real life situation in our classroom we need to prepare them for the business world and the challenges of everyday business life. Teaching business English is far more than teaching Business or Language, and as Sampath puts it "it is about teaching communication in the authentic business context".¹

However, one thing should be remembered – we teach people, people who use English for business. And the most important thing is establishing a good rapport with a person, not a student, a client, a learner, a manager, or executive. As Mark Powell, who an internationally renowned teacher trainer, says:

- 1 We don't teach business we teach people who do business
- 2 Nobody is 'just a business person' ... and yet everybody does business
- 3 Knowing a lot about people will give you ... what you really need – rapport
- 4 Get to the person first and leave the job for later
- 5 'Executive' is a role ... not an identity²

Having this on your mind, start cultivating your student's business communication competence and soon you will see the best of them.

¹ Dilani Sampath and Arezou Zalipour, Practical Approaches to the Teaching of Business English, http://www.academia.edu/1146066/PRACTICAL_APPROACHES_TO_THE_TEACHING_OF_BUSINESS_ENGLISH

² Adapted from *Teaching English to Professional People*, Mark Powell

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Teaching Business English to Students

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Abstract: Many teachers are mystified by the field of business English. What is one supposed to teach? Principles of marketing? Vocabulary related to finance? Customer service skills? There has been some debate and confusion over a definitive answer. For instance, 30 years ago business English often meant teaching long lists of job-related vocabulary, all but completely neglecting production skills. As far as the Ukrainian educational environment is concerned, this approach is still being applied at some schools. Since communication is paramount in language learning, we understand the process of business language learning as a mix of specific content (relating to a particular job area), and general content (relating to general ability to communicate more effectively in business situations). One can think of it as a two-layer cake, with one layer being the learner's ability to perform in English (e.g., talk appropriately to a client on the phone) and the other layer being the specific vocabulary he or she needs to be able to perform (e.g., use terms such as invoice and past due). This paper will demonstrate a functional approach to teaching Business Communication to students. It will describe techniques for teaching how to integrate professional politeness and how to conduct professional telephone conversation. As an illustration of the task-based approach, we will show how students can discuss language focus and feedback methods, and devise ways to adapt the techniques to their current student populations and textbooks.

Key words: motivation to language learning, communicative approach, business English, task-based learning, Ukrainian educational environment.

Many teachers are interested in learning more about English for professional purposes. The goal of the proposed article is to present some basic principles of business communication that are useful for all professionals. Ways to integrate these skills into the general English curriculum at Ukrainian higher education institutions will be discussed. To develop an efficient course of Business English, we need to select key components, appropriate materials, and relevant tasks and activities which will develop English learners and achieve the objectives of the class. This requires a much more detailed knowledge of the learners' needs.

Success in learning can only come about if the learner is motivated. Making the course relevant to job or study needs is usually a good way to motivate the learner. However, there may be a few learners who are not interested in talking about their specialization, or may not want to study the language relating to it. If such a case arises, then a key part of the needs analysis will be to find out what will motivate the learner. The diplomatic teacher can still find ways to practice valuable language skills and language areas (excepting specialist vocabulary) through materials and activities that stimulate the learner's interest.

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Due to the fact that there is no standard curriculum for Business English course for higher educational establishments in Ukraine, University teachers are allowed to elaborate so called “author’s course syllabus” with an extensive personal input into the course. Generally speaking, the course design will be left to the individual teacher, though the training objectives and course curriculum are set up by senior members or by the head of the department. It is formalized and carried on from year to year with minute changes only.

Ellis and Johnson (1994) divided learners of business English into pre-experience and job-experienced. In light of our experience working with both learners, we feel that in most cases working with job-experienced learners is a bit easier because the learners know their job — what they lack is the English to conduct it. Hence, what they learn can be immediately applied to their real-world situations. Pre-experience learners may be learning about business concepts in their first language and concurrently learning English. They do not have much of a chance to use the language they are learning in class in the real world yet, so they especially need the opportunity to engage in simulations.

To our mind, a language teacher’s job is to engage students in activities that facilitate learning language, so the belief that English teachers need to be experts in specific areas of business is not necessarily true. It does help if they have experience working in or reading about business. However, comparison shopping, writing professional e-mails, making group decisions, and talking on the telephone can count as the kind of experience that can help. Students are encouraged to research the specific terminology they need, so a good business English dictionary (English-English) can be very useful. “Even when working with pre-experience learners, it is not the language trainer’s role to teach the subject matter”¹.

Communicative approach to teaching a foreign language has proved its necessariness and efficiency for the past few decades. Communicative language teaching is based on the theory that the primary function of language use is communication. Its primary goal is for learners to develop communicative ability. In other words, its goal is to make use of real-life situations that necessitate communication. It uses materials and utilizes methods that are appropriate to a given context of learning. Task-based instructions serve as guidelines for implementing communicative teaching practices.

Language tasks become organizational principles of communicative language teaching. The development of communicative skills is placed at the forefront, while grammar is now introduced only as much as needed to support the development of these skills. Thus, the most effective way to learn and teach a language is through social interactions which allow for students to work toward a clear goal, share information and opinions, negotiate meaning, get the interlocutor’s help in comprehending input, and receive feedback on their language production.

Having taught students of various majors with different levels of language competence, we came to understand that one of the most justified methods in such a classroom is a task-based approach. According to Jane Willis, a task is an activity "where the target language is used by the

¹ Mark Ellis and Christine Johnson, *Teaching Business English: An Introduction to Business English for Language Teachers* (Oxford University Press, 1994), 26.

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learner for a communicative purpose (goal) in order to achieve an outcome"². Activities are implemented in three stages: pre-task stage, task cycle and language focus. During the pre-task stage the learners will have their model activated, and given the opportunity to become personally involved in the lesson. This stage is followed by what Willis calls the "task cycle" that is task planning and report. The task cycle can be broken down into three stages; task, in which the learners do the task; planning, when the learners prepare to report to the whole class (usually orally or in writing) how they did the task; and report, when the reports are presented to the class and results compared.

During the task, the teacher monitors and encourages all attempts at communication without correcting. Willis suggests that this harbours a free environment in which learners are willing to experiment (as mistakes aren't important). At this stage in a PPP (Presentation – Practice – Production) lesson the focus would be very much on accuracy, with all mistakes corrected. During the planning stage, the learners are aware that their output will be 'made public' and will consequently aim for accuracy. The role of the teacher here is therefore to provide assistance with regard to language advice. The teacher then chairs the report, and comments on the content. At this stage, the focus is on both fluency and accuracy. Also, the learners may hear a recording or read a text of a similar task, in order to compare how they did it. Useful (relevant) lexical items may be given. The learners may be given further input, such as a recording of someone doing a similar task or part of an authentic text as a lead in.

Here the learners perform the task (typically a reading or listening exercise or a problem-solving exercise) in pairs or small groups. They then prepare a report for the whole class on how they did the task and what conclusions they reached. Finally, they present their findings to the class in a spoken or written form.

The language focus consists of analysis and practice. In the analysis learners examine the recording or text for new lexical items or structures, which they then record. The teacher conducts a practice of the new items either during the analysis or after. The learners are given the opportunity to reflect on how they performed the task and on the new language they used in this final part of the lesson.

The main advantages of TBL are that language is used for a genuine purpose meaning that real communication should take place, and that at the stage where the learners are preparing their report for the whole class, they are forced to consider language form in general rather than concentrating on a single form. The aim of TBL is to integrate all four skills and to move from fluency to accuracy plus fluency. The range of tasks available (reading texts, listening texts, problem-solving, role-plays, questionnaires, etc) offers a great deal of flexibility in this model and should lead to more motivating activities for the learners.

Learners who are used to a more traditional approach based on a grammatical syllabus may find it difficult to come to terms with the apparent randomness of TBL, but if TBL is integrated with a systematic approach to grammar and lexis, the outcome can be a comprehensive, all-round approach that can be adapted to meet the needs of all learners. Task-based learning can be very effective at Intermediate levels and beyond, but many teachers question its usefulness at lower levels. The methodology requires a change in the traditional teacher's role. The teacher does not introduce and 'present' language or interfere ('help') during the task cycle. The teacher is an observer during the task phase and becomes a language informant only during the 'language focus' stage.

Summing up, the conditions for effective TBL are as follows:

² Jane Willis, *A Framework for Task-Based Learning* (Longman, 1996), www.languages.dk/methods/documents/TBL_presentation.pdf (accessed February 20, 2013).

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- Exposure to a rich but comprehensible input of real spoken and written language in use.
- Use of the language to do things (i.e. exchange meanings).
- Motivation to listen and read the language and to speak and write (i.e. to process and use the exposure).
- Instruction in language (i.e. chances to focus on form).

The first three conditions are essential for classroom environment, whereas the fourth one is a desirable prerequisite. Such a framework theoretically provides the learners with an opportunity to use the language they need for real communication.

It is an accepted fact that learners cannot possibly be taught all the English that they need to know in just one academic year. Needs will be assessed in general language terms rather than in relation to specific job tasks. For Business English learners of a Master course which is compulsory at Luhansk Taras Shevchenko National University, we designed the language program that has as its objectives the same kinds of skills as are important in working life: for example, participating in a meeting, engaging students in small talk, writing different types of letter, preparing a CV, giving a presentation, conducting professional telephone conversation, participating in a discussion. The objectives of Business English course are also defined by the course materials, quite often they are internally published textbooks. Though, in every case there is some room for selection of activities. A teacher will make a choice to the professional needs of students.

Mark Ellis and Christine Jonson in their book “Teaching Business English: An Introduction to Business English for Language Teachers” distinguish between two kinds of motivation to language learning: “extrinsic (the need is imposed from outside) and intrinsic (the learner is deeply interested in the language and culture for its own sake)”³. Ukrainian undergraduate and graduate learners mostly have the extrinsic motivation that comes from the need to pass examinations and obtain a degree. Many students are actually not aware of the needs they might have later in life and may not be able to see the necessity for studying a language course. Even if they know they will need English in their future job, the need is too distant for them. Students sometimes do not want to devote much time and energy to language when there are so many other fascinating activities. That is why, perhaps, the main task for a teacher will be to find out what special interests the members of a group have, and what kinds of activities they will best respond to⁴. A teacher will stimulate students’ interest and increase their motivation in such a way. Various ideas such as lead-in talks that will reveal what interests students most; open discussions about attitudes to language learning and difficulties they come across; different communicative tasks that involve learners and develop practical business communication skills, etc. The successful activities can be practiced over again to repeat certain speech patterns.

Nevertheless, when considering TBL it is necessary to examine the context in which it is to be used, and furthermore the possible reaction of the learners. Will learners openly accept a methodology that is alien to them? If learners are unfamiliar with TBL, then it will be necessary to negotiate with learners to make sure that they are happy to learn in this way. If this can be done, then the learners become stakeholders in the approach. It is therefore vital for us as teachers to take into account our teaching environment and apply this new approach sensitively.

Task-based learning has some clear advantages:

³ Mark Ellis and Christine Johnson, *Teaching Business English: An Introduction to Business English for Language Teachers* (Oxford University Press, 1994), 80.

⁴ Ibid.

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- Students are free of language control. In all three stages they must use all their language resources rather than just practicing one pre-selected item.
- A natural context is developed from the students' experiences with the language that is personalized and relevant to them. With presentation-practice-production sequence it is necessary to create contexts in which to present the language and sometimes they can be very unnatural.
- Students will have a much more varied exposure to language with TBL. They will be exposed to a whole range of lexical phrases, collocations and patterns as well as language forms.
- The language explored arises from the students' needs. This need dictates what will be covered in the lesson rather than a decision made by the teacher or the coursebook.
- It is a strong communicative approach where students spend a lot of time communicating.
- It is enjoyable and motivating.

As an illustration of the task-based approach, we offer a role-play of a telephone conversation that is aimed at developing students' communicative competence in a close to authentic language setting. We usually offer the activity in frames of Business English course for graduate students. The focus of this activity is to categorize useful phrases, to role-play a telephone call and to evaluate it giving a positive and constructive feedback.

Making a Telephone Conversation

Level:

Pre-intermediate and above

Activity type: Pair work

Functions: Asking for and providing information over the phone

Tasks

Step 1. Look at the following categories of phrases used for the telephone:

Closing

Offering to take a message

Asking someone to wait

Survival phrases

Identify self

Promising action

Problems

Getting through someone

Asking to leave a message

Step 2. Match the category titles to the phrases in each group (provided for students).

Step 3. Act out a telephone conversation between a business person and a hotel receptionist. A calling person should make a reservation at a hotel asking about the location, the price of the room, a discount using 3 polite requests. A hotel receptionist should give the caller the information he/she requests using 3 polite requests and should introduce some kind of problem.

Step 4. Listener`s feedback for telephone roleplay.

ROLEPLAY TIPS

Some tips to remember for roleplays (telephone and other)

1. Give Ss a task. What do they need to include in the roleplay.
 - A complaint
 - A problem
 - Ask for certain information
 - Give certain information
 - Use polite requests, etc.
2. Allow students preparation time.
3. Give presenters time limit for their roleplay (2 minutes; 4 minutes).
4. Give listeners something to do (checklist).
5. As the teachers, take notes to give positive and constructive feedback.
6. As students become more comfortable with roleplays, ask them to write up their own scenarios (roleplays).

How to give feedback:

- a. Task complete? – focus on *meaning* first!
- b. Appropriate?
- c. Vocabulary varied?
- d. Accurate?

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Listener feedback for Telephone Roleplay

Name of Speakers:		
• What was one polite request used by the caller ?		
• What was one polite request used by the receptionist ?		
	<i>Yes</i>	<i>Needs Work</i>
• Did the caller get information about		
• The location?		
• The price?		
• A discount?		
• Did they talk about some kind of problem?		
Did they finish within the time limit?		
What is one thing that they did well?		

Talking over the phone is more difficult than talking face to face to someone, so it's a good idea to write down exactly what you're going to ask before you dial (or in this case pretend to dial). Research shows us that we cannot predict or guarantee what the students will learn and that ultimately a wide exposure to language is the best way of ensuring that students will acquire it effectively. Restricting their experience to single pieces of target language is unnatural.

Research has shown that most ESL people do not like to small talk in English. Not only do they have to small talk in a language, other than their native tongue, but they also often find themselves speechless and feeling quite awkward. The following activity helps you sharpen your small talking skills by helping you understand what is really expected of you in different business situations (e.g. small talking during meetings, small talking at conferences, small talking during a conference call, etc.).

Integrating professional politeness is one of the objectives that a teacher should set at the beginning of the business English course. So, what are appropriate and inappropriate small talk questions?⁵

⁵ Sylvie Donna, *Teach Business English* (Cambridge University Press, 2000), 191.

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Appropriate questions for a newcomer:

Are you Mr. Staten?

How was your trip?

Did you have a nice flight/trip?

Would you like some coffee?

Would you like to get something to eat?

Would you like me to show you around a bit later?

Would you like to go to the hotel now?

Have you been to this part of the world before?

Is this your first visit?

We have arranged for you to have a short tour of our city, would that be all right?

Would Saturday at 1:00pm be OK?

Did you have any trouble getting over your jet lag?

Have you tried Ukrainian food yet?

Do you travel a lot?

Where are you staying?

So what do you think of it so far?

What do you plan to do while you're here?

How long will you be here?

What kind of work do you do?

Which department are you in?

What do you do exactly?

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What does that involve?

Inappropriate Examples:

How old are you?

Are you married?

What's your position?

How much do you make?

Do you have any children?

What are your qualifications?

Which university did you graduate from?

When did you graduate?

Do you like your job?

I hear your company's about to go bankrupt, is that right?

Task-based approach offers a structured approach to learning, and supports the notion that learning occurs most effectively when related to the real-life tasks undertaken by an individual. Task based learning encourages the development of the reflective learner, and accommodates a wide range of learning styles. It offers an attractive combination of pragmatism and idealism: pragmatism in the sense that learning with an explicit sense of purpose is an important source of student motivation and satisfaction; idealism in that it is consistent with current theories of education.

In the task-based lessons which are conducted in frames of Business English course our aim is to create a need to learn and use language. The tasks will generate their own language and create an opportunity for language acquisition⁶. If we can take the focus away from form and structures we can develop our students' ability to do things in English. That is not to say that there will be no attention paid to accuracy, work on language is included in each task and feedback and language focus have their places in the lesson plans. We feel that teachers have a responsibility to enrich their students' language when they see it is necessary but students should be given the opportunity to use English in the classroom as they use their own languages in everyday life.

By focusing on teaching "skills," English teachers can learn to feel more confident about teaching business English, hence becoming better professional communicators themselves. They can learn to focus on helping their students improve their communicative performance in English in the context of the business world.

We do not think that one has to be an expert in business to teach Business English. We believe it is necessary to be an expert in business; however, taking an interest in learning more about the subject your students specialize in can be the "icing on the cake."

⁶ Krashen, Stephen D. *Principles and Practice in Second Language Acquisition* (Prentice-Hall International), 1987.

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English and Global Studies

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English has become a global language and its knowledge is a “must” in modern academic, economic, scientific and political environment. It is not enough to be able to communicate in English when you are on a visit to some country. The realities of the present day call for a new approach to using the English language. It is absolutely necessary to be fluent in general English, to be able to analyze professional material in English, to interpret from and into English, to write abstracts of articles and research projects and to appreciate the English speech in its various forms. The tasks look quite outstanding to be covered in the University course of English studies, especially when you have only six academic hours per week and only one sixth of your students goes to English-speaking countries for practice. We soon appreciated that theoretical courses and complicated introductions do not suit our method of teaching. It became quite obvious that we should work with practical material, giving our students short instructions about what is a better way to interpret this or that sentence or word-combination.

In this situation the only available resource seems to be the intensification of in-class activities and self-study hours. In our faculty we decided to streamline our work in accordance with the requirements mentioned above which are possible nowadays thanks to global education, software and the Net.

Of course, what matters is a future professional activity of our graduates: we educate specialists in international relations with deep knowledge of international integration and geopolitical environment. This profile makes it topical to constantly monitor everything happening in the world of global actors and to interpret the matter with special emphasis on details.

By the time our students start English for special purposes they are already competent in General English and know what the main spheres of global interests are. The University education is streamlined towards preparing specialists skilled in analytical and research activity. The approach implies the necessity to develop interpreting skills. Nevertheless, you cannot interpret if you do not know what is going on in the world. That defined the first activity at the faculty, that is, the skill to provide sight interpretation of English texts on challenging problems of today which are comprehensive, while constantly changing.

The work is structured so that the same lexical units and similar topics are suggested for home, class and control interpretation. It is everybody's knowledge that topics that are urgent at the moment draw attention of various mass media sources and are commented in all most popular newspapers and magazines. This wide mass media coverage allows us to form texts-sets every week to cover the main international issues.

In February and at the beginning of March we have covered the news about Pope abdication, meat scandal in Europe, stress-tests of American banks, Rafael Correa re-election victory, car-bombs in Baghdad, Sunni and Shia opposition, Cyprus bailout quagmire, Italy election challenges, Bulgaria government resignation, Kennyatta-Odinga election confrontation, Hugo Chavez death, European bail-out woes. The procedure of this work is like that: a portion of three texts is sent to students 3-4 days before the class. They have an opportunity to read them at home, to find out background information about the event, to look up unknown words and notions, to think about introducing such

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words into their LSP (Language for special purposes) vocabulary. We believe that it is much more useful to learn word-chunks, collocations and set-expressions, and not go too deep into polysemy of separate words. LSP vocabulary is compiled by students in teams (or groups) to include the most topical expressions. Last year, when the students studied economic issues, the most important notions were: austerity measures, bail-outs, bank recapitalization, quantitative easing, T-bonds, budget sequester, fiscal cliff, Basel agreement, markets with frictions, securities, bad debts, allowance for doubtful accounts, budget shortfall, currency of legal tender, the US Department of the Treasury, a store of value, equity swap, IRS (International Revenue Source), debt market, tax revenue, tax evasion, treasury securities, housing sector, hedge fund, black economy, minimum subsistence level, Consumer Price Index, renminbi, managed float, purchasing power parity, to go public, unfettered migration, financial hub, offshore hub, moocher class, Breton Woods system, pegged exchange rate, golden handshake, vicious circle, genuine progress indicator, plum job, etc. The very choice of the vocabulary is based on statistical frequency of usage and points to topicality of such issues as “European debt crisis”, “Pursuit of ways to overcome the crisis in Europe (recapitalization) and US (quantitative easing)”, “PIIGS and Cyprus woes”, “Rise of China”, “Monetary economy versus real economy”.

On the bases of the above mentioned chunks of words one can see that knowledge of the right interpretation of these lexical units together with background information is a guarantee of correct understanding the information. In our faculty we believe that translation is a very useful way to appreciate not only word-combinations but also significant details of a text. When working on a translation-free basis we discovered that many students can briefly and superficially discuss challenging issues without understanding the notions behind the work. The matter is absolutely unacceptable for future specialists whose task is to analyze and assess the information. Hence, we proposed a mini-presentation approach which involves 2-4 minutes explanatory presentations about the issues in question. Once understood the vocabulary unit and corresponding notion are stocked in our mind.

On the other hand, the English terminology is a matter of paramount importance which means a special emphasis on the language side of professional communication. The work at terminology mastering and main notions is started at home and continued in class. In our case it works like that: the portion of texts is sent to students in advance to be studied and underlined from the point of view of the most significant vocabulary; then we discuss the units in the class and argue whether to include it into our LSP file or not; and in-class instructor gives a home-assignment to illustrate the vocabulary units by finding examples in original texts; the second stage begins with concrete examples handling the vocabulary, the next stage being the lexical units used in situations simulating the context suitable for the vocabulary. Thus, the chosen word-combination receives special attention no less than five times which guarantees its better memorizing.

Now, we arrive at the stage when students know what is going on in the world, have explicit and implicit information and have used topical vocabulary five-six times. The next stage is in class and involves sight translation. The sight translation is again in connection with the events, mentioned in most urgent news. The procedure of further development is like that: students start the translation of articles devoted to the same topic as was in their home portion but from some other news sources and usually a little less complicated than a home portion. It is done in a simultaneous manner when we do not read anything, performing a sight translation.

LSP vocabulary and unprepared translation is checked for the third time in the end of the term. By that time we have already compiled a bank of topical texts (usually 24-27 texts) and have learnt the most significant vocabulary units of the time-period. At the test students receive at random text for translation which is done after 2-3 minutes browsing. The texts for that task are usually taken either from BBC NEWS or from CNN news, being not too complicated in the structure. LSP verification is

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also advisable: either in the form of English-Russian or vice versa translation or in the context, namely, in situations or sentences.

Traditionally, we devote the first term to economic issues and the second one – to political issues. So, the vocabulary includes chunks of words typical of political outlook. In February and March we tackled the following challenging issues: Pope abdication and new Pope election, sexual abuse scandals and collapse of Catholicism in Ireland; election challenges and re-elections in Kenya, Ecuador, Italy, Bulgaria and Cyprus; Political tension in Europe and new emigration policies; leadership issues in global environment; soft power concept and soft power diplomacy; riots in Egypt and rebels in Syria, corruption scandals and reorganizations in China.

Now, let us have a look at the most topical vocabulary for the present moment: to expand consensus, win-win scenario, to take refuge, conspiracy theory, to stage a powwow, overwhelming vote, annihilate rebels, soft power, smart power, to morph into a new kind of conflict, to play the role of mediator, joint declaration, non-aligned movement, to seek consular protection, reconciliation process, to work toward rapprochement, spin doctor, security forces, unmanned drone, rogue state, to deepen rift, to cast a ballot, landlocked state, alleged role in violence, to plot a coup, the source of unrest, court ruling, to clinch a victory, to issue threats, snap elections, pope's abdication, en route, rogue state, kith and kin, etc...

In fact, the vocabulary, the work at which is going on during the whole period of education, eventually embraces most of necessary vocabulary, so that students can feel at ease while dealing with profile texts. According to our approach English is supposed to be not the main objective but a tool to reach the aim, and for that we need mainly, practical skills.

The work at texts for sight translation can be illustrated on the examples of “Egyptian court ruling resulted in deadly clashes” The text for home translation is taken from The New Zealand Herald, March 10, 2013. We are going to give an abridged variant to illustrate our approach.

“Egyptian protester dies in clashes with police”

An Egyptian court has confirmed the death sentences against 21 people for taking part in a deadly soccer riot but acquitted seven police officers for their alleged role in the violence. The verdict enraged fans in Cairo, prompting them to torch the soccer federation headquarters and a police club in protest.

The trial over the melee that killed 74 people after a soccer game in the city of Port Said in early 2012 has been the source of some of the worst unrest to hit Egypt in recent weeks. While the violence has largely involved fans of rival soccer teams, the case has taken on political undercurrents because many blame the police for standing by during the violence last year.

Shortly after the verdict was announced Saturday, fans of Cairo's Al-Ahly club who had gathered in the thousands outside the team's headquarters in the centre of the Egyptian capital went on a rampage, torching a police club nearby and storming Egypt's soccer federation headquarters before setting it ablaze. The twin fires sent plumes of thick black smoke billowing out over the Cairo skyline. Two army helicopters were used to extinguish the fires.

PROTESTERS TARGET CANAL

A man rescues soccer trophies from the Egyptian Football Association after the building was torched by angry soccer fans.

In Port Said, where the army took over security in the city center from the police on Friday, about 2,000 residents who want the local fans spared from execution blockaded ferries crossing the Suez Canal. Witnesses said youths also untied moored speedboats used to supply shipping on the waterway, hoping the boats would drift into the path of passing vessels.

Military police recovered five speedboats and brought them back to shore, but two were still drifting, one witness said.” [1]

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The LSP vocabulary can be supplemented with such units as: to die in clashes, death sentence (to be further varied), deadly riot, alleged role, to torch headquarters, source of unrest, rival teams, to take on political undercurrents, to stand by (to stand idly by), to go on a rampage, army helicopters, extinguish the fires, to spare from the execution, to target canal, blockaded ferries, to supply shipping on the waterway, to take over the security.

The class text is also devoted to the event and is taken from NBC NEWS. ***“1 dead as Egypt soccer-riot death sentences spark violence***
An injured security official is carried from a police officers club in an upscale Cairo neighborhood, after fires were set by protesters angry about death sentences imposed on soccer fans over a deadly riot.

Egyptian protesters torched buildings in Cairo and tried unsuccessfully to disrupt international shipping on the Suez Canal, as a court ruling on a deadly soccer riot stoked rage in a country beset by worsening security.

The ruling enraged residents of Port Said, at the northern entrance of the Suez Canal, by confirming death sentences imposed on 21 local soccer fans for their role in the riot last year when more than 70 people were killed.

But the court also angered rival fans in Cairo by acquitting a further 28 defendants that they wanted punished, including seven members of the police force which is reviled across society for its brutality under deposed autocrat Hosni Mubarak.

Security sources said one person had died in Cairo from the effects of tear gas and 65 people were injured, some by rubber bullets.” [2]

The vocabulary slightly differs mainly because the texts are abridged. However, the students have already formed their opinion about the event; they can discuss it in the class and give their opinion about the event, which should be with analytical commentaries. Nevertheless, before moving further with work it is reasonable to ask them to explain in their own words the notion behind such word-combinations as “soccer-riot death sentence, to set fires, court ruling, to confirm death sentences, to spark violence, to impose a death sentence, to disrupt international shipping, angered rival fans, to punish defendants, to acquit defendants, security sources, to be injured”.

The work is further continued at home where the students are to illustrate the vocabulary by their own examples, i.e. from MSN News “On Saturday, some protesters again clashed with police. In the capital, youths pelted police lines with rocks near Tahrir Square. In Suez, police fired teargas where protesters angry at Friday's deaths hurled petrol bombs and stormed a police post.” [3]

Usually they illustrate 4-5 expressions from the topic and are free to choose the ones they like. After the step they continue the work at class and generate situations of their own “The situation in Egypt continues to be very unstable. Even the smallest spark can ignite a great fire and the death verdict to soccer-fans resulted in deadly clashes between police and demonstrators on Friday. On Friday eleven people died and much more were injured.”

In fact, it is possible to intensify the effect by including a short presentation on one of the following topics: chronology of Port Said riot, overview of Arab Spring (the case of Egypt), public riots political insight into the history of Egypt. However students should remember that their presentations should be 4-5 minutes and to the point. The other issue to keep in mind is to use as many current expressions as possible.

The final touch is at mid-term or exam when the students are to demonstrate their unprepared translation skills. One should take into consideration that the time-gap between the work at the topic and the test can be 3-4 months. Nevertheless, we try to suggest texts with maximum vocabulary entry. The one to be taken for that topic can be the text from BBC NEWS, 10 March

“Unrest in Egypt over Port Said football riot sentences

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Rival football fans in Egypt have protested over sentences handed down over riots at a match in Port Said in February last year.

The court upheld 21 death sentences and handed down prison terms to other defendants over the violence, which claimed 74 lives.

Most victims were supporters of a Cairo team, and fans there criticised the sentencing for not going far enough.

In Port Said, fans of the local team accused the court of unfairness. Many people believe police in the city stood by during the rioting in revenge for the role of football supporters in the unrest which toppled Hosni Mubarak as president a year before. Police deny the accusation.

Ahead of Saturday's sentencing, the army assumed policing in Port Said, which saw fresh unrest last week. Police in at least 10 of Egypt's 29 provinces have been holding an unprecedented strike in protest at being used by the government of Islamist President Mohammed Morsi to confront protesters.” [4]

Our approach entails maximum involvement of students into out-of-class-self-study which goes hand-in-hand with class activities. The work at unprepared translation skills is just one side of our method. Other types of work imply on-line lectures and other free video and audio sources, visual-audio comparative analysis, writing skills which are checked using software and on-line proofreading. The article argues for more opportunities for students' self-study organization to integrate into modern society but that self-study activity should be structured and specifically organized. We must explore the essence of modern educational environment, assesses the possibilities of on-line resources and reveals the innovative potential of teaching techniques and soft-ware.

We believe that our approach which is based on vast text corpus, being available absolutely free of charge nowadays, can contribute not only to lectures of English but also can serve as a bases for studying other languages. The material for individual homework organization pattern has been drafted primarily to share the practices, developed at our faculty, and to assist other teachers to intensify the process of teaching.

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A case study: The Significance of the ESP In-session Course at International Burch University

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Abstract: Main purpose of this paper focused on the role of the ESP courses within the educational process at private university where the educational process is held in English language. The study points out the significance of in-course English for Business Purposes course. The study was carried at International Burch University. The focus group was comprised by 47 students (N=47) and 4 (N=4) lecturers at Faculty of Economics / International Burch University during spring semester, 2012/2013. The study investigated the need for the English for Business Purpose; the way students and lecturers perceive EBP at IBU; the problems students face during the course; the role of the English practitioner and the challenges of the English for Business Purposes courses. Another very tempting investigation was done to find out the reasons International Burch University has replaced the freshman courses with the EBP. The paper itself can be used as a useful resource for the future researches and the private institutions.

Key words: the ESP course, the Needs analysis, EBP

1. INTRODUCTION

The development in communication and business technology throughout the recent years has deeply influenced the field of English language teaching. Therefore, teaching English has become one of the most investigated fields. According to Jones and Davies (1983) “foreign languages have been learned not for their own sake but as vehicles for social and economic contacts and for the transportation of ideas.” Arslan and Akbarov (2012, p.25) mention that nowadays, at every level of teaching English, take it primary school education or tertiary education, the student is at the center. However, when we talk about tertiary education, students’ needs become more specific because they learn English for a specific purpose. All English courses tend to accomplish almost similar objectives, to set learning objectives, to establish a positive learning environment in the classroom, and to evaluate students’ progress. However, ESP is different than General English. It is different in the sense that it identifies the group of the learner, nationality, age, what students already know about English, interests, their socio-cultural background, and preferred styles of teaching and their attitude towards English or the cultures of the English speaking world. The rationale for the study was the fact that General English courses do not take into consideration

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the tasks and activities within the class learners are using English for; a lack of personal information about the learners and his/her needs, previous learning experiences, cultural information; undefined reasons for attending the course and expectations of it; learners' attitude toward English: *wants, means, subjective needs*; learners' current skills and language use, the learners' lacks; effective ways of learning the skills and language in learning needs; knowledge of how language and skills are used in the target situation-linguistic analysis, discourse analysis, genre analysis; information about the environment in which the course will be run. In Bosnia and Herzegovina, General English courses mostly take the main role at the universities.

After completing English Language School (ELS) at International Burch University which provides intensive high-quality English Language instruction courses, IBU students are usually not able to fully cope with the faculty programs. Therefore, since the freshman course did not include all the mentioned, it has been replaced by English for Business Purpose course.

Therefore, this paper explores a spectrum of problems and challenges students face while learning the second language. This is a qualitative research study. The purpose of the study is to investigate the need for EBP; the way students and lecturers perceive EBP at IBU; the problems students face during the course; the role of the English practitioner and the challenges of English for Business Purposes courses. The focus group was comprised by 47 students (N=47) and 4 lecturers (N=4) at the Management Department / IBU during spring semester, 2012/2013.

ESP course at International Burch University is truly intensive, demanding, and oriented towards learners who have no experience in the field of management upon course entry. The target learners' performance is assessed at the end of the session. It focuses broadly on the four basic language skills of listening, reading, writing and speaking. The course is based on the latest researches in the language of business. Less time is spent on learning grammar. The main intention is providing students to gain ability to combine words, many of which they already know, into phrases and expressions which are the basis of business English. The resources that are used in class mainly focus on various materials in order to explore a different international issue. Most resources are recorded from real contexts due to their relevance to the content-based instruction they study at university. Course evaluation is done by means of tests, student feedback, teacher self-reports and documents. The aim of the course is to develop students' English competency in the real context and to be able to follow the lecturers at the Department of Management.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

Many English practitioners and scientist in this field have defined the ESP course in a different way. Wright (1992, p.4) has offered a broader definition: "Different human activities require different communication skills, which in turn require mastery of specific linguistic items. ESP is, basically, language learning which has its focus on all aspects of language pertaining to a particular field of human activity, while taking into account the time constraints imposed by learners." Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p.16) define English Language teaching as a tree. English Language Teaching is the root of that tree and ESP comes out of that root. And then out of ESP, English for Academic Purposes and English for Occupational purposes are born. Actually there is not a strict distinction among all these terms. Flowerdew and Peacock

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(2001, p.11) also make a reference to the phrase 'clear-cut' as Hutchinson and Waters do. They say that "the distinction between the two major branches of ESP is not clear cut." EAP is separated into English for Biology, English for Mathematics, English for Economics, "and EOP branches out into English for Pilots, English for Doctors, English for Bank employees." The slight distinction between EAP and EOP is given by Flowerdew and Peacock (2001, p.11) for the statement that an English course designed to help students read economics textbooks would clearly be EAP, but a course designed to teach learners how to participate in business meetings or take phone calls definitely has an EOP dimension to it. Gatehouse (2001, p.5) places ESP and EOP in the same category under the umbrella term ESP. Carter is mentioning that "the end purpose of both EAP and EOP are one in the same: employment. English for Business Purposes is clarified as a category within EOP.

In order to define a clear vision of things to be done within an ESP / EBP course, it is required to define the analysis of target needs. The most characteristic feature of ESP course design is the needs analysis. It includes far more than simply identifying the linguistic features of the target situation. There are various methods to complete the need analysis. Need analysis can be done in different periods and it is not once-for-all activity. Need analysis answers a lot of questions about our students, such as: who the learners are, why students are taking the course, how they learn, where / when the ESP course will take place and what they already know. The current concept of needs analysis in ESP, according to Dudley-Evans and St John (1998, p.125), includes consideration of the following aspects: professional information about the learners: the tasks and activities learners are/will be using English for - *target situation analysis* and *objective needs*; personal information about the learners: factors which may affect the way they learn such as previous learning experiences, cultural information, reasons for attending the course and expectations of it, attitude to English - *wants, means, subjective needs*; English language information about the learners: what their current skills and language use are - present situation analysis - which allows us to assess; the learners' lacks; language learning information: effective ways of learning the skills and language in learning needs; professional communication information about: knowledge of how language and skills are used in the target situation - linguistic analysis, discourse analysis, genre analysis; what from the course is wanted; information about the environment in which the course will be run - means analysis. The target analysis will determine the final destination. The results of Needs analysis can be readily used as input for the task-based or content-based course design.

In order to reach the final aim, ESP practitioners should set the target strategies according to Target Situation Analysis. The strategies will define the way learners will study according to learners' background, the concept of teaching and learning, the methodology that appeals to most students and sort of techniques to be used within the course. Course designer should find an appropriate task as Robinson, P. (2001) stated that adopting tasks as the unit of analysis helps to ensure a high degree of real-world relevance, since they are based on a needs analysis of target performance objectives.

Formulating goals and objectives for a particular course the instructor is allowed to create a clear picture of what the course is going to be about. As K. Graves (1996) explains, goals are general statements or the final destination, the level students will need to achieve. Objectives express certain ways of achieving the goals. In other words, objectives are teachable chunks, which in their accumulation form the essence of the course. Clear understanding of goals and objectives will help teachers to be sure what material to teach, and when and how it should be taught. D. Nunan (1988) gives a clear description of how one should state objectives. Upon the Need analysis and the Placement score, course takes into consideration specific objectives that were set based on the needs of the students: to develop the learners reading skills to ensure comprehension of politics related reading materials; to help learners develop key techniques that could be adopted while reading texts; to develop the learners academic writing skills with the focus on

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defining political terms, essay writing, and summary writing; to enable the learners to acquire speaking and presentation skills; to develop the learners listening comprehension skills; to develop learner autonomy; to develop aural competence and oral fluency of learners; to develop the learners critical thinking skills through various tasks; to develop their interpersonal skills through various group activities; to help learners achieve proficiency in the effective use of language in various authentic career-related situations.

Completing the EBP lectures students are meant to be able to understand, adjust and acquire all they knowledge enhanced within the course. In order to achieve outcome goals they should familiarize themselves with terminology in the field of management and write competently in the target language.

3. METHODOLOGY

Subjects

The study was carried out at the Management Department, International Burch University. IBU is a multiethnic and multicultural institution of higher learning, which was established in 2008 in Sarajevo, the capital of Bosnia and Herzegovina, with the goal of presenting a unique opportunity to rethink the very idea of a modern university and formulate a blueprint for the future. The focus group was comprised by 47 students (N=47) attending EBP courses and the lecturers (N=4) at the Department of Management during spring semester, 2012/2013.

Instrument

The instrument used in this study was designed by the researchers in order to meet the requirements of the research questions and hypothesis stated in the research. The questionnaire was composed of 24 items, with a rating scale from one to five for each one of them. The questionnaire consisted of: background information questions and 24 questions to probe into students' attitudes. A pilot survey was conducted on students.

Data analysis

Before collecting the data students were asked permission to participate in this research and they agreed to do it. The procedures for the distribution of the questionnaire took place during the usual classes and were completed by all the students attending the classes of EBP at IBU.

With the instrument students identified the need for the EBP; the way students and lecturers perceive EBP at IBU; the problems students face during the course; the role of the English practitioner and the challenges of the English for Business Purposes courses. The questionnaire was composed of 24 statements, with a rating scale from one to five for each one of them. Students answered them as they applied to their study of English on a 5-point scale, Likert scale. SPSS was used to perform the analysis.

Findings and Discussion

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The objectives of the study were to investigate the need for the EBP; the way students and lecturers perceive EBP at IBU; the problems students face during the course; the role of the English practitioner and the challenges of the English for Business Purposes courses.

The questionnaire was designed in order to get students' and lecturers' attitudes on the Needs Analysis from Q1-Q6. According to Table 1. the lecturers strongly agreed (100%) that the Need analysis needs to be done before the EBP course, whereas 54% of students strongly agree with the statement. Both parties are quite consistent in their responses to items 1, 2, 3 and 5. Most lecturers (50%) strongly agree that students understand better when the practitioner tells them the instructions, whereas most of the students (54.3 %) just agree with that; 32.6% strongly agree. This might imply that the students are not completely satisfied with the existing EBP course. A significant data is that the lecturers are indecisive (75%) and think that students remember things they have heard in class better than things they have read, while the students show the discrepancy of opinions. The questions Q1-Q6 show the most preferred way of learning new vocabulary and instructions.

Items	P	1 ^a	2	3	4	5	M	Std.d.
An English practitioner should ask the students what they need and teach according to students' needs.	S T	54.3 100.0	34.8 0.0	8.7 0.0	0.0 0.0	2.2 0.0	1.61 1.00	.812
When the practitioner tells students the instructions they understand better.	S T	32.6 50.0	54.3 25.0	8.7 25.0	2.2 0.0	2.2 0.0	1.87 1.75	.833
When English practitioner tells the students how to learn new vocabulary in class, they learn it better.	S T	37.0 25.0	50.0 25.0	10.9 25.0	0.0 0.0	2.2 0.0	1.80 2.25	.817
Students remember things they have heard in class better than things they have read.	S T	32.6 0.0	32.6 25.0	23.9 75.0	6.5 0.0	4.3 0.0	2.17 2.75	1.075
The best way to learn a new vocabulary is from the English Media (TV, English programme, the radio)	S T	41.3 0.0	47.8 50.0	4.3 25.0	6.5 25.0	0.0 0.0	1.76 2.75	.866
Learning vocabulary alone/individually can be better than having the instructions.	S T	6.5 0.0	32.6 25.0	32.6 50.0	21.7 25.0	6.5 0.0	2.89 3.25	1.047

(1 strongly agree; 2 agree; 3 undecided; 4 disagree; 5 strongly disagree)*

Table 1. (N=47 for Ss; 4 for Ts)

Table 2. presents the way students and lecturers perceive EBP at IBU. The students at IBU agree (50%) that EBP courses help them more than EGP. Whereas, the lecturers (50%) strongly agree that the EBP is the core feature in learning English. More subjects agreed that EBP help the students. It is obvious that the ESP is superior to EGP (Std.d. 808) in terms of having more specific objectives than EGP. Approaches to EBP are different for they have more specific goals and teaching material. The means of 2.26 for students and 2.50 for teachers imply that EBP do motivate students in their intention to learn more. Same results stand for the students who do not know the adequate vocabulary that they will not be successful in the lectures. The lack of general vocabulary can lead to misunderstanding, not mentioning a need for understanding a content rich article in the field of management. However, this issue requires deeper research in terms of EBP toward EGP where the students' final academic achievement is to be measured.

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The main question in this group is whether the EBP courses should replace EGP and become the mainstream of learning English at universities. The lecturers disagreed (75%) with this item and opposed, where the students were indecisive. It is probably because students were only provided EBP course and not any other. This implies the lecturers stand for the EGP as a freshman course together with the EBP course.

Items	P	1 ¹	2	3	4	5	M	Std.d
Business English courses help students more than General English courses.	S	6.5	50.0	37.0	6.5	0.0	2.43	.785
	T	50.0	0.0	25.0	25.0	0.0	2.25	
Business English courses have more specific goals/objectives than General English courses.	S	15.2	54.3	23.9	6.5	0.0	2.22	.808
	T	75.0	25.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.25	
Business English should be different from General English courses in its approaches.	S	34.8	52.2	8.7	4.3	0.0	1.83	.756
	T	50.0	50.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.50	
Business English motivates students and they study more.	S	19.6	45.7	23.9	10.09	0.0	2.26	.904
	T	25.0	0.0	75.0	0.0	0.0	2.50	
Business English help students more to achieve their academic success.	S	26	60.9	13.0	0.0	0.0	1.87	.629
	T	75.0	25.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.25	
If students don't know the adequate vocabulary, they will not be successful in the lectures.	S	34.8	45.0	15.2	2.2	2.2	1.91	.881
	T	75.0	25.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.25	
Business English class is sufficient and can replace General English course.	S	21.7	32.6	32.6	10.9	2.2	2.39	1.163
	T	0.0	0.0	25.0	0.0	75.0	1.25	

Table 2. (N=47 for Ss; 4 for Ts)

Table 3. shows significant results that there is a discrepancy of opinions between the two parties in that the students, who are good at English in general, are good at Business English. It again points that the lecturers pay a lot of attention and importance to the EGP as the core of English education. However, the students (21.7%) and the lecturers (25.0%) strongly agree that the students who are good at EBP courses are able to achieve more. Later on, students might acquire a more professional and communicative competence in English. The lecturers (100%) strongly agree that students should have background and knowledge in basis English skills. The means of 1.7 and 1.0 show there is not much discrepancy in opinion about the requirement of a basis English skills and general proficiency in English language. Both the students and the lecturers agree about EBP being more challenging than EGP with the means of 2.15 for the students and 2.00 for the lecturers. It has been already known that the EBP is more challenging for it is harder.

Items	P	1	2	3	4	5	M	Std.d
Students, who are good at English in general, are good at Business English.	S	30.4	39.1	15.2	10.9	4.3	2.20	1.157
	T	25.0	0.0	25.0	50.0	0.0	3.00	
Students, who are good at Business English, achieve more in the lectures.	S	21.7	63.0	13.0	2.2	0.0	1.96	.669
	T	25.0	50.0	25.0	0.0	0.0	2.00	
Students should have background knowledge in basic English skills.	S	43.5	47.8	6.5	0.0	2.2	1.7	.776
	T	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.00	
Business English is more challenging than General English.	S	23.9	45.7	23.9	4.3	2.2	2.15	.926
	T	50.0	0.0	50.0	0.0	0.0	2.00	

Table 3. (N=47 for Ss; 4 for Ts)

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Items	P	1	2	3	4	5	M	Std.d.
I am satisfied with the role of the English practitioner.	S	21.7	43.5	32.6	2.2	0.0	2.15	.926
	T	0.0	50.0	50.0	0.0	0.0	2.5	
English practitioner must teach parallel to the Content teacher/lecturer.	S	23.9	58.7	13.0	0.0	4.3	2.02	.799
	T	50.0	25.0	25.0	0.0	0.0	1.75	
Teaching materials are important for Business English course.	S	34.8	50.0	6.5	0.0	8.7	1.98	.890
	T	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.00	
An English practitioner must possess content knowledge.	S	21.7	13.0	32.6	19.6	13.0	2.89	1.085
	T	75.0	25.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.25	
An English practitioner must know Bosnian/Turkish language.	S	21.7	28.3	37.0	8.7	4.3	2.46	1.320
	T	50.0	50.0	25.0	0.0	0.0	1.75	

Table 4. (N=47 for Ss; 4 for Ts)

The students (21.7% strongly agree) are not completely satisfied with the role of the English practitioner providing EBP course at IBU. IBU should tend to maintain and arrange quality ESP practitioners who act as a course designer and materials provider, collaborator, researcher and evaluator. It was pointed out by the lecturers who agree (50%) and who are decisive (50%) about the success of the role of English practitioner at IBU. The table 4. presents the subjects' opinion about the need of the collaboration and support between the content teacher and the EBP practitioner. For the lecturers (75.9%) an EBP practitioner must possess content knowledge. S/he must possess teaching competency, experience and capability of fulfillment of the students' needs. Team-teaching is a perfect suggestion for this situation. Therefore, it is well-known there has been a lack of ESP practitioners in the job market. However, there exists a discrepancy in the item that the practitioner is required to possess knowledge of English and Turkish language. Bilingual teaching is very appreciated in the terms of EBP teaching.

Items	P	1	2	3	4	5	M	Std.d.
Limited hours of Business English courses are problem.	S	21.7	28.3	37.0	8.7	4.3	2.46	1.069
	T	50.0	50.0	25.0	0.0	0.0	1.75	
ESP course should be offered to students at different departments as well.	S	26.1	43.5	21.7	2.2	6.5	2.20	1.062
	T	75.0	25.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.25	

Table 5. (N=47 for Ss; 4 for Ts)

Table 5. indicates that the lecturers (50%) think limited hours of EBP courses might affect the teaching in terms of achieving complete success. The limited hours of instructions are not a barrier for the students with the mean of 2.46. Both parties; think that an ESP/EBP course should be offered to various majors whereas students can benefit from its instructions.

4. CONCLUSION

The study was conducted at International Bruch University, Management Department. It investigated the attitudes of the students and the lecturers regarding the demand for English for Business Purposes. The major findings indicate that the Need analysis needs to be done before the EBP course; the students are not completely satisfied with the existing EBP course; EBP motivates students in their intention to learn

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more; EBP has more specific objectives than EGP; the EBP courses should replace EGP and become the mainstream of learning English at universities; the students who are good at EBP courses achieve more academic outcomes; students should have background and knowledge in basic English skills; the EBP is more challenging for the reason it is harder; an EBP practitioner must possess content knowledge; and an ESP/EBP course should be offered to various majors. However, not only the quality of the EBP and the competence of the English practitioner can contribute, but the students' learning capacity. Sometimes the EBP curricula and placing teaching material, course objectives, course design, and the students' constantly changing need might be a great burden for a practitioner. The study was conducted at only one department which makes it limited in terms of number of the investigated students and lecturers. The paper itself is unique, being the first study done on this issue and it can be used as a useful resource for future researches and private institutions.

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Intercultural Communication Module: A Framework for Teaching General English and English for Specific Purposes

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Abstract. This paper will introduce a teaching framework for the introduction of intercultural communication module in teaching both general and English for Specific Purposes. The essence is to help students mediate intercultural communication skills and become competent intercultural communicators. Also, the objective of this paper is to demonstrate what benefits introduction of intercultural communication will bring to ESP students and encourage teachers to implement this concept in ESP course. Additionally, it will show how to balance the theory with practical examples of teaching methodology, materials and activities (moodle forums, blog reflections, vodcasts, iPhone and iPad apps).

Key words: intercultural communication module, intercultural communication skills, teaching English, activities.

1. WHY DEVELOP “THE INTERCULTURAL DIMENSION” IN A LANGUAGE COURSE?

Broadly speaking, intercultural communication is a multi-disciplinary academic field of research and study that seeks to understand how people from different countries and cultures behave, communicate and perceive the world by creating a cultural synergy (Bakić-Mirić 2012, 45). And so, after almost millennia of research, contemporary scholars agree that intercultural challenges today are global and present in every segment of life and in every profession. Hence, intercultural communication is the single and most important personal quality, and the most rewarding one for all professionals whose priority is to expand knowledge and broaden their horizons. As a result, if the students want to be successful future professionals they need to learn and understand the basic principles of intercultural communication.

Moreover, the concept of intercultural communicative competence in language teaching takes into account that language learners need to acquire not only grammatical competence but also the knowledge of what is the appropriate language in the communication process both linguistically and culturally. (Coperias Aguilar 2008, 59-60) To this end, the students are introduced to the arena of intercultural communication where they learn how to perceive another culture from different perspectives, understand those cultures, and challenge their own biases and stereotypes about those cultures. (Bakić-Mirić 2009, 38) This means helping students see similarities and differences between cultures, help them see the interlocutor as an individual whose qualities are yet to be discovered, rather than as a representative of an externally ascribed identity, help students avoid certain stereotypes or generalizations about a group of people, a country and a nation, teach students intercultural and linguistic competence necessary for intercultural interaction, and teach students that such interaction is

an enriching experience. (Cooper and Simonds 2003, 175; Cooper et al. 2007, 189; Bakić-Mirić 2009, 39) Furthermore, language teaching with an intercultural dimension actually helps students to acquire the linguistic and cultural competence needed to communicate in both speaking and writing, to formulate what they want to say/write in correct and appropriate ways.

2. HOW TO IMPLEMENT INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATION MODULE INTO A CURRICULUM OR A STUDY PROGRAM?

Generally, curriculum or study program is in most cases based on certain topics and grammatical structures. When implementing intercultural communication module into curriculum or a study program, teachers can start from the topic and content in the classroom textbook, and then encourage students to ask further questions and make cultural comparisons. The key principle is to get students to view the familiar topic from intercultural standpoint. For instance, the topic of sports can be examined from many perspectives, including: gender (is it played by men, women or both), age (is it for the young or the old), medicine (is it culture bound), religion (are there religious objections to playing sport), racism (are there incidents of racist chants or insults) etc. Topics such as wining and dining, clubbing, countries, education, tourism, national costumes, music, leisure, can have a similar approach. At the same time, grammatical exercises (for example tenses, gerund, the -ing form etc.) can be used to challenge prejudice and stereotypes. For instance, stereotypically female or male roles or actions (Nancy has been making a cake all morning; Nathan was watching tennis last night) or stereotypical generalizations about nations and countries (The Danish are stingy; The Germans are nitpicky about details; The Greeks are lazy; Belgium is a boring country) are some of the ways for teachers to encourage learners to comment on such statements and challenge them.

For the purpose of conversation practice, the students can be organized to act out an intercultural incident where they can demonstrate their knowledge and understanding of the features of intercultural communication such as verbal and nonverbal intercultural communication. For example, a teacher selects the following intercultural awareness practice activity:

→ Cultural incident 1. A meeting in the street

You are walking along the street in a new town. The street is quiet. Somebody crosses the street and walks towards you. What is your response?

1. This person means to rob you.

(People from masculine culture might feel this way. In a masculine culture, strangers do not trust each other. If the culture is also strongly uncertainty avoiding, this would add to the distrust.)

2. This person means to ask for directions.

(In feminine cultures, people tend to trust strangers.)

3. This person wants to have a chat.

(This is an uncertainty tolerant point of view and it might also speak of collectivism: taking time for socializing.)

4. This person is going to tell you that you are not allowed to be here.

(Somebody from an uncertainty avoiding country might think this, particularly if power distance is also large.)

5. This person means to sell you something.

(This might occur in many countries, but it is more likely to happen in collectivist nations, where personal contact and trade are more mixed than in individual ones.) (Hofstede et al, 2002, 237)

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Further, students of pharmacy and nursing at the University of Niš Medical School during their English for Specific Purposes course, for example, learn that intercultural communication is communication on the basis of respect for individuals and equality of human rights as the democratic basis for social interactions and in that sense become fully aware of the fact that attitudes for illnesses, kinds of treatment, the role of a nurse or a pharmacist in building a successful rapport with the patient vary greatly across cultures. What is considered an illness in one culture may not be seen as such in another. Some cultures favor treatment of the whole person others concentrate on dealing with specific symptoms. In some cultures healthcare providers (the nurse/the pharmacist) will put more emphasis on the patient as a person, while in others the focus is on the analysis of the illness. In addition, in some cultures proxemics (physical distance), oculosics (eye contact), haptics (touch) and vocalics (voice patterns) vary across cultures and should be learned in order to avoid misunderstanding and insult. The following example is used to practice intercultural competence in the pharmaceutical setting:

Cultural incident 2. OTC counseling

Scenario: Ms. Chung is obviously distressed. She has just learned that she has skin cancer.

The pharmacist steps from behind the counter and motions Ms. Chung to a more private area. Ms. Chung indicates that the doctor was confusing when she talked about the possible side effects of the medication. The pharmacist goes over the possible side effects and explains what she should do if they occur. The pharmacist observes that Ms. Chung looks confused. He stops and asks her if she understands. She says she does. Even though she replies that she understands, he provides a more thorough, detailed explanation. After this explanation, Ms. Chung's facial expressions reveal that she understands. At one point during the conversation, the pharmacist placed his hand on Ms. Chung's hand, looked into her eyes and said in a definitive tone, *I want to help you through this*. The pharmacist makes sure that his body movements and facial expressions are congruent with his words. That is, when he says he is concerned he looks concerned. During the conversation, the pharmacist varies his tone, rate and volume. For example, the pharmacist noticed that Ms. Chung tended to whisper the word cancer. He also lowered his voice whenever he used the word. The pharmacist used a soft, calm and even voice.

When the incident is acted out, the following questions are inferred: *Was the approach proper? Was it too personal? Did one of the interlocutors monitor nonverbal signs? What were they? How much emotion was involved? Did he/she overdo with nonverbal expressions? Were his/her nonverbal expressions congruent with his verbal ones? What about the voice patterns? What intercultural lore has the interlocutor overlooked?* In turn, the whole class discusses and compares observations from the intercultural communication standpoint. (Bakić-Mirić 2007, 252-253)

Moreover, when doing this intercultural drill, students should notice that their initial response will largely depend on their prior experiences and their own country of origin. What they should do first is choose one or more responses from the list, then try to figure out what values guided their choice, and interpret responses from a cultural point of view. As seen from the above, the cultural interpretations for each situation are written after a possible response so students can check their answers immediately and then discuss with the whole class.

→ Critical Incident 3. The Assessment of His Efforts

Tal was an African student from Gambia who recently began a postgraduate business administration course at a British university. It was the first time he had been to a foreign country, but having won a Gambian scholarship to attend university he was confident of his ability to do well. He applied himself

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enthusiastically to his studies and felt he had few difficulties with the material presented. However, when he received the first assessment of his papers and contributions to tutorials, he was disconcerted to find they were not very favorable. He was told that although his ideas were “interesting” he did not keep to the topic, brought in too many irrelevancies and did not present his arguments in a logical manner. Tal was puzzled by this, as his work seemed logical and relevant to him, so he sought advice from Tony, one of his British classmates. Tony showed him some of his papers that had been given good grades, but this only increased Tal’s confusion, because Tony’s work seemed to Tal to be insubstantial and dull.

- How would you explain to Tal’s professors the origins of his confusion as to what is expected of him?

→ Gambian and British modes of thinking and communicating are very different.

→ Tal probably did not have the intellectual capacity to tackle postgraduate course

→ Tal's Gambian education did not prepare him for the more rigorous British educational system

→ Tal was probably going through a confusing settling-in period and with time would produce more organized work.

→ How did you arrive at your answer?

In other words, students must take a proactive stance and develop sensitivity to the role culture plays in everyday life. It is essential, therefore, that students not only learn about other cultures but, what is even more important, know their own culture. This will help them realize how it affects their ability to look at, understand and appreciate other people for what they are regardless of their cultural and ethnic background that will for sure enhance their ability to communicate with people from other cultures, and by all means increase their intercultural competence. As a result, during English language classes, the students are drilled to challenge each other and simultaneously examine their own cultural biases (if any) as they learn about cultures. (Bakić-Mirić 2009, 40) Also, in order to have the ability to know how to ask people from other cultures and, consequently, obtain relevant information about their beliefs, values and behaviors - skills of inquiry and interaction are a must. This means the ability to acquire new knowledge of a culture and cultural practices as well as the ability to operate knowledge, attitudes and skills under the constraints of real-time communication and interaction. (Bakić-Mirić 2012, 13-15)

More importantly, starting from the exercises proposed by the textbook, the teacher can include vocabulary that will additionally help learners discuss and understand cultural diversity. This can include terms such as: equality, dignity, gender, bias, prejudice, stereotype, racism, bigotry, ethnic minority.

Lastly, standard curriculum or study program can always be modified and/or adjusted and challenged by introducing the intercultural dimension either by additional books that specifically deal with the topic of intercultural communication and/or by using the existing material from regular textbooks.

3. WHAT MATERIALS ARE NEEDED TO PROMOTE INTERCULTURAL DIMENSION IN A LANGUAGE COURSE?

Sometimes, a classroom textbook can be insufficient for a teacher to properly introduce the intercultural dimension in class. Nevertheless, the teacher can always suggest appropriate additional materials. One way of doing this is to find or even better, encourage students themselves to find additional authentic materials which present a different cultural view. Materials that can be used are

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authentic texts and video materials, newspaper and magazine articles, visuals such as photographs, diagrams, pictures and cartoons respectively. The Internet is, of course, a rich source for this.

For instance, learners can find a newspaper text with different political and/or cultural perspectives and analyze the context and intention behind the text from a cultural viewpoint. They can also be encouraged to look for similar texts and/or visuals from their familiar culture and compare. This will enable students to approach a topic from different angles, and develop a critical and comparative approach to different cultures through various materials used.

Since the 21st century is the digital age both teachers and students can also make use of Moodle forums, blog reflections, vodcasts, iPhone and iPad apps.

1. Moodle forums – Moodle is an open source e-learning platform for creating an online course. Forums are integral part and a powerful communication tool within a Moodle (Modular Object-Oriented Dynamic Learning Environment) course. Think of them as an online message board where you and your students can post messages to each other while easily keeping track of individual conversations. Forums are the primary tool for having a discussion online and are the central organizing feature in the Social course type (in this case intercultural communication module). Forums allow you and your students to communicate with each other at any time, from anywhere with an Internet connection. For example, both you and your students can add new intercultural topics for discussions every week: “What does it mean to have an intercultural mindset? Why is being a competent intercultural communicator important today? Why is intercultural communication important in every sphere of life and in every profession? What are the core competencies in intercultural communication?” are but a few topics to post for discussion every week.

2. Blog and blog reflections - A blog (short for weblog) can be a powerful classroom tool for teaching intercultural communication competence. Every week one student (blogger) is assigned to create his/her own blog. The rest of the students write their blog reflections commenting the blogger’s experience in a foreign country and assessing his/her intercultural behavior. For example, a blog entitled: “A record of my intercultural experience” - about a country they have recently visited particularly paying attention to the following:

→ *Feelings* - Ways in which my curiosity and interest were aroused (examples from ordinary daily life, especially when they made me re-consider my own culture); Periods when I felt uncomfortable/homesick (what made me feel like this, with particular examples if possible); Periods when I felt at home and comfortable (what made me feel like this, with particular examples if possible).

→ *Knowledge* - The most important things I learnt about family life and/or life at college; The most important things I have learnt about the country, the nation, the state where I stayed - in the present and in its past; What I have learnt about customs and conventions of talking with people (topics which interest them, topics to avoid, how to greet people and take leave from them).

→ *Actions* - Incidents or problems which I resolved by explaining different cultures to people, helping them see the points of view of different cultures and how misunderstandings can happen; Examples of times when I have had to ask questions and work out my own answers (from ‘asking the way’ to understanding cultural customs and beliefs).

3. Vodcasts - A video podcast (sometimes shortened to *vodcast*) includes video clips. They have become extremely popular online and are short clips of video, usually part of a longer recording that can bring English teaching to the next level. For example, when traveling abroad students can

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make their vodcasts for the class which they can send to the teacher who then plays it in class. Students then comment and/or share their own experience of the country. Also, they can make interesting vodcasts even if they do not travel abroad on different intercultural topics: nonverbal communication, shopping, booking a sightseeing tour etc.

4. iPhone and iPad apps – Applications or apps are an endless potential for students who can download books to read, watch interesting clips and bring stories to life that are related to intercultural communication.

Finally, each of the approaches to the study materials should always be critical, thought-provoking and mind stimulating, provoke interesting questions, discussions and present opposing views.

4. HOW DOES INTERCULTURAL DIMENSION AFFECT TEACHING AND LEARNING STYLES?

Implementing the intercultural dimension requires facilitating regular classroom procedures such as teaching, learning and assessing to allow for the expression of, recognition, and respect of cultural differences. This means paying attention to language and using politically correct speech. Therefore, whether the students are involved in pair work, group work or class discussion, the following rules should apply:

- Both teachers and students should be good listeners and take turns in discussion.
- Even in heated debates, polite language must be used at all times.
- Discriminatory language, racist, sexist and homophobic discourse and expressions, the use of sarcasm, irony and passing belittling judgments must be prohibited.
- Students should show respect when commenting on visuals and/or texts.
- Both teachers and students have the right and the responsibility to challenge stereotypes. That is the only way to overcome the existing stereotypes.
- Showing respect towards others is mandatory.

Finally, both teachers and students will expect to examine and challenge generalizations or stereotypes, and suggest or present other viewpoints. This is an essential part of developing intercultural competence.

In discussions, students should have opportunities to make a personal response to visuals, stories, case-studies and other materials. Moreover, language learning that promotes an intercultural dimension encourages a sharing of knowledge and a discussion of values and opinions. This means that students learn from each other as much as from the teacher, classroom textbook or additional material.

Effectively, by the end of the compulsory English language course the students should be able to understand the following:

- a) The concept of cultural filters (or shared cultural experiences, perceptions and beliefs (or our world view) as they apply to in culturally diverse populations.
- b) Understand how culture works to create differences in disease explanations, and
- c) Understand how culture molds beliefs about the world. (Bakić-Mirić 2009, 40)

What should also be pointed out is that the acquisition of intercultural competence is never complete and perfect. Moreover, to be a successful intercultural communicator does not require

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perfect English language and cultural competence. This means that there is no perfect model to imitate, no equivalent of the notion of a perfect intercultural interlocutor just as there is no acquisition of a new national identity. What an English language teacher can do, however, is make the students learn the foundation of intercultural competence: curiosity and openness, empathy, readiness to suspend disbelief about other cultures and belief about one's own. This means not taking one's own values, beliefs and behaviors for granted, avoid assuming that they are the only possible and naturally correct ones and be able to see how they might look from an outsider's perspective who has different set of values, beliefs and behaviors by showing the ability to de-center and think outside the box. (Bakić-Mirić 2009, 40)

Finally, if the teacher manages students to be open-minded, curious about and tolerant of other people's beliefs, values and behaviors, the students will understand their own beliefs, values and behaviors better. Students need a critical awareness of themselves and their values in addition to those of other people which make up and build-up their ability to evaluate and judge on the basis of explicit criteria, perspectives and products of one's own and other cultures.

5. ASSESSMENT OF INTERCULTURAL KNOWLEDGE AND COMPETENCE

Generally, assessment of students' intercultural competence is not an easy task. First, because standardized tests do not apply due to the vast sea of information and accordingly, selection of the most important intercultural facts. Second, the problem with assessment is that selected intercultural facts represent only a small part of intercultural competence. The most difficult of all is to assess whether students have changed their attitude and become more tolerant of differences and the unfamiliar, have they managed to step outside the box, and act on the basis of this newly acquired intercultural knowledge. Nevertheless, the following sample questions should prove effective in assessment of students' intercultural competence:

1. Select an ethnicity other than your own and try to answer the following questions:

- What is the target of my stereotype?
- What is the content of my stereotype?
- Why do I believe the stereotype is accurate?
- What is the source of my stereotype?
- How much actual contact do I have with the target of the stereotype?

2. What are, in your opinion, examples of American ethnocentrism?

3. What are, in your opinion, examples of European ethnocentrism?

4. What is the relationship among stereotypes, prejudice, racism and ethnocentrism?

5. How would you adapt, as an expatriate, to life in the United States?

6. Think about planning a trip to another country. What preparations would you make to minimize the effects of a culture shock?

7. Choose 10 items to put in a time capsule (size and cost notwithstanding). Once you have selected the items consider what these material possessions say about your culture. (Samovar et al. 2007, 280)

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6. CONCLUSION

The purpose of introducing the intercultural dimension in teaching English language is staying in touch with the world, communicating wisely with it and fostering communication between people. The role of the English language teacher in promoting the intercultural dimension in class is to develop skills, attitudes and awareness of values just as much as it is to expand knowledge of particular culture or country and make students aware how important it is to celebrate diversity by overcoming prejudices about peoples and cultures that are different from their own.

Generally, with the ever-increasing diversity of the population around the globe and strong evidence of racial, national and ethnic disparities in all spheres of life, it is critically important that students are educated specifically to address issues of culture in an effective manner. After all, training students (future professionals) in various aspects of intercultural communication with culturally different others is both an important agenda and a challenge not only for an English language teacher but also for other educators.

In conclusion, and as a rule of thumb, a reader should notice that the framework for facilitating development of the intercultural communication module showed herewith is by no means definitive, but should prove effective in teaching both general English and English for Specific Purposes.

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Designing textbooks in ESP

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Abstract: Designing textbooks in ESP is essential, since it focuses on topics and functions of language. Communicative language teaching has stressed the use of authentic language as the material from which students learn, providing them with experience of language produced by native speakers. 'International organizations: Pros and Cons' is an example of the textbooks designed for the students of the faculty of public administration at Moscow state university. The manual is a thematic collection of texts of social and political orientation, associated with the modern administrative-territorial, cultural, etc. division of the world. The purpose of the manual is to develop reading comprehension, speaking, argumentation and presentation skills within the proposed thematic material.

Key words: ESP, textbook, student-oriented, competence, authentic, communication skills

1. INTRODUCTION

Given the trend of globalization, the internationalization of business, and the impact of the Bologna Process on the higher education in Russia, one of the goals of foreign/second language education must be to provide students with both communication skills (linguistic competence) and professional competence (knowledge necessary to succeed in the labor market). As a result ESP (English for specific purposes) is given more prominence in the curricula and syllabi of Bachelor's and Master's Degree programs. This is reflected in National educational standards of higher professional education identified by the Ministry of education and science of Russia -- students should learn real-world skills.

There are several departments at the faculty of public administration in Moscow state university. The number of hours of English classes in syllabi varies. Some departments have enough hours to offer students courses of General English, Business English and ESP and/or EAP (English for academic purposes). But students of the other departments are not so fortunate -- the course of foreign language study includes only Business English. Those students who want to either improve their foreign language knowledge or think they need more of English classes have an opportunity to attend courses of the program *Translating in the Sphere of Professional Communication* to develop practical skills of oral, written and oral-written translation, abstracting, and annotating of the scientific texts. Another reason for taking ESP courses is their relevance for their future studying or jobs. Being the main language of international communication English is perceived as the language of career opportunity. In ESP learning/teaching the practical application of the language prevails over all other aspects of language learning, and if we look at some definitions of it we can distinguish a common feature -- it is student-oriented. ESP is unique in terms of teaching and learning -- materials and methods are set in accordance with the learner's needs. McDonough (1984) suggests, "ESP closely matching teaching content to learner requirements seems to be the ideal answer in language teaching..." Strevens (1988: 84) says that ESP is "designed to meet specified needs of learners; related to content, to particular disciplines, occupations and activities; and centred on the language

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appropriate to those activities, in syntax, lexis, discourse, semantics". Richards and Schmidt (2010: 198) defines ESP as "the role of English in a language course or program of instruction in which the content and aims of the course are fixed by the specific needs of a particular group of learners."

2. STRUCTURE

The analysis of ESP textbooks shows that it focuses on relevant topics and functions of language that are needed for learners' skills. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) asserted that "course design is the process by which the raw data about a learning need is interpreted in order to produce an integrated series of teaching-learning experiences, whose ultimate aim is to lead the learners to a particular state of knowledge." Moreover, Jordan (1997) cited in Tsou (2009: 7) referred to ESP textbooks saying that most subject-specific books are organized around themes or topics, with integrated practice in the functions and skills. No one can deny that these textbooks are more interesting because the content is up to date and related to issues that concern students; moreover, the texts are often written by specialists in the field.

'International organizations: Pros and Cons' is an example of the textbooks designed by the professors of the department of foreign languages for the students of the faculty of public administration at Moscow state university whose majors are political science, social science, economics, law, management, public administration, etc. It is a thematic collection of texts of social and political orientation, associated with the modern administrative-territorial, cultural, political/ideological division of the world. The manual consists of nine units, each subdivided into 5 sections: the first section introduces the topic; the second one is the most important as it includes the main text, lexis to learn, exercises to practice it in speech, activities to build/improve reading comprehension, some tasks in this section are aimed at acquiring academic skills; the third section contains texts for extensive reading; the tasks of the fourth section relate to translation; and the fifth section contains assignment for individual or group work. For example, for the final project students are supposed to make a group presentation: 1) Make a collective talk using PowerPoint presentation entitled "Russia – Chapter 9. Rowntree, et. al. Modified by Joe Naumann, UMSL". You can find it on the Internet. Or 2) Go to <http://www.essential-humanities.net/world-history/the-nine-global-civilizations/#Back-ground-Information> study the article and prepare projects on a topic dealt with one of the four modern global civilizations.

3. MATERIAL

One can find lots of ESL/EFL textbooks produced annually across the globe, but ESP textbooks are few. Even experienced teachers might find it a daunting task to select appropriate textbooks or material for target groups. Choosing relevant texts for the ESP textbook teachers have to carry out evaluation of the materials available to decide which are better in terms of form (language used) and content. For instance, it is easy to find information about international organizations these days, as they all have their own well designed/developed websites. But once surfing the Web I alighted upon the book written by a Frenchman Louis Dolivet, a left-wing activist who became editor of United Nations World Magazine (<http://www.questia.com/library/56152/the-united-nations-a-handbook-on-the-new-world-organization>) Having compared the extracts (given below) any ESP teacher would give preference to the one from the handbook.

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RARELY IN HISTORY has an inter-governmental organization, right from its inception, been subject to so many contradictory interpretations and evaluations as has the United Nations. Immediately the principles of the San Francisco Charter became known in the various parts of the world, statesmen and commentators, political leaders and plain citizens were divided into pro- or anti-United Nations groups. The first, and larger, group contended that at last an organization capable of continuing the wartime unity of the Allies into the peace had been created; the second insisted that the maintenance of absolute national sovereignty and the veto provisions would make it impossible for the organization to function as the principal peace-maintaining machinery of humanity. Between these two extremes there are innumerable interpretations of the United Nations as a transitional instrument for an effective world organization. In meetings and discussion groups, in editorials and radio forums, suggestions are being made to transform the United Nations into a *global* parliament, to amend the Charter immediately, while others warn against undue haste and the danger of abandoning national privileges. (Louis Dolivet, 1946, 15)

The United Nations is an international organization founded in 1945 after the Second World War by 51 countries committed to maintaining international peace and security, developing friendly relations among nations and promoting social progress, better living standards and human rights. Due to its unique international character, and the powers vested in its founding Charter, the Organization can take action on a wide range of issues, and provide a forum for its 193 Member States to express their views, through the General Assembly, the Security Council, the Economic and Social Council and other bodies and committees. (<http://www.un.org/en/aboutun/index.shtml>)

4. ACTIVITIES

On the one hand, as in any other language learning/teaching course, the material included focuses on the four language skills: reading, listening, speaking and writing. On the other hand, we pay attention to sub-skills, i.e. listening for gist, note-taking, skimming for information, and so on. Most teachers believe that activities in textbooks should encourage sufficient communicative and meaningful practice. It should be noted that the activities incorporate individual pair and group work. Although the course described is for students who are supposed to know grammar well, some grammar points and vocabulary items are better introduced and digested in motivating and realistic contexts.

For example, pretext/warm-up exercises do not only introduce the topic of a unit but also make students do some research. For example, the Unit 2 ‘Global Institutions and International Law’ starts with the speech of Jayantha Dhanapala, a former UN Under-Secretary-General and a life member of United Nations Association of Sri Lanka (UNASL) (<http://www.dailynews.lk/2012/06/26/fea01.asp>). Students are expected to be able to pronounce and comment on all the names of organizations, events, phenomena and documents mentioned in the text (these all are given in italics there). The textbook has been initially aimed at translators/interpreters this is why the key words and expressions, and some linking devices presented either in English or in Russian from the exercise following the text prepare students to summarize the text.

Texts for extensive reading present completely different, sometimes opposite points of view on the topic/subject. Students learn to participate in discussions expressing their view points and arguing with each other. For example, having read the text under the title ‘War Violates International Law’, students answer the question: ‘Do you think there may be moral wars?’, or in Unit 7 Ideological and Political Grouping they are asked to express their opinions about the genuine motives and actual role of NATO and its national leaders in triggering wars.

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Translation skills tasks involve students in pair or group work. They act out dialogues where participants are supposed to communicate with each other through an intermediary/interpreter speaking different languages.

Interpret the following conversation. Work in triplets. One student is a journalist, another student is an expert, and the third student plays the part of an interpreter. Perform the interview taking turns.

Q.-Многие руководители государств, обремененных внешним долгом, в своих проблемах склонны обвинять западные банки и правительства, не обращая при этом внимание на ситуацию, существующую внутри страны. Это, как известно, прежде всего, процветающая коррупция и поддержка непроизводительных отраслей. Но ведь очевидно, что именно эти факторы являются главными причинами экономического застоя.

A.-Right. We often hear that economic subjugation and foreign debt are the modern forms of what occupation and military blockade were in the past. The external debt has become a modern expression of imperialism.

Q.-Каковы, по Вашему мнению основные претензии, предъявляемые развивающимися странами своим кредиторам?

A.-They habitually describe interest on foreign debt as an attempt to collect foreign currency to cover the deficit of wealthy countries, especially the most powerful ones. They tend to address only the international aspect of the debt crisis. The key proposals of debtor nations include lowering real international interest rates, securing concessionary terms on existing debt and increasing annual IMF lending to keep pace with international inflation.

5. CONCLUSION

English as the global tongue has not only increasingly become popular as a foreign/second language at school, college or university but also as a medium for teaching and learning of other subjects. These days dependence on textbooks in English is particularly marked in scientific and technical subjects, more and more students and scientists in the world rely on books published in the UK and the US. Communication skills in a foreign language are appreciated on the labor market and increase employment opportunities. Universities, higher educational institutions and vocational institutions are expected to meet the needs of students providing them with an appropriate ESP program.

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Needs Analysis Questionnaire – The Best Tool to Enhance the Learning Outcomes in English for Public Administration and Political Sciences Course

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Abstract: A lot of researchers have investigated the role of Needs Analysis Questionnaire in English for Specific Purposes Courses. The main purpose of this paper is to prove the importance of the Needs Analysis Questionnaire in enhancing the learning outcomes in ESP 1 and ESP 2 courses, which are core subjects and offered to students studying at the Faculty of Public Administration and Political Sciences at the South East European University in the Republic of Macedonia. It also shows how important is the needs analysis in course design, materials selection and the proposed topics for the course project. The participants in this study were 64 students from both full time and part time study programmes, second and third year attending ESP 1 and ESP 2 courses. Qualitative and quantitative approaches were used for the data collection. The survey was done at the beginning of Summer Semester 2012. The evidence was gathered in the form of student needs analysis questionnaires. The results show that students would rather work on an individual projects were the topics will be proposed by them. The majority of Public Administration students would like to write about one of the existing Ministries within the Government of the Republic of Macedonia. On the other hand the Political Science students would rather have a debate on certain political topics, so according to the results they would focus more on the speaking skills. The newly designed ESP1 and ESP 2 syllabi finally showed that during the semester the students were more motivated, and at the end of the semester students' results and grades were better than the previous Fall Semester 2011.

Key words: ESP, Needs Analysis, Public Administration, Students, Political Sciences

1. INTRODUCTION

English for Specific Purposes is a core subject at the South East European University in Macedonia, which is offered to second and a third year students after they complete their Basic English Skills. One of the five ESP courses¹ offered is English for Specific Purposes aimed to students studying at the Public Administration and Political Sciences Faculty. Since Public Administration is a new branch offered in this area, we often face difficulties with the text books and other materials. As an ESP

¹ Students at South East European University have to take English for 4 semesters. The courses offered are either General English or ESP. ESP is offered from the third semester. The courses are: Business English, Legal English, English for Public Administration and Political Sciences, English for Communication and English for Computer Sciences.

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lecturer I compile a Course Pack for students based on their needs, and each semester I do changes in the course syllabus, add materials according to students' needs analysis questionnaire. So ESP lecturers have multiple roles since they are course designers, material providers, researchers and collaborators, and at the end they have to be evaluators.

2. PREVIOUS STUDIES

There are many researchers who have shown that Needs Analysis Questionnaires play a crucial role when designing syllabi for different courses in Academia - the people, activities and institutions that are connected with education, especially in colleges and universities.² Hutchinson and Waters (1987) see ESP as an approach rather than a product. They suggest that 'the foundation of ESP is the simple question: Why does this learner need to learn a foreign language?'³ The South East European University students studying Public Administration and Political Sciences need English as a foreign language for their future careers. The majority of our students after graduating are employed at the state administration offices or agencies. Robinson's characteristics (Robinson, 1991) are that ESP courses are generally constrained by a limited time period, in which their objectives have to be achieved, and are taught to adults in homogeneous classes in terms of the work or specialist studies that the students are involved in.⁴

Various authors have done a research and written about the classification of ESP, but ESP for Public Administration and Political Sciences is rarely found in those classifications. According to Robinson's classification of ESP in English for Academic purposes and English for Occupational Purposes,⁵ ESP for Public Administration and Political Sciences is not listed among the others. Since PA is a new branch of studies I would add ESP for PAPS⁶ to that classification.

The previous researches have been done for classification or types of the Syllabus, as well. One of the classifications is as follows:

Types of Syllabi:

1. A Structural (Formal) Syllabus - A structural syllabus is a collection of the forms and grammatical structures of the language being taught such as nouns, verbs, adjectives, statements, questions, subordinate clauses, and so on.
2. A Notional/Functional Syllabus - A notional/functional syllabus is a collection of the functions or of the notions such as informing, agreeing, apologizing, requesting, and so on.
3. A Situational Syllabus - A situational syllabus is a collection of real or imaginary situations in which language occurs or is used. The primary purpose of a situational language teaching syllabus is

² <http://www.macmillandictionary.com/dictionary/british/academia>

³ Tony Dudley-Evans and Maggie Jo St John, *Developments in English for Specific Purposes: A multi-disciplinary approach*, (Cambridge University Press, 2003), 3

⁴ *Ibid.*

⁵ Tony Dudley-Evans and Maggie Jo St John, *Developments in English for Specific Purposes: A multi-disciplinary approach*, (Cambridge University Press, 2003), 6

⁶ Public Administration and Political Sciences

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to teach the language that occurs in the situations such as seeing the dentist, complaining to the landlord, buying a book at the book store, meeting a new student, and so on.

4. A Skill-Based Syllabus - A skill-based syllabus is a collection of specific abilities that may play a part in using language. The primary purpose of skill-based instruction is to learn the specific language skills and to develop more general competence in the language.

5. A Task-Based Syllabus - A task-based syllabus is a series of complex and purposeful tasks that the students want or need to perform with the language they are learning such as applying for a job, talking with a social worker, getting housing information over the telephone, and so on.

6. A Content-Based Syllabus - The primary purpose of this syllabus is to teach some content or information using the language that the students are also learning. An example of content based language teaching is a science class taught in the language the students need or want to learn. While doing this, we also make with linguistic adjustment to make the subject more comprehensible.⁷

Another classification appears dividing the Syllabus in Traditional and Holistic. A comparison of the traditional and holistic views of syllabus may be outlined as in:

Table-1 which is adapted from the book titled “The Learner-Centered Curriculum” written by David Nunan (1988).

TRADITIONAL VIEW	HOLISTIC VIEW
Focuses on language as a sequence of grammatical patterns.	Focuses on communication rather than grammar
Selects language items on a basis of complexity of linguistic criteria.	Selects on the basis of what language items the learner needs to know.
Tends to be more formal and bookish in language	Emphasizes genuine everyday language.
Aims to have students produce formally correct sentences.	Aims to have student communicate effectively in order to complete the task.
Emphasizes the reading and writing skills.	Gives speaking as much time as reading in order to complete task.
Tends to be teacher-centered in teaching.	Tends to be student-centered in teaching.
Focuses on the form of expression rather than the content.	Resembles the natural language learning process by concentrating on the content / meaning of the expression rather than the form.

Table 1: A Comparison of Traditional and Holistic Approaches⁸

Needs Analysis

A combination of pre-course, mid-course and post-course analysis is conducted in order to see what students need to learn and improve upon through this course. The following table shows the structure of the needs analysis:

⁷Turgay Dinçay, ‘Designing a Learner- Centered ESP Course for Adults Based on Evidence From a Questionnaire and Incorporating the Learners’ Aims Into a Situational-Based Syllabus’, p. 15-16, <http://dergiler.ankara.edu.tr/dergiler/27/1677/17881.pdf>

⁸ Turgay Dinçay, ‘Designing a Learner- Centered ESP Course for Adults Based on Evidence From a Questionnaire and Incorporating the Learners’ Aims Into a Situational-Based Syllabus’, p. 17, <http://dergiler.ankara.edu.tr/dergiler/27/1677/17881.pdf>

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Pre-course Needs Analysis	Students' Questionnaires Informal Discussions with students
Mid-course Needs Analysis	Feedback from learners' performance and assignments The Project Results
Post-course Needs Analysis	Final Exam and Final Grade Results

Table – 2: The structure of the Needs Analysis

3. THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The main purpose of this research paper was to prove the importance of the Needs Analysis Questionnaire in enhancing the learning outcomes in English for Specific Purposes 1 and English for Specific Purposes 2 courses, which are core subjects and offered to students studying at the Faculty of Public Administration and Political Sciences at the South East European University in the Republic of Macedonia. It also shows how important is the needs analysis in course design, materials selection and the proposed topics for the course project.

METHODS

The methods that I used for this research are of scientific overall statistical methods, where the data is presented in quantitative ways given in statistical tables. I prepared a questionnaire with the following questions:

Do you want to choose a topic for a project offered by the lecturer or propose your own?

Propose a topic for a project!

Which language skills would you like to practice more?

Reading b) Writing c) Speaking through debates d) Listening

Where would you prefer to work after you graduate?

Municipality

Government

Embassy

Private Company

Other

4. PARTICIPANTS AND PROCEDURE

The participants in this study were the students studying at the Faculty of PAPS⁹, 64 students from both full time and part time study programmes that our University offers in both Campuses in Skopje and Tetovo. 30 students were attending ESP 1 course and 34 students attending ESP 2 course. The survey was done at the beginning of Summer Semester 2012. The evidence was gathered in the form of student needs analysis questionnaires.

⁹ Faculty of Public Administration and Political Sciences

5. THE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION OF THE NEEDS ANALYSIS QUESTIONNAIRE

Table 3 shows that 48 students out of 64 -75% would rather propose their own topics, while 16 students out of 64 – 25% would choose one of several topics offered by the lecturer.

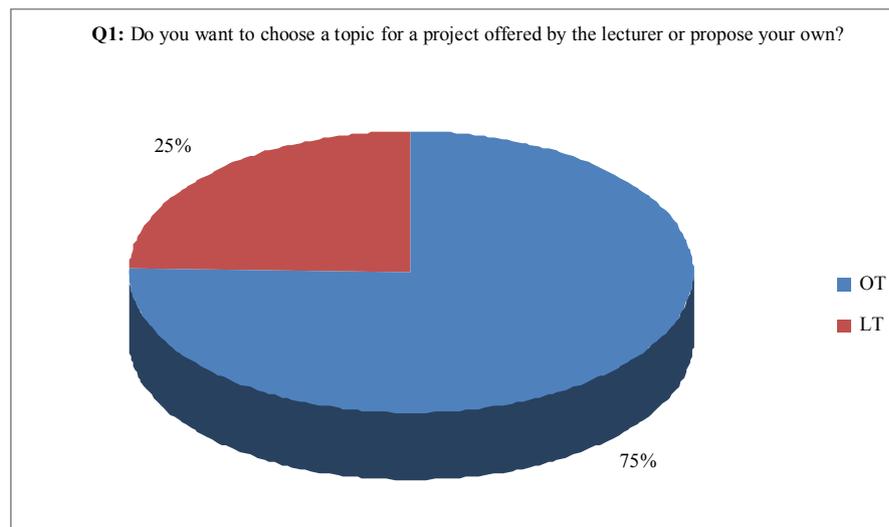


Table 3. Do you want to choose a topic for a project offered by the lecturer or propose your own?

The following list of topics gives the answer to Question 2: Propose a topic for a project!

The topics proposed by students:

The Economic Development in the Republic of Macedonia

The Local Government in the Republic of Macedonia

The Future of Macedonia is the European Union

The Social Problems in Macedonia

How to Communicate with the Handicapped Persons

The Management and Its Role at the SEEU

The NGO-s in Macedonia

The Charter of the Human Rights

The Difference Between the Private and the State Universities in Macedonia

The Role and the Position of Women in Political Sphere in Macedonia

The Corruption in Macedonia

The Political Parties

The Political Parties in the Republic of Macedonia

The Political Parties in Macedonia- Macedonian Block

The Political Parties in Macedonia- Albanian Block

The European Union

The European Union Parliament

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The Political Institutions in Macedonia

The Parliament of the RM

The Differences Between the Public Administration in Macedonia and EU Countries

The NGO –MCIC -Macedonian Centre for International Cooperation (Case Study)

The Interest and Lobby Groups

One of the existing Ministries within the Government of the Republic of Macedonia

The following table 4 shows how is the project evaluated or assessed. There are students that just submit their paper and do not want to present in front of the group, but the cases are rare.

Items of Evaluation	Points
Issue is clearly identified	1 – 2
Student position on the issue well stated	1 – 2
Ideas/Arguments relating to the issue well developed	1
Ideas/Arguments well-supported by examples/details	1 – 2
Organization is coherent and logical	1 – 2
Conclusion is substantive (contains suggestions and possible solutions or summary of the writers' opinion)	1 – 2
APA Format used well	1 – 2
Final Draft submitted on time	2
Presentation	5
Total	20

Table 4: The Evaluation Criteria of the Project

The results for question 3: Which language skills would you like to practice more?, is given in the following table 5, which shows that 63% of the students, most of them studying Political Sciences would rather practice their speaking skills through debates.



Table 5: Which language skills would you like to practice more?

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Since students choose topics related to actual political and economical situation in Macedonia, the Balkan Region and Europe, in the Course Syllabus there is a Debate Rule taken from a very useful website.¹⁰

The results of the final question 4 are shown in Table 6. Nearly half of the second and third year students, 47%, who filled in the Needs Analysis Questionnaire answered that they would prefer to work in the Government after they graduate. With Government it means that they would either work in the Government or in one of the 14 existing Ministries within the Government of the Republic of Macedonia.¹¹ It is a fact that the number of the graduate SEEU students employed in the Government is increasing, because SEE University is considered as a leader for Higher Education in the region. I will include in the paper a short part of the Rector's Speech: 'For ten years, we have been working with diligence in order to create a special offer in higher education in the region. With the support of our founders- States of the big European family and the USA, followed by an intensive exchange of the best international experiences and practices on higher education, we have created the infrastructure that is necessary to compare with prestigious universities where the student and the contribution in the progress of the society is in first place.'¹²

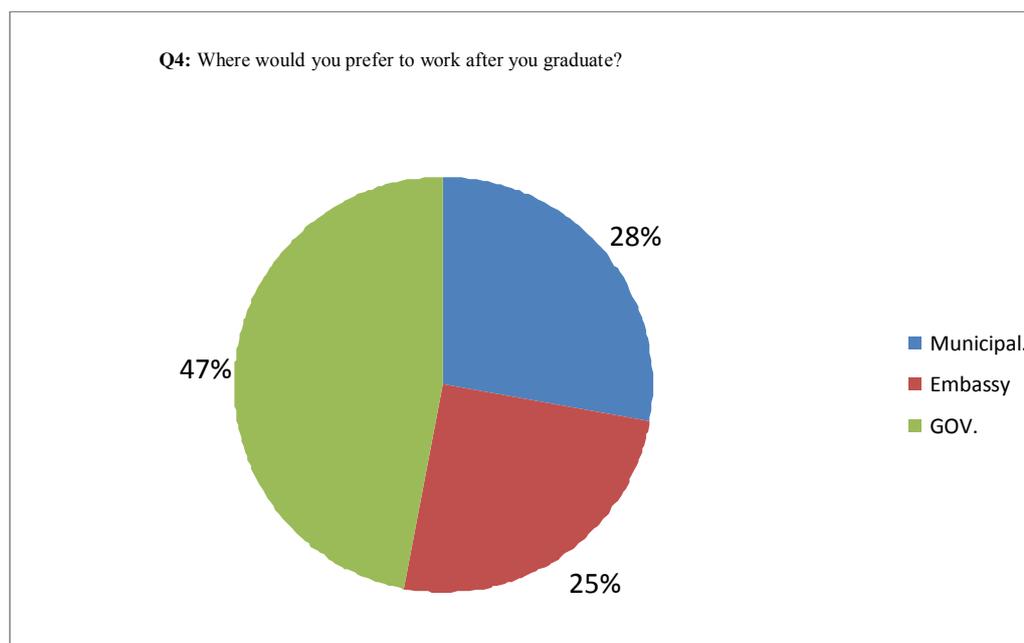


Table 6: Where would you prefer to work after you graduate?
Municipality b) Government c) Embassy d) Private Company e) Other

¹⁰ www.pulse.pharmacy.arizona.edu/.../Student%20Debate%20Form.doc

¹¹ <http://www.vlada.mk/?language=en-gb>

¹² <http://www.seeu.edu.mk/en/about/rector-speech>

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6. CONCLUSION

After gathering the data and the results from the Needs Analysis Questionnaire that I conducted with students at the beginning of the Summer Semester 2012, I designed a new ESP 1 and ESP 2 Syllabus. The Needs Analysis Questionnaire helped me to select materials from the topics that students proposed for the projects. Even the topics were proposed for the writing assessment, since there is a lack of text books for teaching English for Specific Purposes to Public Administration and Political Sciences students, I also compiled a Course Pack for ESP 1 and for ESP 2, as well. The Course Packs have materials taken from ELT Books, different websites, pod casts, etc.¹³ The newly designed ESP1 and ESP 2 syllabi finally showed that during the semester the students were more motivated, and at the end of the Summer Semester 2012 students' results and grades were better than the previous Fall Semester 2011.

I also helped students improve their speaking skills by debating in groups on topics they choose, mainly in the field of Public Administration and Political Sciences motivated them to write Report Projects and present them in front of their colleagues and enhance the course objectives and learning outcomes.

There are five Learning Outcomes that are set at the University level:

- 1. Knowledge and understanding**
- 2. Applying knowledge and understanding**
- 3. Making judgment**
- 4. Communication skills**
- 5. Learning skills**

And the Learning Outcomes the students of Public Administration and Political Sciences achieved through the four basic skills in ESP 1 and ESP 2 courses are:

Express themselves more extensively and fluently in topics in public administration and political sciences (Applying knowledge and understanding);

Recognize certain parts of speech (such as adjectives, prepositions, verbs and nouns), and use them correctly in given situations (Knowledge and understanding & Applying knowledge and understanding);

¹³

The Course Packs materials for Public Administration and Political Sciences are taken from:

Wyatt R. "*Check Your Vocabulary for Business and Administration*" (2007)

Collin P. H. & Ivanovic A. & Wyatt R. "*Check Your English Vocabulary for Human Resources and Personnel Management*" (2005) and

Jan-Erik Lane, "*New Public Management*", Routledge New York (2000)

Ron Blicq, Lisa Moretto, "*Technically – Write!*" 6th Edition (2004)

Pod casts:

<http://www.businessenglishpod.com/>

http://esl.about.com/od/englishforbusinesswork/English_for_Business_Work_and_other_Special_Purposes.htm

<http://www.voanews.com/english/podcasts.cfm>

<http://www.bbc.co.uk/podcasts/>

and other Web Sites

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Extend their abilities to read effectively in a variety of situations for a variety of purposes (Learning skills);

Extend their abilities to assess strengths in listening and set goals for future growth (Learning skills);

Master new vocabulary related to public administration, human resources and management, political sciences and the Ministries within the Government of RM (Knowledge and understanding);

Write and orally present a progress report in fifteen minutes using technology in class such as laptops, as well as Microsoft Suite (Office, Windows and the Internet) and be ready to answer to their colleagues' questions in order to defend their report-(Making judgments & Communication skills).

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The Role of Nonlinear Methods in Teaching English for Medicine: Example of Storytelling

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Abstract: English for Specific Purposes (ESP) is teaching and learning English for a purpose other than just learning the language system. Traditional ESP teaching has mostly involved linear methods with preplanned training agenda. The end results of such efforts is competence development, which is not considered learning by itself. Learning is believed to occur in the zone of complexity which is a point between competence and capability. Although competence is a necessary part of the zone of complexity, people need capability to produce new knowledge and improve performance. Capability is achieved through the use of nonlinear methods such as storytelling. In the current study, storytelling was used as a method to teach English for the students of medicine, an ESP course. 56 students of medicine were randomly divided into two groups and two ESP teachers were assigned to teach them: one using the traditional method, another the storytelling strategy. Results were compared and analyzed by descriptive and inferential statistics. The findings of the study confirmed the research hypotheses and accorded with the previous studies that storytelling is an effective strategy in ESP teaching and in education in general.

Key words: ESP, Traditional teaching method, Storytelling, Linear method, Nonlinear method, Curriculum

1. INTRODUCTION

Purpose of the study: English for Specific Purposes (ESP), a branch of English Language Teaching (ELT), is defined as the developing of teaching materials and methods appropriate for the English language learners whose main goal is learning English for a purpose other than just learning the language system (Maleki 2008). However, Maleki (2005) contends that ESP does not necessarily have to aim at teaching special terminology, jargon or content in a specific field of study, but as Dudley-Evans and St John (1998, 4) put it, "... it should always reflect the underlying concepts and activities of the broad discipline".

Regarding ESP teaching, among other questions, two very important questions have always been a matter of controversy: who (the teacher) and how (the method)? Brown (2001) sees ESP teaching as an integrated skills approach, where "The integration of the four skills is the only plausible approach within a communicative interactive framework" (Brown 2001, 5). But, who should teach ESP courses based on "a communicative interactive framework?" Johns and Machado (in CeleMurcia 2001) believe that ESP teachers have to tackle many challenges, including "ESP content" (special terminology, discourse, etc.), and "successful communication" in a specific context. Rivers and Temperely (1978, 199) argue that ESP teaching is the job of a specialist in the English language or a specialist in the field "who has a good grasp of English". Maleki (2005, 2008) and Robinson (1991), however, assert that ESP courses should be taught by EFL teachers, and that those subject specialists interested in teaching English must attain the necessary qualifications in the teaching of English.

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The other very important question concerning ESP teaching is how an ESP course should be taught. This last question which relates to the method of ESP teaching is the main focus of the current study. It will be answered and analyzed in the context of teaching English for medicine.

The problem: Traditional ESP teaching has mostly involved linear methods such as reading and translating into the students' first language (official language of their native country), and analyzing medical jargon, where the relationship between what is known and what is unknown is predictable. The end result of such teaching methods has been the development of competence rather than capability. According to Plsek and Greenhalgh (2001), learning takes place in the zone of complexity. The zone of complexity is a point in the middle of competence and capability. Fraser and Greenhalgh (2001, 801) define competence as "... what individuals know or are able to do in terms of knowledge, skills, attitude" and capability as "... extent to which individuals can adapt to change, generate new knowledge, and continue to improve their performance". Competence shapes task familiar, environment familiar part of the zone but capability forms task unfamiliar, environment unfamiliar part of the zone.

Traditional education and curriculum have mainly been planned and designed aiming at enhancing competence contrary to the requirements of the modern complex world. Although developing competence is a necessary part of the zone of complexity, by itself it is not enough for learning to take place. Capability is necessary for the individuals to change, produce new knowledge, and enhance performance through feedback. Therefore, as Fraser and Greenhalgh (2001, 803) put it, "The 'learning outcomes' in the new curriculum should focus on capabilities, not competencies". Capability, according to them, is achieved by "... the use of nonlinear methods such as storytelling and small group, problem based learning".

Significance of the study: The study is significant in two ways. First, it conceives a new approach to ESP teaching and is an unprecedented experience in ESP research; hence it can lead to a new line of research by ESP experts and possibly the review and/or change of traditional methods of teaching ESP courses. Second, the study reexamines a very important nonlinear method, i.e. storytelling in a new context. The method has been used by doctors and nurses in professional training and there is some evidence that clinical knowledge is retained in memory in the form of stories rather than nonintegrated facts (Cox 2001). However, there is little formal research into the ways stories might be used in professional education and service development (Fraser and Greenhalgh 2001).

Research questions: The following questions were asked to conduct the research:

- Does storytelling take precedence over traditional teaching of English to students of medicine with regard to their motivation, interest, and class participation?
- Does storytelling help students of medicine learn and remember more of medical English compared with the traditional reading, translating, and analyzing medical texts and terminology?
- Does storytelling help students of medicine increase and expand their medical knowledge more than the traditional reading, translating and analyzing medical texts and terminology?

Hypotheses: The hypotheses below are proposed to answer the research questions:

- Storytelling takes precedence over traditional teaching of English to students of medicine with regard to their motivation, interest, and class participation.

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- Storytelling helps students of medicine learn and remember more of medical English compared with the traditional reading, translating, and analyzing medical texts and terminology.
- Storytelling helps students of medicine increase and expand their medical knowledge more than the traditional reading, translating and analyzing medical texts and terminology.

2. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A story or a narrative is defined in different ways. Labov (1972, 359) puts it as "... one method of recapitulating past experience by matching a verbal sequence of clauses to the sequence of events". Rosen (1988, 70) differentiates between spoken and written narrative and maintains that:

"... the printed text of any talk wipes out all speech rhythms, tone, pitch, variation of pace, all eye contact, actions, gestures, mannerisms, physical jerks, quirks, twitches, fleeting grins, frowns, gleams, glares. Indeed, it strikes out completely that entire enigmatic, dynamic container of infinite mysteries—the visible human form".

According to Livo and Rietz (1986, 37): storytelling is "... a problem solving activity in which the teller must transform abstract memories for story grammar, language, paralinguistic and story content into an integrated, whole, concrete, palpable surface product". As such, Andrews et al. (2009, 7) assert that a story functions in two ways: it directly facilitates teaching through verbal or linguistic means and indirectly it helps the construction of a sequence of events which are enacted for the learner or by the learner.

The value of storytelling has been appraised in health care. Maguire (1998) maintains that encouraging patients to tell their stories can have therapeutic effects. WilliamsBrown et al. (2002) used stories to teach African American women about breast health. Hodge et al. (2002) displayed the positive and negative health behaviors and their consequences utilizing traditional American Indian stories. Heiney (1995, 901) cogently describes the healing power of stories: "In the hearing is the learning, but in the telling is the healing".

Storytelling also has a prominent place in education in general. Andrews et al. (2009, 7) suggest "... four major instructional methods ... informed by, embedded in, or organized around a story structure... [:] case based, scenario based, narrative based, and problem based instruction". Abrahamson (1998) considers storytelling as the main basis of the teaching profession. Caine et al. (2005) maintain that people access, express, and retain information and knowledge through storytelling. They referred to brain research to support their argument. According to McDrury and Alterio (2003): learning will be more meaningful, challenging and stimulating if teachers and learners use storytelling for reflective learning. They further claim that storytelling by itself is a theory of learning.

A number of studies have lent support to storytelling as a teaching and learning strategy. Mello (2001) performed a research study on a bimonthly storytelling sessions basis over a period of nine months school year. She found that storytelling was enjoyable, entertaining and interesting. She also reported that students' overall learning, listening, and interacting skills improved. Mello's findings (2001) is supported by Andrews et al.'s position (2009) that in a storytelling based teaching strategy learners are emotionally engaged or entertained. This would certainly make learning focused and listening enjoyable. Leight (2002) also thinks that storytelling fosters the active listening and reflection skills.

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Taylor et al. (2001) received positive feedback after using storytelling as a teaching strategy to increase awareness of domestic violence. Considering benefits of storytelling, Forneris and PedenMcAlpine (2006) believe that analysis of stories is an effective way to operationalize critical thinking.

Sheih (2005) in her research study tried to find out whether storytelling enhanced students' knowledge of the course content and whether they considered storytelling as an effective teaching method. She concluded that students reacted favorably to the method and had opportunities to cocreate the course content.

3. MATERIAL AND METHOD

Participants: 56 second year medical students at an Iranian medical university took part in the study. The participants consisted of 32 females and 24 males aged 20-22. They all had passed a general English course examination with a mean score of 16 (range: 0-20). They participated in the study willingly and voluntarily. All were physically and mentally fit and sound and ready during the study period.

Instrumentation: A single questionnaire and two types of pretest and a posttest of the medical English course content were developed to measure the effectiveness of storytelling as a teaching and learning strategy for students of medicine as compared to the traditional teaching method. The questionnaire surveyed the students' reaction to and opinion of their experience with the traditional teaching method and storytelling as a teaching strategy. It contained statements related to the research questions. A five point Likert scale with a measure of five being strongly agree and one being strongly disagree was utilized to statistically materialize the respondents' reactions and opinions. As the questionnaire was specifically developed for the current research study, measures of reliability and validity were not available.

The pretests were homemade and intended to measure group equivalence and students' medical English knowledge before the start of the course. The pretest for measuring group equivalence contained items of general English comprising 20 reading comprehension questions, 15 vocabulary questions, and 15 grammar questions in four alternative multiple choice format. A total possible score of 50 was set for the test with one point allocated to each test item. The reliability of the test had been computed through a test-retest procedure over a period of one month ($r=0.89$). After consulting a panel of test experts, the content validity of the test was also established.

The pretest for measuring the students' medical English knowledge before the start of the course contained test items on general medical knowledge. These test items comprised rather simple medical texts and vocabulary. Here, again, there were 50 questions in multiple choice format with a total possible score of 50. Measure of the reliability for the test was not available because it was developed for this specific study. However, its content validity was established through expert consultations.

The posttest was intended to gauge the students' information retention ability regarding medical English and expansion of medical knowledge. It contained 50 multiple choice medical English questions and 20 definitions. The former consisted of six reading comprehension passages with five multiple choice comprehension questions following each. They made up 30 questions of the total 50. Also, there were 20 multiple choice questions each with a blank space in the stem to be filled in with one of the four technical terms following it. The total score of these tests together with the definitions amounted to a maximum possible score of 70. The latter consisted of specific medical questions related to the cases taught during the course and intended to measure the students' medical knowledge development. Measure of reliability and validity for this test was not available because, as with the questionnaires, it was developed for this specific study.

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Design: An experimental between groups design is used to conduct the research. The participants are randomly divided into two equal number groups and then they are randomly assigned to two different ESP classes with similar teaching programs. One class is taught by the traditional method of teaching English to students of medicine; in the other class storytelling is used as an ESP teaching method.

Two types of pretest are administered to determine group equivalence and measure students' medical English knowledge. At the end of the term, a posttest sampling the content of the course is given to compare group performance.

An opinion/reaction survey questionnaire is also distributed among the members of each group to collect data about their interest, motivation, learning, reaction and experience with both methods.

Procedure: Once the participants are randomly divided into two equal groups, they are randomly assigned to two classes: class A and class B. The two classes are then randomly named as traditional class (A) and storytelling class (B). Following this, two longstanding ESP teachers are again randomly appointed to teach the classes. The procedures of class management and teaching are fully explained to them prior to term commencement.

Two weeks before the beginning of the course, two types of pretest are administered. The first which includes general English reading comprehension and vocabulary test items is given to ensure group equivalence. The second contains medical English reading comprehension texts and medical terminology and intends to measure the students' medical English knowledge. Then, examination papers are collected, corrected, and results are analyzed and compared.

At the end of the course, a posttest covering the course content is administered to measure students' information retention ability and its durability.

After the administration of posttests, the survey questionnaire is distributed to collect information about the participants' reaction to and experience with each method.

Andrews et al. (2009, 7) assert that there are four types of story based instruction: based, scene baseboard, narrational, and embasement all of which "... are informed by, embedded in, or organized around a story structure". The instruction in the current study is based. In a based instruction, according to Barnes et al. (1994, in Andrews, et al. 2009), both the problem and the solution are there and the learner acts as an outsider who observes specific situations happened in the past.

Visiting different hospitals (teaching and clinical), the researcher gathers several disease cases ranging from ordinary to rare cases. The cases are meticulously written in English using medical terminology related to every disease case. The cases include infectious diseases, degenerative diseases, neoplasia, metabolic disorders, hormonal diseases, and mental disorders. In class A, starting from ordinary cases, the cases are read out by the teacher, translated into the students' native language and analyzed. Then, unknown medical terms are put on the blackboard to be analyzed according to their roots, stems, prefixes and suffixes. The students are assigned to practice the cases at home and report back next session. The whole semester lasts about four months with classes being held two sessions each week. In class B, on the other hand, the teacher orally narrates the cases with the students listening in a relaxed manner. Before telling the stories, the teacher hands out lists of new words and terms. They are asked to guess the meaning of words from context of the story. Only at the end of each session the students might ask the teacher to explain the meanings of unknown words or use a medical dictionary to look up the meanings of technical vocabulary. Each case presents a problem and the situation involved. The students do not have the main text of the cases, but are allowed to take notes while listening. They are told to think about the stories and report back next session and discuss problems and important points with the fellow members of their group. During the session the teacher acts as a mentor to support his students to solve the problems.

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A few days after the end of the course, the posttest is administered and results are compared for both groups. Later, the questionnaire is distributed to learn about the participants reaction to and experience with both methods of teaching.

Data collection and analysis: Data is gathered from each of the research instruments: the pretests, the posttest, and the questionnaire. The data produced is both ordinal and interval in nature. The ordinal data produced by Likert scale ratings is later subjected to descriptive statistics analysis to reveal central tendencies and variability regarding similarity or dissimilarity of the opinions, reactions and experiences of both groups. The tests produce interval data which allow for group comparisons applying descriptive statistics. T tests are then used to establish the statistical significance of mean differences between the two groups.

4. RESULTS

Results from the pretest for determining group equivalence: Results from the pretest for determining group equivalence before the course began are displayed in table 1.

Table 1: General English Equivalence

Class	N	M	SD
A	28	36.22	7.28
B	28	36.25	6.94

Results from the pretest for gauging medical English knowledge: Results from the pretest for measuring medical English knowledge before the start of the main course of the study are tabulated in table 2.

Table 2: Medical English Knowledge

Class	N	M	SD
A	28	32.07	9.50
B	28	31.71	9.95

Results from the posttest: Results from the posttest for measuring the students' medical English retention and growth are shown in table 3.

Table 3: Medical English Retention and Growth

Class	N	M	SD
A	28	42.33	12.49
B	28	56.25	9.39

$t= 4.629, p \leq 0.05$

Results from the reaction/opinion survey: Results from the reaction/opinion survey are shown in table 4. The table compares the reactions and experiences of both groups with respect to the traditional teaching method and storytelling strategy.

The questionnaire contained ten statements that centered around four major areas of the research: motivation, interest, class participation, and learning. Percentages of opinions and reactions to these main points for both groups are displayed and compared in table 4.

Table 4: Results from the Reaction/Opinion Survey

Class	Motivation	Interest	Class participation	Learning
A	36.3%	27%	25.5%	49.7%
B	89%	92.2%	99.4%	97.1%

5. DISCUSSION

All indications are that storytelling as a teaching strategy takes precedence over the traditional teaching method in an ESP context. This was concluded after we ensured that both groups in the study were equivalent in terms of general English and medical English knowledge before the course, but they changed unevenly after the treatment. Looking back at tables 1, 2, and 3 one can verify these facts.

Posttest results, (Table 3) are specially conspicuous. The great difference between the means (A= 42.33; B= 56.25), the remarkable gap between the standard deviations (A= 12.49; B= 9.39), the large t (4.629), and a p less than or equal to 0.05 show how strong the impact of storytelling strategy as a teaching method in an ESP context has been.

These statistics were reinforced and strengthened by results from the reaction/opinion survey. Class B members were 52.7% more motivated than class A members. Also, students in group B were 65.2% more interested in class activities and their class participation was 73.9% higher than that of group A. With learning, there was also a big gap between the two groups according to their own opinions and reactions. A distance of 47.4% proved that storytelling was indeed an effective strategy for teaching English to medical students and probably to other students in other fields of study.

Accordingly, all the research hypotheses, that storytelling takes precedence over traditional teaching of English to students of medicine with regard to their motivation, interest, and class participation, that storytelling helps students of medicine learn and remember more of medical English compared with the traditional reading, translating, and analyzing medical texts and terminology, that

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storytelling helps students of medicine increase and expand their medical knowledge more than the traditional reading, translating and analyzing medical texts and terminology were confirmed.

The power of storytelling as a teaching strategy could lie with the fact that it is a nonlinear method. It seems that Fraser and Greenhalgh (2001) are true in saying that modern education should develop students' capability rather than competence and this is achieved by the use of nonlinear methods such as storytelling. The traditional method, on the other hand, helps develop competence in a task familiar and an environment familiar situation. Greenhalgh and Plsek (2001) asserted that learning takes place in "the zone of complexity", which is defined as the middle point between competence and capability. "The zone of complexity" created by storytelling strategy in class B may have been a significant factor in the enhancement of learning medical English and development of medical knowledge.

Although the positive effect of storytelling strategy in general education and health care education has been accepted for some time, there is little research into its use and impact in ESP contexts. However, the literature reviewed here supports the findings of the current research study. For example, it appears that Livo and Rietz (1986) are right to say that storytelling is a problem solving activity in which the storyteller's abstract memories for story grammar, language, paralinguistics and story content are transformed into a surface product which enjoys integration and palpability. Therefore, in a storytelling class, language learning is not a step-by-step prefabricated plan, rather, the learner experiences the whole language and puts it to use in real time.

Information retention was shown to be high in class B. This is in line with Caine et al.'s (2005) claim that people access, express, and retain information and knowledge through storytelling. Also, McDrury and Alterio's (2003) claim that learning will be more meaningful, challenging and stimulating if storytelling is used to teach and learn supports the findings of the present study.

Mello (2001) found that storytelling was enjoyable, entertaining, and interesting. She also found that students' overall learning, listening, and interacting skills improved considerably. These findings strongly support the results of our study. Sheih (2005) studied students' reactions to storytelling as a teaching strategy. She, as we did, found that students reacted favorably to storytelling as a teaching/learning method.

6. CONCLUSION

Linear and nonlinear divide is what differentiates between old and new curriculum on one hand, and old and new class on the other. ESP courses have been taught by linear methods which are preplanned, text based and procedural. However, nonlinear methods; which involve spontaneity, experience and reflection; have had little or no place in ESP teaching contexts. It is believed that linear methods develop competence, but nonlinear methods create capability. Competence by itself is not enough; capability is necessary for individuals to learn and develop.

Storytelling is one nonlinear method used in education as a teaching strategy. Its usefulness has been established in health care education and other realms, but not in ESP contexts. The present study was designed and conducted to find if storytelling can be used to teach an ESP course, and if yes, what impact it may have. The results of the study proved that storytelling is indeed useful and effective in teaching ESP courses.

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English for Medical Purposes (EMP): Libyan medical students' English language needs and challenges

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Abstract: Due to the fact that English is used broadly in the field of Medicine today, the use of English by medical students has been investigated in a number of EFL contexts. It is claimed that medical students in these settings face problems in dealing with their medical subjects which are taught mainly in the English medium and that could be attributed in part to their inadequate level of English. The current paper examines the English language needs for medical students in one of the medical faculties in Libya (Al Marj). Significantly, no studies have been conducted for this purpose in the Libyan context before. A needs analysis procedure has been carried out for this purpose and both quantitative and qualitative data were collected by using two sets of questionnaires.

Key words: English for specific purposes (ESP), English for Medical Purposes (EMP), Needs analysis, Medical Education.

1. INTRODUCTION

In recent years, English has become the most commonly used language in a variety of fields such as politics, business, education and medicine. Hence, English has been viewed as a tool not only for everyday life communication but also for specific purposes to be achieved (Alptekin 2002). Indeed, there are specific courses aiming to develop the learners' specific language skills which are related entirely to their professions; these courses are what we know as English for specific purposes (ESP). According to Hutchinson & Waters (1987), ESP is defined as "an approach to language teaching in which all decision as to content and method are based on the learner's reason for learning" (p.19).

The scope of this study will be English for medical purpose (EMP) as an example of the wider field of ESP and that is because "English language has become the lingua franca of international communication in medicine" (Hassan et al. 1995, 277). In fact, many students in the medical field, particularly those who study in non-English speaking countries, are still facing a number of difficulties dealing with their medical subjects in their studies and that is attributed mainly to the language barrier (Hassan et al. 1995; Boshier and Smalkoski 2002).

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Consequently, it has become highly demanded for educators and researchers alike to study the English language needs for medical students in order to provide a basis for designing appropriate courses to assist those students coping with the language challenges during their academic study.

“Discipline-specific language study has long been linked to an expectation that learners’ needs should be analyzed in order to select language components that match what students require to succeed in their academic studies” (Kimball 1998, 411)

Importantly, literature has shown that a number of studies have been conducted worldwide in order to investigate and assess the medical students’ English language needs (Chia et al. 1999; Boshier and Smalkoski 2002; Hassan et al. 1995). Moreover, those studies have interpreted the students’ difficulties and failure in their medical studies; also, they have suggested the appropriate way of teaching Medical English in order to cope with such a matter.

The aim of this study is to investigate and assess the English language needs for Libyan medical students in order to account for the problems that those students have in their academic studies; it also aims to provide a basis for the development of medical English courses and teaching methodologies in the Libyan context.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 The significance of English for Medical Purposes (EMP)

Maher (1986) has presented a comprehensible review showing a variety of the educational and theoretical implications for EMP. According to Maher (1986), the term English for Medical Purposes (EMP) refers to “the teaching of English for doctors, nurses, and other personnel in the medical professions” (pp.112). He argued that EMP is a specific language program that should fit into medical students’ needs and requirements. In addition, it should focus on the topics of learners’ interest which are related to their medical studies, and it also should provide specific language skills that might be needed by medical students in their academic training (Maher 1986).

Although most medical students in EFL contexts are offered General English courses during their tertiary study, there are still significant language difficulties that make them suffering in their academic studies (Chia et al. 1999). A number of studies have been conducted showing that EMP courses are rather significant in order to enhance medical students’ learning abilities. In the Arab world context, for example, an experimental study has been conducted in the Sultan Qaboos University in Oman showing that there is a considerable correlation between medical English and the academic achievement; it revealed that “the learning difficulties in basic medical sciences are partly due to the students’ weakness in English language” (Hassan et al. 1995, 281). It also reported that if English becomes the only language for instruction, there should be an update for the strategy of teaching this vital language (Hassan et al. 1995). Another study in Saudi Arabia in the medical school of King Saud University has revealed that Saudi medical students have a severe problem dealing with their medical subjects because of their

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inadequate knowledge of medical terminology (El-hazmim et al. 1987). Moreover, another study in Kuwait Medical School has showed that the successfulness of medical students in premedical and medical studies is highly correlated with their professional English language levels which are measured in advance and compared with the subsequent achievement; the study concluded that teaching EMP is unavoidable in the curriculum of premedical year and even in the following years of study to help those students who had reasonable lower level of language (Ahmed, Ahmed, and Al-Jouhari 1988).

2.2. Students' language needs analysis

Due to the significance of EMP for medical students, it has become highly demanded for educators to design appropriate programs to suit students' needs. In order to achieve this goal, the analysis of students' needs is inevitable. The needs analysis is defined as an analysis which combined both target and current situations (West 1996; Hutchinson and Waters 1987). More specifically, it is assumed that the lack of knowledge among medical students is simply measured by determining the gap between the target language skills in the medical profession and the current status of medical students' language skills (Bosher and Smalkoski 2002). A number of Taiwanese researchers conducted a study in 1999 on 349 medical students at a college of Medicine in Taiwan; they aimed to describe the participants' attitudes towards their English language needs. The study has shown that students had major problems in comprehending medical texts and journal papers published in English, identifying the main ideas of lectures and seminars, writing medical reports and research papers in English, and limited professional vocabulary (Chia et al. 1999). Another study was conducted at the faculty of Medicine of Cumhuriyet University in Turkey by Alagözlü (1994); the researcher tended to demonstrate the English language requirements for 4th year medical students by investigating the students' and teachers' attitudes towards the current instructional materials (Cited in Joshani-Shirvan 2008). The study revealed that "medical students' needs were not entirely satisfied by the existing curriculum" (Joshani-Shirvan 2008, 8).

2.3. Libyan medical education

This study is conducted in Libya which is one of the Arab world nations. In Libya, English is considered a foreign language and it has been adopted as a medium for instruction in medical faculties. There are two major medical schools in the two biggest cities in Libya, Tripoli and Benghazi, which were first established in early 1970s. Subsequently, the country experienced an increase in the number of medical colleges to reach a total of ten medical schools all over the country with about 24,000 students (Benamer and Bakoush 2009).

In Libya, "The medical education system was based on the British curriculum and used English as the language of instructions" (Benamer and Bakoush 2009, 494). Libyan medical students have to begin with a pre-medical year in which they study some general subjects followed by 5 years of medical and clinical training (Benamer and Bakoush 2009). Both pre-medical and first year medical students are offered English language courses besides their academic subjects. The curricula of English language courses in both years are mainly based on Grammar-translation method which seems insufficient to enhance the academic language skills for medical students that enable them to communicate effectively in

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English. In the pre-medical year, the students study some basic grammatical features such as tense, voice, negation and making questions. Later, in first year, they study through reading passages which are related partially to their medical subject focusing on some professional terminology and reading comprehension.

The English language classes are scheduled once a week for just two hours. After this stage, it is expected that students will have adequate levels of English to continue their medical studies in the English medium. The problem is that there is no evaluation as to whether medical students are really satisfied by the English course they have undertaken; rather, they show a very poor English language proficiency and inability to communicate functionally and effectively in English. Consequently, they encounter several difficulties in their medical subjects because of their inadequate functional English language. It is at this stage when medical students are struggling a lot with their English and that they are most likely to decide whether they will continue or not their medical education. Indeed, their achievement in English is often a determining factor.

2.4. Significance of the study

Although there might be some attempts to represent a new movement for Libyan researchers on medical education generally in terms of medical curriculum and instructional techniques (Daw and Elkhammas 2008), it seems that no studies have been conducted thus far regarding the medical students' English language proficiency in particular to figure out their academic challenges. Therefore, it is essential to assess Libyan medical students' English language needs so that can be used as basis for development of an appropriate English language curriculum for medical education. The aim of this study is to investigate and assess the English language needs of Libyan medical students in order to account for their academic dissatisfaction. It also aims to provide a basis for the development of medical English courses and teaching approaches in the Libyan context.

3. METHODOLOGY

The study has been carried out at the faculty of Medicine, University in Benghazi, Al Marj- Libya. The candidates for this study are two groups. The first group includes (58) medical students and the second group includes two English language teachers as well as five medical subject teachers.

This study is a "Needs Analysis" as it aims to examine the medical students English language needs. Therefore, questionnaires have been used in order to collect information about students' requirements and priorities. The questionnaires include 20 items. Only one open-ended item as well as 19 close-ended items ranged from True-False, multiple-choice, and ranking items. They are divided into four sections; each section is related to one major theme. The first section examines the importance of English language in both study and work in the medical field. The second section assesses the most considerable medical students' English language difficulties and needs as perceived by different groups. The third one is about the participants' views of the current curriculum of English language program in the school of medicine. The final section reports the participants' suggestions and beliefs in order to implement an appropriate English language course in the school of Medicine as well as appropriate techniques for

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teaching such courses. As a result of strict rules of presenting papers, samples of results only will be presented.

4. SAMPLE OF RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The participants' responses on items 1-4: "Yes", "No" and "To some extent"

No	Statement	P	Yes	No	To some extent
1	Do you think that the knowledge of English is an important factor in successful Medical studies?	S	56 96.6%	2 3.4%	0
		T	7	0	0
2	Do you think that English is an important element in the future career for Medical professionals?	S	57 98.3%	1 1.7%	0
		T	7	0	0
3	Do you think that English should be the only language of instruction in the medical studies?	S	25 43.1%	26 44.8%	7 12.1%
		T	3	2	2
4	Do you think that learning professional (Medical) English language would be useful in the medical studies?	S	50 86.2%	5 8.6%	3 5.2%
		T	4	1	2

P= Participants, S= Students, T= Teacher

Difference in participants' ranking of the importance of major language skills, No.1 is the most important



As can be seen from the above presented results of the first four items, it is clear that all participants reacted positively about the role and importance of English language for medical students. Indeed, the students pointed out that English is used broadly in their field of study and their knowledge of English is a determining factor for their academic achievement and for successful communication in their future career as professional doctors. Similar findings were found in (Hassan et al. 1995; Chia et al. 1999; Tasçi 2007; Hwang and Lin 2010). Regarding the use of English as the only language of instruction, there are two different perceptions: participants who are against the idea argued that Arabic should be used for clarifications besides the use of English. Another group who supported the use of English only claimed

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that English is the easiest and clearest language for medical sciences and the use of other language such as Arabic will lead them to misunderstanding and confusion. In fact, the later opinion is in agreement with a previous study conducted in Saudi Arabia where all participants were against the use of Arabic in medical education (Kassimi 1983).

In regard to the use of professional (medical) English in the language curriculum, it can be observed that the majority of participants agreed that medical English is quite helpful for medical students. They argued that medical English should also include topics extracted directly from their academic subject to enhance their language of learning. These findings are also reported in some other studies such as (Alagozlu 1994; Boztas 1988; Taşçi 2007; Hwang and Lin 2010). Admittedly, General English is also needed before students' engagement at any specific medical English (Elsheikh 1986).

Regarding the importance order of the major English language skills as perceived by different participants, it can be seen that both students and teachers have totally different order of importance of the major skills. Most medical students perceived speaking and listening as more important than reading and writing while teachers looked at the situation oppositely. Unlike medical students, the teachers ranked reading skill as the most important which is totally in consensus with previous needs analysis studies conducted in different contexts (Alagozlu 1994; Chia et al. 1999; Taşçi 2007). That could be attributed to the teachers' experience as they really know more than their students the actual load of reading materials needed during the medical study (Narunawatana 2001). The researcher believes that all textbooks and materials provided for Libyan medical students are only published in English; thus, reading skills should be considered as the most important in order to help students make use of information from those materials. In regard to the students' evaluation of the speaking and listening, it is noticed that some previous studies revealed that listening was ranked by students as the second important skill (Hwang and Lin 2010; Chia et al. 1999) while other studies revealed that speaking was placed as the second important skill (Taşçi 2007). Our findings revealed that the students' preference of using spoken English language skills is due to the students' willingness to communicate interactively in English and that is what other studies revealed as well. That can be also noticed from the students' commentaries; one student commented "I'd like to learn English to become strong in conversation" while another said "I need to learn English to communicate with people from other countries". The writing skill was ranked as the less important skill by most medical students and that is what some of previous studies have shown (Alagozlu 1994; Taşçi 2007).

Participants' responses on item 20 (open-ended): Some suggestions about English language learning

No	How would you prefer English being introduced for medical students?	S	T
1	Focusing on the four major skills	10	0
2	Focusing on practice and communication skills	9	0
3	Using technology i.e. computers, Internet and laboratories	9	1
4	Focusing on medical terminology	6	1
5	A specific course for every year to suit every stage	6	1
6	English speaking teaching staff must be involved	5	0
7	Focusing on Grammar	5	0
8	Self-training	5	0
9	Highly qualified specific courses in the medical field	4	0

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10	Through communication and discussion	4	1
11	Reading textbooks, and journal articles	4	0
12	Use of English in daily life communication	4	0
13	Chatting with foreigners who speak English	2	0
14	Travelling overseas to English speaking countries	2	0
15	Interactive courses	0	2
16	Communicative language teaching approach	0	2

S= Students, T= Teachers

All participants were asked to suggest their preferable ways in teaching and learning English for medical students. As can be noticed from the table above, some medical students suggested that all English language skills should be included in English class and that matches what was revealed in similar needs analysis studies (Yeniçeri 2008; Chia et al. 1999). Others suggested that English curriculum should also include medical topics and medical terminology that might be helpful for their professional training in the medical field. These suggestions were in consensus with findings of some previous research studies (Narunawatana 2001; Taşçi 2007; Yeniçeri 2008; Sari 2003). Accordingly, it is believed that specific English courses such as EMP could be the ones that should be used. However, some participants suggested that these specific courses need to be divided throughout the years of medical study according to their relevance to each stage; besides, general English should be also taught in the pre-medical year to ensure that all students can handle the EMP courses. One teacher said “First, we have to offer GE with focus on grammar then we teach the special medical English”. This is also what other research has revealed in this respect as in (Chia et al. 1999; Hwang and Lin 2010).

Moreover, other students proposed that English language course should focus on communication skills or use communication as a method of teaching to help students interact effectively in English. That is indeed what they mentioned by students consistently as their needs. It is also suggested by some teachers that both interactive language teaching and communicative language teaching should be employed intensively for English teaching in medical education. This is also what has been found in other similar studies regarding medical students’ English language needs (Hwang and Lin 2010; Chia et al. 1999; Narunawatana 2001; Taşçi 2007). Furthermore, using technology such as computers, the Internet, language lab and audio-visual techniques were all preferred by most participants. The researcher is really keen in using such techniques in language teaching particularly in medical contexts. That can be attributed to the fact that technology can facilitate the students’ English language learning where everything is reachable and applicable. This is also what has been discovered and suggested by many other studies in the field such as (Taşçi 2007; Hwang and Lin 2010; Sari 2003; Kimball 1998; Tarnopolsky 2009).

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5. CONCLUSION

It can be said that teaching English for medical students in Libya is relatively new field of education and no studies have been conducted to provide a basis for appropriate English language curriculum for this context in particular. Therefore, this study aimed to better understand the medical students' needs and challenges in regard to their use of English and to suggest the most applicable way of English language instruction. Based on findings of this study, it is quite obvious that there is a mismatch between the existing curriculum of English language course in the faculty of Medicine, al Marj, and the perceived needs of medical students. Hopefully, the author of this paper aims to conduct a research (for his PhD) in which some theoretical frameworks will be suggested and certain materials will be experimented. Expectantly, that will be based on the results of this study and others in different Libyan medical faculties.

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Yeniçeri, Özlem. 2008. Needs Assessment of the Prep-Class Students in the Faculty of Medicine at Ondokuz Mayıs University, Department of Foreign Languages Education, Ondokuzmayıs University, Samsun, Turkey.

A corpus-based approach for investigating the vocabulary load of medical texts written in English

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Abstract: The identification of words worth focusing on in ESP and EAP courses has been undertaken by various vocabulary researchers. For the present study a similar corpus-based approach to the one followed by these researchers has been adopted to investigate the number of English words students of medical English need to know in order to be able to understand a wide variety of medical texts written in English. The present corpus-based study aims to answer the following questions: 1) what is the vocabulary load of medical texts written in English?, and 2) how many words are needed on top of the General Service List (GSL) and the Academic Word List (AWL) to achieve 98% text coverage?

A 5.4 million-word written medical corpus and a general comparison corpus of the same size were compiled to answer these questions. Two different units of counting (word types and word families) are used to compare the lexical text coverage results of the General Service List, the Academic Word List, and the medical word lists developed. This paper concludes by discussing some of the instructional implications of aiming for 98% text coverage when teaching medical vocabulary.

Key words: medical vocabulary, vocabulary load, English for medical purposes, text coverage.

1. INTRODUCTION

The traditional approach to the identification of words worth focusing on in ESP and EAP courses for medical students has involved the use of existing word lists, in particular, the General Service List (West 1953), the Academic Word List (Coxhead 2000), and the pilot Science List (Coxhead and Hirsh 2007) for EAP. In addition, this approach has required the development of technical word lists which take account of the existing lists. In this study, a corpus-based approach is adopted to investigate the vocabulary load, which is the number of English words ESP medical students need to know in order to be able to achieve 98% lexical text coverage and understand a wide variety of medical texts written in English.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Lexical text coverage

The importance of identifying the percentage of known words (vocabulary load) needed for unassisted reading comprehension has been investigated in several studies (Hirsh and Nation 1992; Hu and Nation 2000; Laufer 1989; Nation 2006; Nation and Waring 1997). The first investigations (Laufer 1989; 1992) on the lexical

coverage of academic texts suggested a reading comprehension threshold of 95%. More recent research on the vocabulary load of written texts (Hu and Nation 2000; Laufer and Ravenhorst-Kalovski 2010; Nation 2006; Schmitt, Jiang, and Grabe 2011) has indicated that a higher lexical threshold of 98% or more is required for optimal unassisted reading comprehension.

2.2. Vocabulary levels and word lists

Since the main purpose of this investigation is to examine the number of words that learners of English for Medical Purpose need to know in order to be able to meet the vocabulary demands of medical texts written in English and achieve suitable reading comprehension; the different levels of vocabulary (high frequency words, academic words, technical words, and low frequency words) proposed by Nation (2001) will be identified and analysed in the written medical corpus compiled for the present study.

Following a similar methodology to the one used by Coxhead (2000) to make the AWL, various subject specific word lists have been developed: a pilot science word list (Coxhead and Hirsh 2007), a medical academic word list (Wang, Liang, and Ge 2008), a pharmacology word list (Fraser 2007), some engineering word lists (Mudraya 2006; Ward 1999; 2009), a business word list (Konstantakis 2007), and an agricultural word list (Martínez, Beck, and Panza 2009).

In the next section, the methodology used to investigate the number of words associated with high frequency words, academic words, technical words, and low frequency words found in a corpus of medical texts written in English is discussed.

3. RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND METHODOLOGY

3.1. Research questions

This corpus-based study on the vocabulary load of medical texts has the following research questions:

- What is the vocabulary load of medical texts written in English?
- How many words are needed on top of the GSL and the AWL to achieve 98% text coverage?

3.2. Methodology

The first step in investigating the vocabulary load of medical texts was to decide on a medical corpus for the study and then prepare it for analysis. The second step was to prepare a general corpus of a similar size so that the corpus comparison method could be used.

Compiling the medical corpus

In order to examine the vocabulary load of medical texts written in English, a medical corpus was compiled for this study. Before compiling the medical corpus, an ESP university teacher with over 25 years of experience teaching and researching medical English at undergraduate and

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graduate level was consulted on the most suitable texts and topics to be included in the medical corpus.

With first and second year medical students in mind, she pointed out that textbooks like Harrison's Principles of Internal Medicine (Fauci et al. 2008), and CECIL Medicine (Goldman and Ausiello 2008) included a comprehensive range of medical topics, and were used from the first year of medical studies. She also noted that these textbooks were widely consulted by undergraduate and graduate medical students, and health professionals alike. Based on this teacher's recommendations, the electronic versions of the two textbooks above mentioned were chosen to make the medical corpus for this study.

Compiling the general corpus

A corpus of general English was compiled to serve as a general comparison corpus for this study to allow comparisons between the frequencies and occurrence of the words occurring in the medical corpus and this general corpus. The general comparison corpus was built using substantial sections of several well-known English corpora, namely the FLOB corpus (British English 1999), FROWN corpus (American English 1992), KOLHAPUR corpus (Indian English 1978), LOB corpus (British English 1961), WWC corpus (New Zealand English 1993), BROWN corpus (American English 1961), and ACE corpus (Australian English 1986).

The general corpus was the same size (5.4 million tokens) as the medical corpus. This allowed calculation of the ratio of the frequencies and avoided distortion from adjusting for different corpus sizes. The learned section (section J) was removed from all the general corpora used before compiling them into a comparison corpus for this study. This was to ensure that there were no overlapping topics in the two corpora which could upset frequency comparisons. If the general corpus contained medical texts, this would confound frequency comparisons with the medical technical words.

Developing a medical technical word list through corpus-comparison

Corpus-comparison involved largely following Chung and Nation's (2003) procedure to find potential technical vocabulary. Corpus-comparison involves using a non-technical corpus and a technical corpus to compare word frequencies. Words occurring only in the technical corpus or with a much higher frequency in the technical corpus have a very high likelihood of being technical words.

For this study, the RANGE program (Heatley, Nation, and Coxhead 2002) was used to carry out the frequency comparison of the medical and the general corpora. The General Service List (West 1953), the Academic Word List (Coxhead 2000), and the Science List (Coxhead and Hirsh 2007) were used because the words in these lists are assumed to already be known by first and second year medical students. The words not found in any of the lists were organised and classified following two different procedures to make medical word lists – one with the words occurring in both corpora using frequency comparison, and one with the words occurring only in the medical corpus.

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

By looking at the research questions, this section discusses the results of the study on the vocabulary load of medical texts.

4.1. What is the vocabulary load of medical texts written in English?

The answer to this question is approached: a) first by looking at the behaviour of the General Service List, the Academic Word List, and the Science list in the medical and general corpora, and b) then by comparing the lexical text coverage results of the medical and the general corpora compiled for the present study.

The behaviour of the various sets of lists

In this section, we compare the behaviour of the existing lists, the General Service List (GSL), the Academic Word List (AWL), and the Science List (SL), in the medical and general corpora. Their different lexical coverage results of the above mentioned word lists reflect the different nature of the two corpora. Tables 4.1. and 4.2. show the RANGE results of the GSL, AWL, and SL for the medical and the general corpora.

Table 4.1. RANGE results for the existing lists for medical corpus

WORDLIST	TOKENS/%	TYPES/%	FAMILIES
GSL1	3005823/55.34	4019/ 7.26	1097
GSL2	352621/ 6.49	2953/ 5.33	935
AWL	446795/ 8.23	2413/ 4.36	563
SL	329608/ 6.07	1293/ 2.33	317
In any list	1296955/ 23.88	44713/ 80.72	
Total	5,431,802	55,391	2,912

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Competence-Activity Approach in English Language Teaching of Post-Graduate Students in the Field of Medicine in the System of Post-Graduate Education

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Abstract: The competence-activity approach in the system of post-graduate study in the field of medicine is very urgent and up-to-date nowadays. It allows the teacher to organize the process of education in the way that improves the post-graduates' knowledge which can be used in their professional activity for the purpose of communication. The usage of this approach in the process of education results in increasing the level of obtaining the foreign language competence.

Key words: language competence, competitive approach, capacity, teaching English, scientific workers, field of medicine.

1. INTRODUCTION

Changes taking place today in the field of education are associated with processes of global integration in science and medicine as well. They are associated with the improvement of the training quality, as the solution of many problems, often occurs through direct contact with native speakers, specialists in the field of health care. Therefore, much attention has been given to postgraduate specialist training, especially in foreign language learning.

Strong language skills help to overcome the language barrier, make it possible easily and naturally carry personal contacts, keep the conversation and correspondence, listen to the lectures and presentations, to do scientific reports, to participate in discussions and debates. In other words, knowledge of a foreign language - is one of the most important tools of the scientist and the success of his/her research activities. Conversely, poor language skill puts the researchers in a difficult, dependent status, as it limits their professional activities and scientific competence. Therefore, at present conditions of rapid technological progress, the scientific workers cannot depend on the possession of a foreign language. However, the current practice of post-graduate students training in a foreign language, as you know, is focused on preparing students for the master's exam. It is believed that such a passed exam acquainted with the basics of the subject, acquired a "minimum" of knowledge, which will improve and deepen further (Sergeeva, 1991: p.160-167). The facts show that the researcher, having passed the exam in a foreign language, as a rule, is not in a position to take a deeper and more regular in its study because of time constraints and the need to solve many other special tasks. As a result, he has to be content with his scientific career by elementary linguistic knowledge, skills and abilities, which he acquired during studies in graduate school. In connection with this conclusion is that the current practice of teaching foreign language researchers, ie post-graduate students and applicants do not provide ownership completely communicative competence, a key component of which is the language competence (UC). Preparation for candidate examination in a foreign language in that case should not be seen as the primary goal of education, but as a high priority, the immediate task for reaching the goal - "communication-sufficient" (Shatila, 1986),

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knowledge of a foreign language in the scientific specialty in a course-intensive specialized training. Practice shows that the majority of graduate students and applicants has little language training. This situation is the result of reducing the number of hours devoted to foreign language in high schools, as well as a solid temporary break between graduate and postgraduate courses. Given the lack of students preparation, before starting training in graduate programs teachers should pay attention to the study of lexical and grammatical material in order to remove the difficulties of the subsequent development of the ability to communicate in a foreign language, ie form the language competence. One of the possible pathways to achieve this goal is to create conditions for the general language training of post-graduate students and applicants on a new science-based methodology. Thus, the Medical University organizes foreign language learning for all medical specialties in one year and 8 hours per week in specialized courses. To meet the communication needs of professional learners are often independent, self-contained modules, such as "ENT" to complete the foreign language course in the postgraduate system of language education. In this regard, one can speak of a new, advanced technology of foreign language teaching in relation to the narrow realm learning different sublanguages medicine, for example, on the topics: "Ear", "Throat", "Nose", etc. It is proved that a modern approach to learning in the modernization of language education is a **competence-activity approach**, which is considered as the construction of a theoretical framework of learning a foreign language (NV Bagramova, MK Kolkova, Y. Eremin, NM Andronkina etc.). Modernization of education suggests that "the formation of a system of compulsory knowledge and skills will be replaced by a set of competencies (competencies complex)" (Kolkova, 2003: pp. 57 - 58) formed by the trainees based on the updated content. The process of development of the content should be of activity character. **Competence-activity approach**, in the case of its successful implementation, may be a way to provide useful knowledge to confidently and successfully achieve the goals in real-life conditions, but the essence of this approach is still not fully only in Russia but also abroad (Norris, 1991; Hutmacher, 1997; Politzer, 1985). It should be noted that in the 60's of the last century, there was already an understanding of the differences between the terms "competence" and "competent", where the latter was treated IA Zimnaya (Zimnaya, 2004), it is based on knowledge, intellectual and personal due to the social, professional human activity. Modern methods of teaching foreign languages the term "competence" and "competent" are also different. The competence is the ability of students to use specific knowledge, skills, and methods of activity.

2. CONCLUSION

1. The increasing demands to the specialist's professional training together with the undeveloped theoretical problems of the language competence forming in the scientific sphere make the teachers and researchers apply to the problem of providing the scientific workers with good education.
2. The competence – activity approach, if being successfully realized can be a way of providing the researchers with the useful information, suitable for successful and secure goal achieving in their real-life conditions.

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ENGLISH LANGUAGE SKILLS ASSESSMENT IN MEDICAL CONTEXT: A STUDY OF STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS

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Abstract

Introduction. English for medical purposes falls into the category of English for specific purposes and is characterized by specific linguistic features.

Aim. The aim of this study was to determine the level of English language performance in terms of students' assessment of language skills mastered and the differences in the extent of proficiency among the Departments of Medicine, Dentistry and Pharmacy of the Niš Medical Faculty, Serbia.

Methodology. The investigation represents a cross-sectional study including 412 students of the Niš Medical Faculty. It was conducted using specially designed questionnaire consisting of 27 questions.

Results. The analysis showed that the listening skill was given the highest grade, while the writing skill was given the lowest grade, indicating that more intense practice should be included in class, especially at the Department of Dentistry. Speaking skill was given low grade by majority of students. Reading skill was graded similarly by all students, whereby the grade was slightly higher at the Department of Pharmacy. Students of all departments were most satisfied with reading skill proficiency, while they were least satisfied with writing skill proficiency. Interestingly, the level of difficulty to master particular language skills did not correlate with the level of estimated importance. In fact, listening and speaking skill were perceived to be the most important, although satisfaction with the quality of these two language skills mastered was significantly lower in relation to reading skill which was graded as the skill best mastered by all three departments.

Conclusion. Identification of this difference suggests further guidance in the process of English language teaching and indicates linguistic aspects that particular attention should be given to. Therefore, Medical English teaching should be directed towards meeting the needs of students enabling them to communicate effectively in their professional setting.

Key words: English for medical purposes, language skills, teaching, needs of students, professional setting

1. INTRODUCTION

English for specific purposes represents an approach to language teaching where all decisions related to content and methods are based on the purpose for which the language is learnt (Hutchinson and Waters 1987, 19). It makes a distinction between absolute and variable characteristics of language. Absolute characteristics refer to the concept of English language teaching which meets the students' needs and is based on discipline specific language that is different from general English. Variable

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characteristics, on the other hand, denote the concept of English language teaching that is not exclusively limited to particular language skills and that may be performed according to previously determined methodology (Strevens 1977, 1-2).

English for medical purposes falls into the category of English for specific purposes. It is characterized by specific linguistic features and requires specific study that is possible to carry out using specially designed programmes (Hull 2004). Traditionally, English language teaching was based on learning medical terminology and translating a great number of texts. However, these methods did not express real interests of students and resulted in their poor motivation in the teaching process. Therefore, in recent years much attention has been devoted to designing curricula and syllabi of English for medical purposes that will adequately prepare students for professional communication with colleagues from abroad (Milosavljević 2012, 56-58).

Successful performance of English includes balanced mastering of all language skills. It is generally believed that English for medical purposes teaching should focus not only on vocabulary acquisition and text analysis but on developing communicative competence referring to the stimulation of communicative tasks required of the medical context (O' Dowd 2007, 21-33).

English language knowledge is important for successful education, scientific and professional training of medical students. It allows students to communicate effectively in formal and informal settings, and implementation of academic, personal, social and professional goals. In addition, it helps students follow relevant medical literature in English, write and publish scientific papers and carry out all training activities in the field of medical science (Milosavljević 2008, 441-4).

2. AIM

The aim of this study was to determine the level of English language performance in terms of students' self-assessment of language skills mastered and the differences in the extent of proficiency among the three departments of the Niš Medical Faculty.

3. METHODOLOGY

The investigation represents a cross-sectional study including 412 students of the Departments of Medicine, Dentistry and Pharmacy at the Niš Medical Faculty. It was conducted by means of specially designed questionnaire consisting of 27 questions grouped in five thematic units.

The study analyses students' self-assessment of performance in all four language skills, as well as their satisfaction with the language skills mastered. The students were asked to use grades 1-bad, 2-not bad, 3-good, 4-very good and 5-excellent in the questionnaire.

Data were processed using standard descriptive methods (mean value, standard deviation and frequency). Results were analysed by means of adequate statistical tests: Student t-test, χ^2 test, Fischer's exact test and Kruskal Wallis test. Statistical analysis was performed using Excel 7.0 and SPSS 11.0 in Windows XP, whereby results were presented in tables and graphs.

4. RESULTS

The analysis of English language skills was done upon students' self-assessment of language skills mastered and their satisfaction with achieved performance.

Basic characteristics of examinees are presented in Table 1.

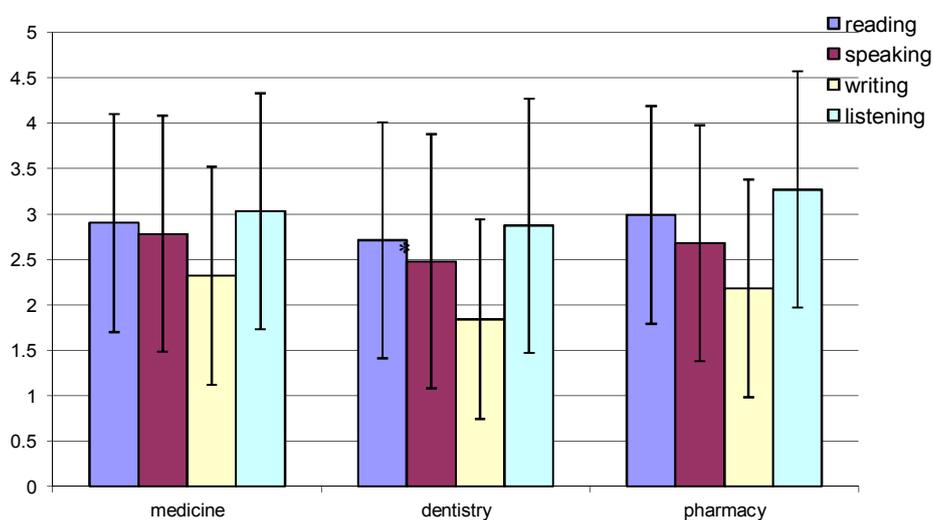
Table 1 Characteristics of groups of students examined

	MEDICINE	DENTISTRY	PHARMACY	TOTAL
Number /%	196/47	92/23	124/30	412/100
male/ female (n)	63/132	36/56	24/100*	123/288
age (years)	21.9±1.9	22.9±2.6	23.1±9.4*	22.5±5.5
learning English prior to faculty n/%	183/93.3	84/91.3	117/94.3	384/93.2
duration (years)	9.3±2.7	8.6±3.4*	9.6±2.7	9.2±2.9

Data are presented as n/% or average±SD, *p<0.05 vs other groups

The analysis shows that the Department of Pharmacy mainly consists of female students, whereby students of this department are older than students of other two departments. The number of students who learnt English prior to enrolling in faculty is approximately the same at all departments, although the time period spent learning English is shorter at the Department of Dentistry (Table 1).

Average grade of language skills is presented in Fig 1.



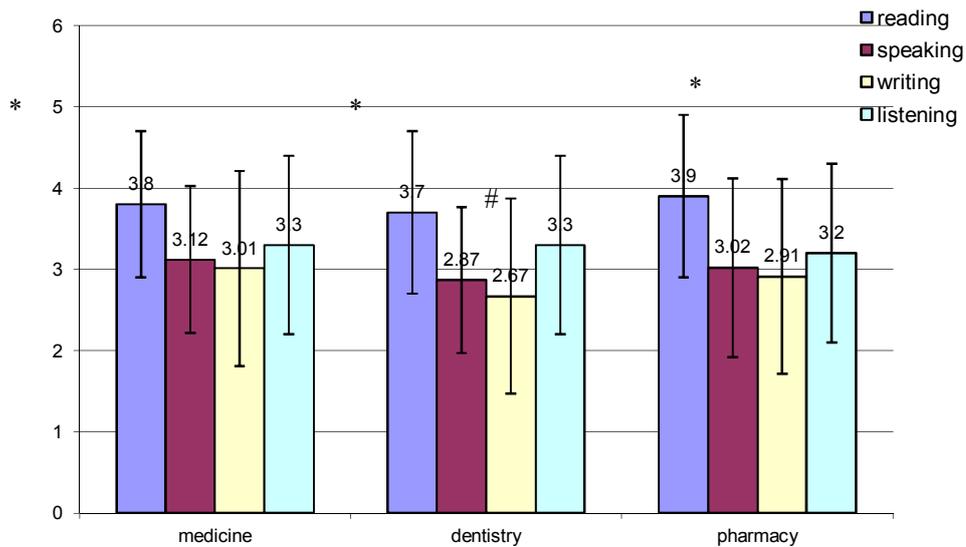
Data are presented as mean±CI; Writing: Kruskal Wallis Test $H_i^2=9.8$, *p<0.01 versus others

Fig. 1. Average grade of language skills

The analysis showed no significant differences in grading English language skills among students of the three departments, except for the writing skill which was graded under 2 by the

students of the Department of Dentistry ($p < 0.05$) (Fig. 1). It was shown that listening skill was graded over 3, while the writing skill was graded under 3, indicating the level of difficulty that students had in mastering these two language skills.

Students' satisfaction with the language skills mastered is presented in Fig. 2.

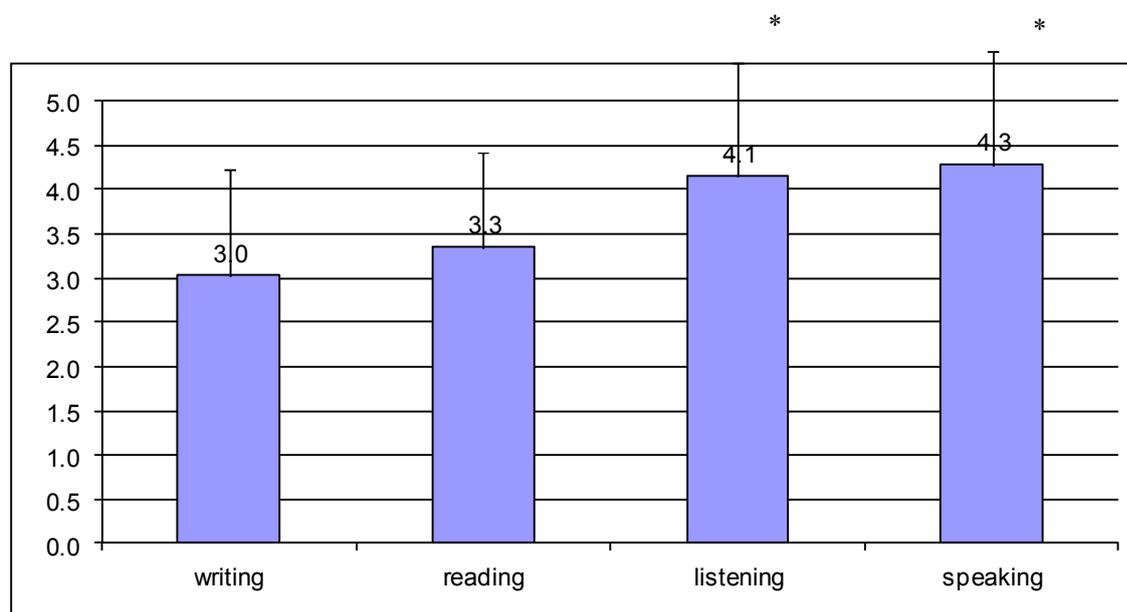


* $p < 0.05$ vs. other language skills, # $p < 0.05$ vs. other groups

Fig. 2. Students' satisfaction with language skills performance

It was observed that students of all departments were mostly satisfied with the reading skill ($p < 0.05$), while they were least satisfied with the writing skill. Students of the Department of Dentistry were least satisfied with the writing skill in comparison to students of other two departments ($p < 0.05$) Fig. 2.

Importance of English language skills is presented in Fig. 3.



1-the least important, 5-the most important * $p < 0.05$ vs. writing and reading

Fig 3. Average grade of the importance of language skills

Majority of students of all departments considered writing and reading skill as less important in relation to listening and speaking skill, whereby the difference between average grade of these language skills was significant ($p < 0.05$) (Fig. 3).

5. DISCUSSION

The time period spent learning English prior to enrolling in faculty has proved to be an important parameter in the questionnaire. In fact, slightly weaker results obtained in the group of dental students may be partly attributed to shorter time spent learning English prior to enrolling in faculty (Table 1). This result implies that early start of learning English is preferable, taking into account the fact that English teaching at academic level requires firm knowledge of General English as a good base for upgrading knowledge of English for specific purposes.

The early start of learning English may have a positive effect on intellectual growth of students and their success in mastering medical curriculum as well. The benefits of learning a foreign language are the most important for those students who aspire to advanced level and who want to achieve the level of understanding of language equal to that of educated native speakers. The main advantage becomes obvious when a student with such a level of language begins to comprehend the world from a broader perspective, not only through the linguistic system.

There are numerous studies dealing with English for specific purposes and the time period spent learning English prior to enrolling in faculty. The results of the study carried out at the Law University in Latvia indicate that students were not able to reach intermediate level of English although they had spent eight years learning it (Kavaliauskienė 2008).

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Similar conclusions about the importance of early start of learning English are reported by a study conducted at twenty medical faculties in Taiwan (Chia et al 1999, 107-19). The authors of the study point to the problem referring to the level of English language performance. Actually, majority of students who enroll in Taiwan faculties have either very poor knowledge of English or no knowledge at all.

Students of all departments in our study rarely have the opportunity to use spoken English in class, (Fig. 1), which indicates the need for practising speaking skill in particular. This view is supported by the finding that speaking skill grade was low. In addition, low grade for writing skill was obtained at all departments, which suggests that more intense practice should be included in class especially at the Department of Dentistry (Fig. 1). High grade for listening skill was obtained at the Department of Pharmacy, while low grade for listening skill was obtained at the Department of Dentistry. This once again highlights the importance of early start of learning English, since listening skill, being graded as the most important one, is directly related to the period of learning a foreign language before enrolling in faculty. Reading skill was graded similarly by all students, whereby the grade was slightly higher at the Department of Pharmacy (Fig. 1).

Regarding satisfaction with the language skills proficiency, students of all departments were most satisfied with reading skill, while they were least satisfied with writing skill. (Fig. 2). This finding may be explained by the fact that nowadays students use Internet immensely for exploring and following relevant medical literature in English. Taking into account that all major web based sources are in English, it has acquired scientific, educational and motivational value. The knowledge of English is considered to play pivotal role in students' scientific work based on Internet sources. Such form of learning adds a new power to classical ways of learning in the mother tongue conducted during regular academic activities (Malikarjun 2001, 4-6). Medical students who are non-native English speakers and have no previous knowledge of English cannot take advantage of the educational benefits of web-based learning and benefits of scientific work (Milosavljević and Bakić 2008, 32-6). As the contemporary society is intensely heading towards a globalised world, it becomes even more important that foreign language learning results in a proficiency level that enables students not only to read authentic materials, but to understand, speak, write and respond in a language other than their own as well.

It is interesting to note that the level of difficulty to master particular language skills does not correlate with the level of the estimated importance (Fig. 2, 3). These findings are very valuable since they point to identification of the difference between importance and satisfaction with the language skills mastered among the examined students. In fact, listening and speaking skills are perceived to be the most important, although satisfaction with the quality of these two language skills mastered is significantly lower in relation to the reading skill which is considered to be the skill best mastered by all three departments. Identification of this difference suggests further guidance in the process of English language teaching and indicates linguistic aspects that a particular attention should be given to.

Similar results are reported by Lepetit and Cichocki (Lepetit and Cichocki 2002, 384-96) from the Faculty of Health, Education and Human Development, Clemson University in South Carolina, who investigated the difficulties the medical students encountered in the process of foreign language learning. As for language skills, the students included in the study regarded speaking skill more important than reading and writing skill, which is in accordance with the results of our study. In the survey conducted at the University of East Anglia in the United Kingdom, Kenning (Kenning 2001, 48-57) wanted to establish the priorities that students had in the process of learning a foreign language and to examine most important aspects of language use. Assessing the importance of language skills junior students of this university considered reading skill the most important, whereas senior students highlighted the importance of speaking skill.

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6. CONCLUSION

The results of our study indicate that medical students need language which will primarily serve as a means of communication in a professional setting including the use of language for reading and writing scientific articles, participating in international conferences, and communicating with colleagues. Therefore, medical English teaching should be directed towards meeting the needs of students enabling them to communicate effectively in their professional setting.

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Let's see how the land lies - Teaching Sport-specific Languages in Hungary

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Abstract: At the beginning of the 21st century the ability to speak foreign languages is becoming more and more important. This is also true for those who work in the field of sports, should they be athletes, coaches, managers, PE teachers, recreation specialist, etc. A survey has been carried out to assess the knowledge of Hungarian sport professionals. Within the survey two target groups have been interviewed: 1./ full- and part-time students of the university, 2./ sport professionals taking part in in-service or further trainings. Altogether, 150 questionnaires were sent back, providing an insight into the respondents' problems or positive feedbacks related to their language ability. Besides analysing the received answers, suggestions are formulated, and different methods are suggested to solve the language-learning problems of sport professionals, with a special focus on sports-related (technical) language.

Keywords: language knowledge, sport-specific language training, new methods

1. INTRODUCTION

It is not uncommon in Hungary for sport-specific English teachers to hear apologies from sport professionals (athletes, trainers, coaches, managers, sport diplomats, etc.) about their level of English. But if any of them would like to:

- communicate with their teammates or members of a team
- conduct trainings
- keep in contact with other sports teams, leaders, athletes, etc.
- organize tournaments or competitions
- give interviews
- study/read the special literature
- write articles
- speak at conferences, etc.,

they should know languages, especially the special technical language of their sport. Speaking foreign languages is becoming more and more important nowadays.

Based on the above-mentioned experience the author predicted that this is not only a problem related to certain individuals, but rather a general problem concerning a wider range of Hungarian sport professionals, and that their learning the technical language of their respective sports would be a very useful solution to this problem. For this reason, an investigation was carried out to explore the foreign language knowledge of sport professionals; to find the weak points and put forward ideas or suggest solutions in the hopes of solving their language problems.

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2. SAMPLE

In order to obtain a wide overview of the language knowledge of sport professionals, as many different strata of sports society had to be reached as possible. The number of the tested persons was 150 (N=150). This is not a representative survey, but shows tendencies comprehensively and sheds light on the problems they face under certain circumstances. Within the above-mentioned 150 persons two sub-groups were formed, comprising:

a) coaches, trainers, athletes, and managers participating in in-service trainings, conferences or studying at different courses offered by the Semmelweis University Faculty of Physical Education and Sport Sciences (TF), representing 31 different sports (Group 1).

b) a group of 35 randomly selected full-time TF students who were systematically trained and prepared in sport-specific (technical) language during their compulsory or optional (elective) studies, or PE teachers studying the technical language of sport in English through distant learning. They all successfully passed an intermediate-level sport-specific language exam at TF (Group 2).

3. METHODS

Two different types of questionnaires were compiled for the two different groups, containing mostly multiple-choice and some open- and closed-ended questions. The questionnaires were distributed among the participants at the site of the theoretical training sessions or were sent by e-mail to them. From the distributed 180 tests, 150 were returned completed. The questions were all related to foreign language knowledge and learning, and additionally, for Group 2, the possible results and effects of learning sport-specific languages. Based on the respondents' answers, charts and graphs were created to highlight the main findings.

4. DISCUSSION

4.1. Foreign language knowledge of persons in Group 1

The respondents have different roles and duties in their clubs or organizations. The majority of them are coaches, but a great number of them still practice as athletes, as well. The *'other/ mixed group'* means that some of them have more than one task in the club (e.g. manager and coach, playing coach, etc.) (Fig. 1)

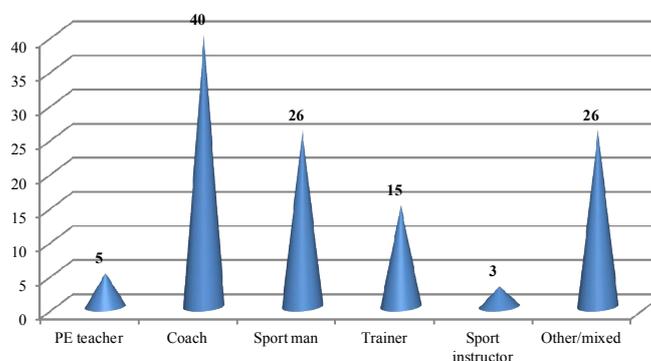


Fig.1 Qualification of the respondents (Group 1)

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All of the respondents have to use foreign languages when they organize activities or take part in competitions or matches.

The questions were aimed at exploring the situations in which they most often need to use a foreign language. Although the questions were formulated in a general way (*'language'*), it should be mentioned that as the language of sport is English, both the investigators and the majority of the respondents understood this word to mean 'English'.

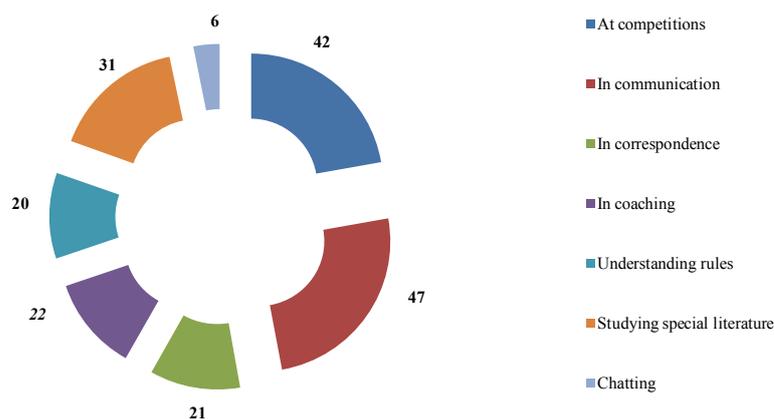


Fig.2. Which situation do you need the foreign language in? (Group 1)

It was surprising that only 22% of the respondents use a foreign language while coaching (Fig. 2), although it can be seen that foreigners playing on Hungarian teams in many different sports (e.g., soccer, basketball, ice hockey, table tennis, etc.) usually need these coaches to communicate with them in English.

Of course many of the respondents had attained a certain level of foreign language proficiency. Those who had passed a language exam could easily indicate their level, while those who had not had to estimate theirs.

Based on the experience of the author, one can doubt the complete accuracy of these estimations: some respondents are very shy and not brave enough to use the language they know, and underestimate their knowledge, while those who speak a foreign language at a certain level sometimes overestimate their knowledge (but at least are brave enough to use their knowledge!).

Unfortunately the majority of respondents indicated a quite low level of foreign language knowledge (Fig.3): the data for the *'Understand what they say'*, *'Elementary'*, and *'Pre-Intermediate'* all indicate this, not to mention the *'not answered'* group, which could very well mean that they do not speak foreign languages at all. The low-level ability group represents 60% of all Group 1 respondents, which is a high number.

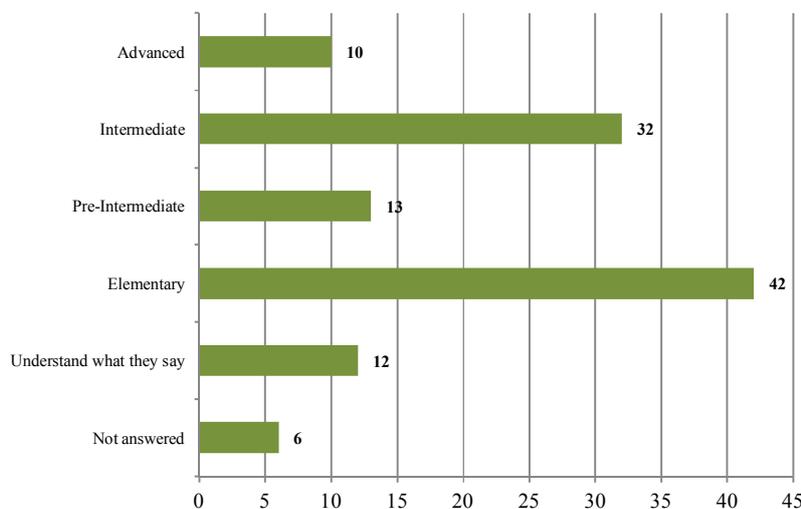


Fig. 3 Level of foreign language knowledge (Group 1)

Also of interest to the authors was the language competencies the respondents have problems with (Fig.4).

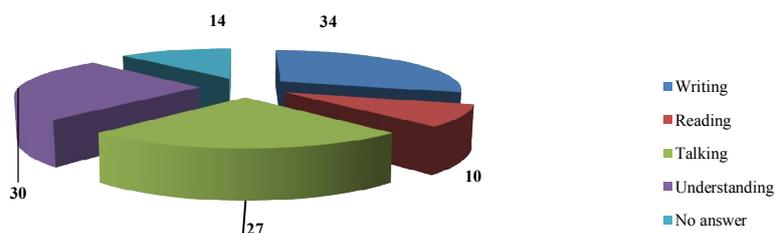


Fig.4 Respondents' language competency problem areas (Group 1)

In comparing the answers received to the other questions another problem can be observed: The majority of the sport professionals said they most need the language at competitions. However, it can be seen from the figure that they have problems with understanding and talking. Thus, the question arises as to how they can act, e.g., when talking to referees, or appeal to the jury in certain situations.

As far as the question of how the language problem of the sport professionals could be solved is concerned, some of the persons chose answers from the options listed, while others used the chance to add extra remarks. However, one-third of the respondents could not give an answer at all. This may indicate that those whose foreign language knowledge is lower had greater difficulty in thinking about an appropriate solution to their own language needs (Fig.5).

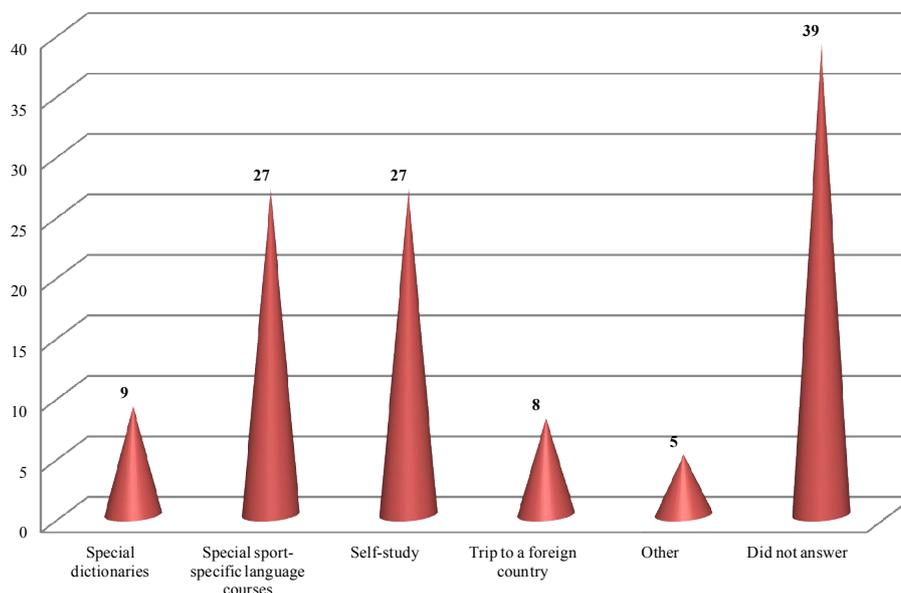


Fig. 5 What would be a solution? (Group 2)

Self-study and special sport-specific (technical) language courses are required by the same number of persons. Many of the respondents mentioned that they have colleagues in their clubs who can speak languages (at least a bit), and help them when needed, and some also receive help from their clubs in improving their language knowledge. However, many of them do not. The question also arises as to whether they receive only general, communicative language training or technical training as well, which would be especially important in their field.

We can see that sport professionals face great foreign-language related problems. How can the situation be changed? Are there any solutions for them? Is there any difference if we have a look at the answers received for the questionnaires of Group 2?

4.2. Positive experience of members in Group 2

The aim of the investigation carried out with Group 2 was to get feedback on whether they can use what they have learnt and if they find their studies useful or not. Those students who had regular, compulsory studies and had to take a sport-specific language exam described this process as a good experience.

Although a great majority of them had passed a language exam before starting their studies at TF, sport-specific language was new for all of them. It means that general language skills are not enough in sport. In regard to the other students, even if they had not passed a language exam they could profit from studying sport-specific (technical) languages.

One of the most important questions was whether they could use what they learnt during their studies in practice (Fig.6).

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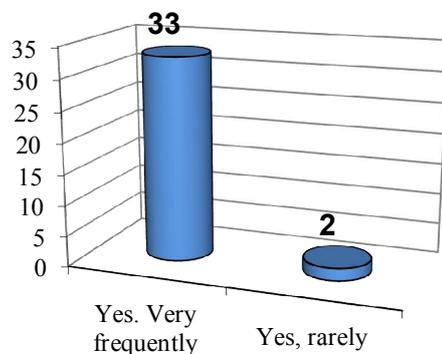


Fig. 6 Could you use what you learnt in practice? (Group 2)

The vast majority of 'Yes, very frequently' answers are very convincing (This is good news, as the graduates were more likely to get a job in their field!).

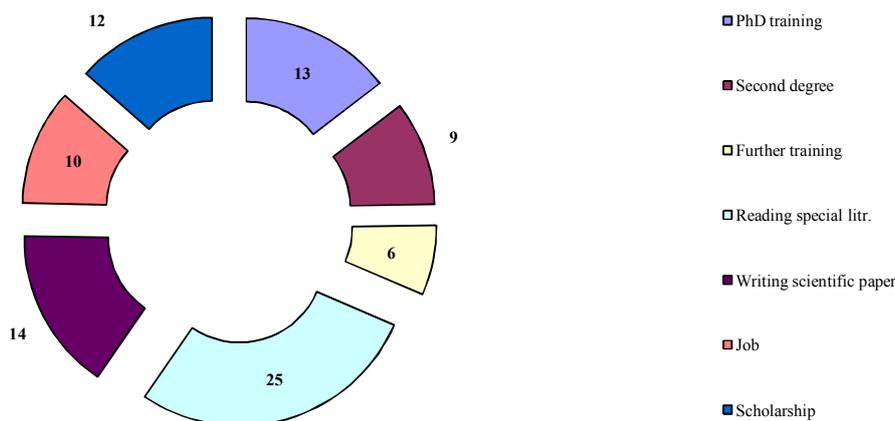


Fig.7 In which situation could you use your foreign language skills? (Group2)

Compared to the other group, it is striking that many of them can use this knowledge in practice, e.g., while reading special literature which is important in following trends, changes in rules, etc., in sport. All the other mentioned factors are also very important activities: 'getting a job', 'writing papers', 'PhD training', etc. (Fig.7).

This positive result is also reflected in the interesting remarks given for one of the open questions, which at the same time is proof of the necessity of learning the technical language of sport: 'I work abroad. I can do it only with the knowledge of sport-specific language'; 'I use it every day as it is part of my job'; 'I teach PE in English, I find it absolutely useful'; 'I can make my living with it'; 'I have better chances to get a job with this knowledge'.

So we can say that according to an overwhelming number of the respondents – working in different fields of sport – technical language is absolutely important, and they actively and frequently use it.

4.3. Methods to improve the sports-specific language knowledge of sport persons

Various methods are used to train sport persons, in both curricular and extra-curricular training environments, with traditional or distance-learning methods like Skype via computer. These training sessions can focus either on all sport-related topics or be specialized for particular sports (e.g., etc.). Acquiring the technical language of sport is not only a problem for Hungarian sport professionals. That is why several European organisations have joined their efforts and developed two different European projects: the Partnership for Technical English in Sport (PARTES) and the English Speaking Sportperson (TESS). These projects are supported by the Lifelong Learning Programme of the European Union. Hungary is represented in both projects.

They consist of multimedia products combining Internet and DVD, through which the public can learn the English it needs in situations specific to each individual sport. The finished product will look like an underground (metro) map. Each line will represent a different sport, and each station will correspond to a particular theme: press conference, technical meeting, time out, a mission abroad, etc. There will be common stops along different lines when the situations are identical in several sports (accommodation, transport, medical services, nutrition, anti-doping controls, etc.). When clicking on a station, a series of videos will appear. These videos, in English, will illustrate a concrete situation in the sports world. For each video, the learner will have the possibility of having subtitles in English or in their own language. Grammar rules and vocabulary will be added as well as pronunciation and comprehension exercises.

5. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In conclusion, we have to state that our prediction proved to be true: many Hungarian sport professionals have problems with their foreign language learning and knowledge. Although at the moment perhaps not all of them are concerned with this problem, many of them already feel the need, as there is a growing demand for Hungarian sport professionals to master foreign languages. It can be stated that general, communicative language training sessions cannot provide them with sufficient knowledge for various sport-related situations they may be involved in. It has also become clear that those who receive systematic technical language training are enabled to easily use the technical language of sport in varied sport situations. Of course, the level of language knowledge has to be maintained or improved continuously. Both the research and the wide experience in European projects suggest that there is a need for a special and intensive focus on the improvement of Hungarian sport professionals' general and technical language skills. I believe that all actors playing different roles in sport in Hungary would appreciate a nation-wide initiative to improve the current situation. Hungary's excellent results in the London Games could serve as motivation in reaching that goal.

With pressure building on the designers of sport policy to persuade sport professionals of the need to acquire improved foreign language ability, the time is right to implement and use 'all' worthwhile language-teaching methods to help these professionals succeed in this area.

The opportunities are there, so let's 'start the game'!

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English for medical purposes: A horse of another colour

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Abstract: Teaching English for Specific Purposes tends to be with a specialized aim and language use for learners in higher education. The literature questions whether learning and teaching ESP is different because of modes of language and target scientific and vocational settings. However, there is little empirical research on this discussion. Among ESP courses as a branch of EAP, English for medical purposes sets out to equip medical students with relevant English skills they need. In this context, medical English is taught as an elective course in the Faculty of Medicine at Uludağ University in Turkey to address the needs of university students who are learning English as a foreign language and studying medicine in 2012-2013 academic year. The course was coordinated by an ESP practitioner who studied ESP in her post-graduate education and had relevant terminology training in the field. The course was genre and corpus-based given the outcomes of a longitudinal critical needs analysis. All of the students were introduced to ESP course, and in-house materials were used to meet their needs. The present study specifically demystifies the differences between learning general English and medical English with the learners' critical eyes, who took medical English course for a year. The data was collected through written feedback. 95 Turkish medical students took part in the study. The findings revealed that medical students' focus was the specific content of the course, including specificity of medical texts, discipline-specific vocabulary and the effects of specificity on their learning with regard to differences between learning ESP and general English. In line with the relevant literature, it is notable that most of the students were in favour of learning general English before studying medical English. The extracts from data and implications of the findings are discussed.

Keywords: ESP; English for medical purposes; general English; Turkish context

1. INTRODUCTION

The notion English for Specific Purposes (ESP) refers to the teaching of English compatible with the specific work- or study-related needs of the learner, which is considered advantageous (Basturkmen, 2010). Accordingly, when English is taught as a foreign language, ESP courses tended to be designed with specific aims and content according to the functional and practical English language requirements rather than the criteria of general English (Strevens, 1977). Similarities and differences between teaching ESP and general English are discussed (e.g., Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Hyland, 2006; McDonough, 1984). Hutchinson and Waters (1987) suggest that we can distinguish ESP courses considering learners' specialism. They further discuss that to answer the question how does ESP differ from other forms of English language teaching, "ESP must be seen as an approach not a product" (p. 19) However, surprisingly, the discussions are confined to the theoretical literature and assumptions. To the best of my knowledge, very few empirical studies are present on the perceptions of students with regard to differences between ESP and GE (but for a preliminary study see Onder, 2012, p. 218-220). Onder (2012) suggests that we

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can scrutinise the differences through comparing ESP and GE under seven aspects based on literature to enlighten the issue broadly: (i) methodology, (ii) discourse and genre analysis, (iii) needs analysis and course design, (iv) specialized knowledge, (v) specificity and motivation, (vi) vocabulary teaching, and (vii) materials and authenticity. Indeed, these characteristics suggest various challenging roles for ESP practitioners because of the specificity and methodology and also potential differences between teaching ESP and general English. Given the paucity of empirical study on the perceptions of ESP students with regard to differences with regard to the learning experience of ESP and general English, this study sets out to compare Turkish medical students' perceptions in light of written literature to find out the commonalities and differences.

2. METHOD

Teaching context

This study took place in Turkey in the context of medical English as a foreign language (ESP course) in the Faculty of Medicine at Uludağ University in Turkey. Medical English is a four-credit elective course for four hours in the first grade and two hours in the second and third grades a week. The course has a prerequisite for students. Students must pass the English proficiency examination, which was prepared by the School of Foreign Languages, with a minimum of 70 out of 100 to choose medical English or need to study in the English preparatory class for a year. Accordingly, this prerequisite highlights the necessity that students must have background knowledge of English as a foreign language. However, they were not familiar with medical English courses in the context of English for academic purposes as a part of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) until they study in the Faculty of Medicine. The course was coordinated by an ESP practitioner who had studied ESP as a post-graduate education and had relevant terminology training in the field. It is well-known that there is a dearth of course and testing materials for ESP. Thus, in-house authentic teaching materials were produced from self-compiled specialized corpora which include experimental and review medical research articles to focus on the vocabulary, discourse and genre in medicine. After one year of studying medical English for four hours a week, students were familiar with the discourse of medicine. During the teaching process, it was observed that medical students tended to compare learning medical English and general English.

The participants

The participants were 95 second grade medical students in the Faculty of Medicine at Uludağ University. Their age differed from 17 to 22. A question asked to elicit their perceptions with regard to the difference between learning GE and medical English. The data was collected through written feedback in their native language, Turkish, in 2012-2013 academic year. The data was translated into English. Following Cohen, Manion and Morrison, (2007), content analysis was employed, and the written feedback was coded manually.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

The content analysis revealed the salient themes concerning the differences in learning GE and medical English which were presented in detail with the participants own words.

Some students perceive general English as a must to study medical English, which may show their awareness of medical English learning process as the following quotations indicate:

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P.S.39.: General English learning starts from the beginning. However, we need general English as a base to study medical English. Therefore, the difficulties we may feel while learning medical English is highly likely arise from our background about English learning. I mean if your general English knowledge is insufficient, you will have difficulty in learning medical English.

P.S.86.: General English underpins medical English and these two are inseparable. Therefore, firstly, general English should be learnt. If we do not know general English, it will be a big challenge for us to learn medical English.

P.S.5.: Medical English is more academic; therefore, it is much more difficult. We need a strong general English background before taking medical English courses.

P.S.88.: General English and medical English complete each other. None of them compensates for each other. There are discipline specific phrases in medicine.

P.S.85.: I think medical English is the continuance of general English although there are some differences, including the meanings of some words.

One student self-evaluated his general English knowledge and perceived that the lack of knowledge concerning vocabulary in general English is a handicap to learn medical words.

P.S.22.: General English is the basement of medical English. Because I do not know many words in general English, it is very difficult for me to learn medical words.

One student criticised medical English and stated that it is more boring compared to general English:

P.S.1.: Medical English is more boring than general English. Therefore, it should be made more enjoyable. Because the meaning of medical words is highly likely to be different from general English, it is significant that the instructor should repeat the target medical words frequently.

The findings suggest that medical students are aware of the specificity of medical English as an ESP course, and they find medical English course narrower compared to general English. They mentioned the connection between content courses in the department with the ESP course.

P.S.74.: General English is truly general without any emphasis on anything. Therefore, we can use it without any detail. However, medical English focuses on specific topics, and integrates content knowledge that we learn in the department.

P.S.67.: Grammar has a big place in general English. Medical English is more specific and narrower.

P.S.80.: Medical English is about our field, so it is highly specific, whereas general English is used to build a rapport with people around the world.

P.S.12.: I think the main difference between general English and medical English is that the former has a broader area while the latter has narrower.

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P.S.40.: General English is daily English, including social activities and daily events. However, medical English is narrower and more focused. It just deals with medicine and issues related with medicine. Accordingly, the scope is different.

It is notable that one student preferred to use professional English while describing medical English as narrow, and some students associated the characteristic of being narrow with being easy:

P.S.63.: General English encompasses a number of words; however, professional English focuses on the words associated with our profession. That is why narrower than general English and easy to learn.

P.S.21.: I think there are fixed vocabulary and phrases in medical English, and they do not change. Thus, medical English is easier to learn compared to general English.

P.S.68.: Learning medical English is easier because it is narrower.

P.S.43.: Because medical English is a part of English teaching, we learn specific limited number of words. The collocations are clear and easy to learn and remember.

P.S.94.: General English is very broad. Medical English includes the most frequent words and their use.

P.S.95.: The meaning of medical words is limited, while in general English, I don't feel that it is the case.

Very few students perceived medical English as a challenge:

P.S.2.: Learning Medical English is much more challenging compared to general English.

Most of the medical students highlighted the specified vocabulary for their profession in medical texts as a main difference. A possible explanation for this can be grammar focus English in Turkey from textbooks. Therefore, students are highly likely not to be used to discipline specific discourse.

P.S.3.: The use and meaning of the words in medicine are different. Medical English is different because one needs to be very familiar with the terminology in medicine.

P.S.6.: I think there are very salient differences between general English and medical English. If one is not aware of the meaning of a medical word, s(h)e cannot understand the research articles in medicine. That medical words have different meanings affects the comprehension of a research article.

P.S.8.: Because we are learning specified English words relevant to our future profession, when we need to report or explain an issue, we can make it more explicit and clear.

P.S.30.: The frequent recurrent words in medicine make medical English different from general English. Even the meanings of some words are different.

P.S.11.: At first I had assumed that general English and medical English did not have a lot of differences. However, when I took medical English as an elective course, I realized that it is different. I did not learn most of the words in general English that we learnt I also understood that

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there were some medical words which were very frequent and had different meanings than what I had learnt before.

One of the students highlighted grammar as a commonality between general English and medical English, which was an unexpected aspect:

P.S.81.: There are differences between medical English and general English, but they are not totally different. At first you get confused when you realize that the same words could have different meaning in general and medical English, but this [confusion] disappear when we improve our understanding in medical texts. Grammar use is the same both in general and medical English.

Some students provided concrete examples for vocabulary to show the difference how the same word can have a different meaning in medicine and general English:

P.S.13.: The meaning of some of the words such as theatre and administer are very different in medicine when we compare with the meanings in general English. When I was in preparatory English classroom, I used to know that administer in the context of management but later in medicine was used with drugs with the meaning 'give'. These examples increased my awareness. I do not know why but I like to learn maybe because I feel different with different meanings of medical words.

P.S.18.: The meaning of a word in general English is not equivalent of a medical word. For example, the word 'aggressive' in general English mean behaving in an angry way, while 'aggressive' in medical English is used while describing illnesses such as aggressive cancer.

P.S.28.: In medical English, one word is used for one thing or disease with a specific preposition or collocation; however, in general English one word can be used more than one thing.

P.S.54.: The meaning of some words, but not all is different in medical English when we compare with general English. It is maybe a characteristic of our field. For example, I think the word 'develop' in general English has a positive meaning while the same word 'develop' may have a negative meaning in medicine such as in the use of developing an illness, developing cancer.

One student reminded the content knowledge and medical vocabulary when dealing with medical texts, so perceives medical knowledge as a necessity for ESP practitioners, which can be considered a challenge:

P.S.20.: I think a main difference is teaching. All of the English teachers can teach general English, while English teachers need to have some knowledge in medicine if they aim to teach medical English.

P.S.50.: Medical English is a different world with its vocabulary. Accordingly, teaching medical English is very different and requires medical knowledge and medical vocabulary.

Another student wrote about resources for ESP practitioners. Indeed, ESP practitioners should design appropriate course materials, while course design is determined by choice a textbook. Therefore, preparing course material is a considerable workload for ESP practitioners (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987).

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P.S.93.: I think general English teaching is easier i.e., preparing the resources, course materials, finding the meaning of words. It is very difficult to find a resource for medical English.

Students wrote about the focus on grammar and rules in general English in contrast to medical English. Grammar is a type of tradition in English classes in Turkey starting from the primary classroom.

P.S.90.: In general English, teachers always mention about rules of grammar, so I feel that we need to memorise everything. I think memorisation is highlighted with these rules. I liked professional English more. After learning collocations and their meaning, I realized that I could use them, and they were challenges. I did not realise this last year; however, this year my awareness increased while we were dealing with medical research articles.

P.S.35.: We learn grammar in general English, whereas we read current research in medicine in Medical English.

P.S.58.: Grammar is emphasized in general English, including tenses, while grammar is not highlighted in medical English. I think medical English is more effective and beneficial.

P.S.7.: We were taught a lot of grammar in general English; however, we learnt medical vocabulary in medical English. Teaching medical English must be more challenging and complicated because it is very specific field compared to general English.

P.S.33.: When I think of English, it is grammar, and we forget easily since English is not our first language. However, learning medical English means learning the English of our discipline, so it is easy to remember especially when you repeat the target words a few times.

P.S.37.: General English focuses on grammar, while medical English highlights medical words and the [genre] of medical texts. I think the teaching process and content in these two models are different.

P.S.70.: Subjects such as grammar and pronunciation is taught in general English. However, we do not expect these in medical English.

Some students discussed the help of medical English for occupational purposes at work life with the suggestion that it can be beneficial when they have expertise in medicine:

P.S.78.: Everyone should learn general English. It is for everybody. However, professional English is a must for people who aim to improve themselves on their field. Medical English is important for me and for all of the doctors to keep up with the recent studies, developments and to update our knowledge in medicine.

P.S.65.: In medical English, we learn topics and vocabulary targeted at our profession and discipline.

P.S.29.: The meanings of some words are different. General English can be used for daily use to practice. We cannot learn it in theory. However, we can learn medical English through studying, being competent in our field and reading medical research articles. General English is a must but [learning] medical English is a choice. If you want to be an expert in the field, you should know medical English but knowing general English is not necessary.

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P.S.23.: The difference is in medical English, the texts are compatible with our future profession, and we can be very beneficial. General English is normal traditional English we study.

4. CONCLUSIONS AND PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

This paper discussed Turkish medical students' perceptions with regard to differences between learning general English and medical English thoroughly. The data draws attention to the fact that the aspects (i.e., the need for general English to study medical English, specificity of the discourse, discipline specific vocabulary) medical students provided are compatible with the discussions in the literature in light of empirical data. Students perceived general English as a must before learning medical English. This maybe thanks to their experience in learning general English and medical English and their awareness.

Given the growing concern how to deal with course design in ESP, students' perceptions, which could provide valuable insights, should be investigated to raise their awareness concerning similarities and differences between general English and ESP courses.

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Identifying Technical Vocabulary in Cancer Research

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Abstract: Acquiring discipline specific academic vocabulary is significant for learners thanks to its benefits on text comprehension and reading speed. Because of the critical place of academic words in language education, scholars have discussed academic vocabulary learning with different foci, and several vocabulary lists have been proposed. Learners are expected to learn the most frequent words in their field of study. English teachers could guide learners how to meet these overt needs. However, there is a dearth of material that reflects the real world of discourse and academic word specific to each discipline. Given the little researched niche, the present study aims to identify the technical words in medical research articles for research assistants in the department of Biochemistry in the Faculty of Medicine and postgraduate students in the department of Biology in the Faculty of Science and Arts at Uludağ University in Turkey. After consulting specialists in medicine, a corpus was built from 50 medical research articles from the European Journal of Cancer. The frequency of occurrence was compared in the specialised corpus with frequency in a large general corpus (see Chung & Nation, 2004). In light of findings, the vocabulary list was created to foster discipline specific use of technical vocabulary in academia.

Keywords: ESP, technical vocabulary, medicine

1. INTRODUCTION

A growing body of research suggests that we should use a more restricted discipline-based vocabulary lists to teach English for academic purposes across disciplines (e.g., Dudley-Evans & St. Johns, 1998; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Hyland & Tse, 2007). Thanks to the significance of technical vocabulary in academic writing and reading, researchers attempt to create academic vocabulary lists to meet learners' needs (e.g. Coxhead, 2000; Ward, 2007; Yang, 1986), including discipline specific technical vocabulary. Technical vocabulary is "subject related, occurs in a specialist domain, and is part of a system of subject knowledge" (Chung & Nation, 2004, p. 252). The meanings of technical vocabulary are closely associated with a particular discipline (i.e. medicine). Chung and Nation (2004) critically evaluated four approaches to decide which words are technical. The first approach used a four step rating scale, which had a high degree of reliability, to compare the evaluation of the other three approaches. The second approach was using clues such as labels in diagrams, typographical marking and definitions, which was the least successful. The third approach was using a technical dictionary, and this approach had an accuracy rate around 80%. The fourth approach compared the frequency of occurrence in the specialised text with frequency in a large more general corpus. This worked well, however, failed to identify words which were also in common usage such as neck, chest. This approach also could not separate collocates of technical words (i.e., posterior) from technical words.

It is notable that although there are various attempts in the literature to teach academic words, relevant "materials remain unchanged, dispensing intuitive judgments, which fail learners and teachers" (Harwood, 2005, p. 156). To remedy the problem, this study employs corpus based approach with concordance lines as an authentic data to be used in the mainstream classrooms. A second issue

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addressed concerns the collocations in technical words in Biochemistry. Existing works on technical collocations have been investigated in some disciplines, including engineering (Williams, 1998) and medicine (Marco, 2000). As a sustainability of previous research in specific academic disciplines, this study examined the collocations in Biochemistry texts to create in-house materials for higher education.

2. METHOD

Corpus design and compilation

Scientific research articles are a good resource to refer for discipline specific vocabulary. Using specialised corpus in English for Specific Purposes (ESP) classrooms may be of considerable value to the ESP practitioners and learners thanks to the methodological advantages that specificity brings. Specialised corpus is “(1) carefully targeted (2) specialized structures are likely to occur with more regular patterning and distribution (3) the pedagogical goals in terms of how they are used and applied are likely to be easier to define and delimit” (O’ Keeffe, McCarthy & Carter, 2007, p. 198). In the context of the present study, a specialised corpus was built from 50 medical research articles published in the European Journal of Cancer in 2012 after consulting the specialists in the department of Biochemistry in the Faculty of Medicine at Uludag University. The corpus consisted of around 222,916 words. This study focused on vocabulary mastery in medicine through employing a corpus-based approach.

Frequency of a word could be a determiner to show that the word is likely to be technical because technical words occur more frequently in a specialised corpus. To determine the frequent words, the corpus was compared to a reference corpus (Scott, 1999). Accordingly, two wordlists in the software were compared: pre-existing target wordlists based on the Biomedical research articles we addressed and a larger wordlist as a reference corpus the Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA) 2011, which is bigger than the specialised corpus to compare. Researchers used these lists to understand particular genres (Tribble, 2000). COCA was chosen because it was bigger than the self-built specialised corpus and COCA was the most current corpus. Frequency of each content word was examined and counted with computer analysis by using Laurence Anthony’s AntConc (2008). Concordance lines, the collection of the *occurrences* of a word-form or phrase, for sample technical words was created for collocations in Biochemistry.

Identifying technical vocabulary

Specialised texts employ specific rhetorical functions and teaching the technical vocabulary is a challenge for ESP practitioners (Baker, 1988). In this study, technical words refer to ‘*words that have a meaning associated with medicine*’. Nation (2001) states if learners know 2000-3000 words in general English, it is better to teach more specialised vocabulary in disciplines. To explore the medical words, the frequency of an individual item was examined, which provided the salient features and a general view of the contents of the target texts related to academic genre in medicine. When we examine the most frequent words in the corpus such as *apoptosis* we can easily have some information regarding the texts to use corpus-based approach to genre analysis. Words were classified as being technical or non-technical following the rating scale designed by Chung and Nation (2003). The scale included four criteria to determine what kinds of words make up a technical vocabulary:

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1. Words independent of the subject addressed such as function words, which were not associated with the field of Biochemistry, were not considered to be technical. For example, *the, was, that, from*.
2. Words that had a meaning that is minimally related to the Biochemistry were not considered to be technical. For example, *analysis, age, sample, treatment*.
3. Words that had a meaning that is closely related to the Biochemistry were considered to be technical. For example, *toxicity, lymph, resection, inhibitor*.
4. Words that had a meaning specific to the field of Biochemistry were considered to be technical. For example, *apoptosis, methylation, mastectomy, and metastases*.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Frequency of some of the sample technical vocabulary can be seen in Table 1. These words occurred more frequently in medical research articles in Biochemistry than the reference corpus. The findings are based on the identification of the specific language features to meet learners’ medical vocabulary needs in English. The findings revealed that *tumour, response, expression, chemotherapy, trial, stage* and *therapy* are among the most frequent words.

TABLE 1
Table - 1 Frequency of some medical vocabulary in Biochemistry

FREQUENCY	MEDICAL WORLD	FREQUENCY	MEDICAL WORLD
881	tumour	106	metastases
479	response	106	incidence
437	expression	104	bevacizumab
410	chemotherapy	102	randomised
406	trial	102	tissue
381	stage	101	pathway
380	therapy	101	invasive
269	treat	101	aggressive
255	status	100	inhibitor
240	associate	100	preoperative
213	samples	99	carcinoma
208	node	98	prognosis
206	progression	98	staging
189	diagnosis	97	colorectal
174	toxicity	94	gemcitabine
139	relapse	89	recurrence
137	radiotherapy	88	methylation
135	subtype	82	preoperative
131	cervical	82	recurrent
124	adjuvant	76	apoptosis
115	receptor	55	proliferation
114	imaging	52	mastectomy
113	cisplatin	47	incubated
108	gastric	45	pazopanib
107	naringenin	35	hysterectomy

The concordance lines below in Table 2 demonstrates the potential collocations of three technical vocabulary in Biochemistry, namely *apoptosis* (i.e. the process of programmed cell death that may occur in a multicellular organism), *methylation* (i.e. a biochemical process involving the addition of a methyl group to the cytosine or adenine DNA nucleotides) and *mastectomy* (i.e. a medical operation

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to remove a breast). concordance lines can provide valuable insights into how these three technical words specific to medicine collocates with other words. As the concordances lines suggest the medical word *apoptosis* collocates with various verbs and adjectives such as increase, detect, attenuate, trail-induced and subsequent. These findings could be used as in-house materials to teach medical English. Similarly the other sample technical words have rich collocations (e.g., methylation analyses, aberrant methylation; received mastectomy, undergoing mastectomy). When we look up these words in dictionaries, the specialised corpus provides us very rich data which could facilitate both learners' and teachers' work and shows us authentic classroom material.

TABLE 2.
Concordance lines

<p>apoptosis</p> <p>s demonstrated sf1126 reduced p-akt and increased apoptosis indicating inhibition of activated pi3k signalling. using annexin v staining to detect apoptosis, treated cells were harvested and rinsed with colchicine. consistently increased late apoptosis relative to baseline following treatment with colchicine was more effective ($p < 0.001$), causing apoptosis in 54% cells. to confirm that the effect of genistein and naringenin indeed synergistically induced apoptosis, we treated chp134 cells with vehicle control, shown in fig. 5b, cleaved caspase 3, a marker for apoptosis, was expressed at a considerably higher level in lipid rafts. trail-induced apoptosis in gastric cancer cells. keywords abstract cells are resistant to tumour necrosis factor-related apoptosis-inducing ligand (trail), since trail signalling complex (disc), finally leading to apoptosis.^{4,5} the long form of flippase (flip) in lipid rafts play a critical role in trail-triggered apoptosis. As the membrane platform, lipid rafts associated with 100 ng/ml trail for 16 h, cell apoptosis was quantified with flow cytometry. (b) mge8 in non-silencing controls ($p < 0.05$; fig. 2c). Apoptosis induction was further corroborated by the cleavage of caspase 3. tumour necrosis factor-related apoptosis-inducing ligand (trail) activated epidermal growth factor receptor signalling in lipid rafts, and subsequent apoptosis. Flip/1 is an endogenous inhibitor of the signal transduction pathway activation, which partially attenuates apoptosis induced by trail. (b) Either inhibition of egfr</p>
<p>methylation</p> <p>s) as instability in <30% of the markers. methylation analyses for cpg islands and line-1 using bisulphite-converted dna, we quantified dna methylation in eight cimp-specific promoters (cacna1g, cdkn2b, etc.). in order to accurately quantify methylation changes within line-1, we used pyrosequencing. direct sequencing was performed and the methylation status was determined. For all cases examined, the alleles were demethylated; and (ii) normal methylation, in which the overlapping of both thymine and cytosine on the paternal allele is methylated. this methylation of the paternal allele blocks the transcription factor binding. previous studies showing that changes in dna methylation of the dmr are not associated with allelic expression. (samples analysed before july 2007),¹² or methylation-specific high-resolution melting analysis (hrm) analysed since july 2007).¹³ in case an aberrant methylation of both kcnq10t1 and h19 was detected, str marker of p53. our data suggest that down-regulation methylation of ankrd11 is associated with breast tumorigenesis. methylation patterns of all analysed cpgs in this region were similar. gene transcription is silenced by hyper-methylation of the cpg-rich promoter region, which is usually observed in human breast cancer. (a) location and (b) methylation analysis of three regions (pf1, pf2 and pf3) within breast tumours. each bar represents the average methylation level of all cpg units in each amplicon (pf1 = 100% methylation). the activity of the three cpgs in the unit 7 methylation-sensitive region (-582 to -574 bp) regulates ankrd11. methylation-sensitive region for the maintenance and establishment of dna methylation patterns, respectively. dnmt3b is frequently observed in breast cancer and subsequently activate methylation-silenced genes. the ankrd11 mRNA expression has been proposed as a mechanism for aberrant genome methylation. There was little variation in dnmt1 levels associated with the methylation of ankrd11 promoter. (a) in vitro methylation target sequence and the luciferase activity of an</p>
<p>mastectomy</p> <p>the primary tumour with resulting conversion of mastectomy candidates to breast conserving surgery candidates, and a median 39.4% (iqr 26.0-60.0%) received mastectomy. Table 1 also summarises data on nac treatment. which is useful for planning nipple sparing mastectomy. On the other hand, the main concerns regarding mastectomy rate. moreover, in the comice trial the mastectomy rate was significantly higher in the arm with more conservatively select patients suitable for skin-sparing mastectomy, especially with nipple-areola complex (nac) strongly recommended in all patients undergoing mastectomy. Radiotherapy the radiotherapy trial even in the prospective trials. there is no role for post-mastectomy radiation therapy in cases of dcis with clear ma</p>

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of evidence means that the issue of post-mastectomy radiotherapy after preservation of the nace
s the same survival benefits as modified radical mastectomy in women with stage i or ii breast cancer a
en into account. skin- sparing and nipple-sparing mastectomy techniques seem to be ideal options both from an
issues related to possible indications for post-mastectomy radiotherapy. In young women with the diagnosi
l survival by performing risk-reducing bilateral mastectomy. The risk for contralateral disease in young wom
evidence regarding the necessity of ipsilateral mastectomy is inconclusive in this subset of patients
l to 10%. conversely, in patients treated by mastectomy, the risk of local relapse is not affecte
can be safely performed, and the indications for mastectomy or breast conserving therapy are the same as for
ty questionnaire; cpm, contralateral prophylactic mastectomy. A higher scores indicate higher levels of anxiet

4. CONCLUSIONS AND PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

Understanding the vocabulary convention in disciplines that learners and academics will encounter while reading scientific texts is highly likely to facilitate their involvement in academia, and acquisition of the specialised discourse competencies. Accordingly, this study reported on vocabulary in a specific target context in Biochemistry to prepare scholars for their studies and publications. As Chung and Nation (2004) discussed, some potential caveats about the vocabulary lists are present; however, the benefits of the vocabulary lists cannot be taken for granted and can be used English for academic purposes.

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English course for specific purposes in Medical University: Pragmatic aspects of professional communication

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Abstract: The object of the research is dialogical utterances used in medical sphere in which pragmatic and cognitive components are made explicit. The subject matter of the research is reflection of pragmatic features in professional communication. The research is aimed at revealing of the taxonomy of different discursive targets, speaker's strategies and tactics presupposed some pragmatic pictures. The following methods have been used to achieve the aim: linguistic and communicative - pragmatic describing, component analyses, communicative-cognitive approach and elements of quantitative analyses. The data obtained and their novelty. For the first time all means of utterance's pragmatic explication as illocutive as interactive part have been studied. A typology of medical discourses created by the verbalization of pragmatic components is proposed, also semantic-pragmatic structure of utterance meaning is revealed and types of pragmatic aims, speaker's strategies and tactics are established. Pragmatic and metalinguistic aspects of utterance are analyzed in the light of the professional discursive interaction. In that case metacommunication is accepted as universal feature of human speech code, "communication about communication". Metacommunication units comment interactive code, explicate illocutive characteristics of utterance and provide the process of communication activity between speech partners. On the way explication of pragmatic components of utterance are regarded as a part of metalanguage. Simultaneously analysis of cognitive component allowed to reconstruct individual system of speech partner's personal meanings. Practical value and practical application. The data obtained can be used in further research in pragmalinguistics, conversation analysis, intercultural communication to find out the role of pragmatic components of utterances in medical discourse. The results of the theses can be practiced in the communicative – centered English course for specific purposes in medical faculties to optimize dialogue interaction.

Key words: discursive interaction, professional medical communication, utterances with explication of pragmatic components, pronouncing aims.

English course for specific purposes in the North-West State Medical University is designed firstly to help medical students preparing for oral interactions which are conventional (and therefore predictable) ways of presenting information and which can focus either on professional information or interaction. In functional analyses of speaking, Bygate suggests that oral interactions can be characterized in terms of routines [1]. Information of routines contain frequently recurring types of information structures and help medical students to integrate different language skills in the practice activities.

Facing the challenge of teaching students many specialists are guided by the requirements of communicative competence development to open pragmatic aspects of professional situations.

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Even armed with language competence (lexical, phonological, grammatical knowledge) and communicative competence (the appropriate use of a language) students may not be able to operate efficiently unless they know how language is organized as discourse [2]. They are to know how to string words together, how to organize the points they wish to make. To communicate effectively language users need to make their speech structured.

The discourse is a major component of the education and methodological complex and the basis for situation modeling in professional medical communication for students of medical faculties.

The structure of medical discourse depends not only on mere tectonics of its components, but also on their pragmatic aims. Different types of discourse's aims taxonomy must be viewed in accordance with the functional approach. The strategic tactical representation of discourse purposes presupposes the existence of some speaking pragmatic picture. The results of structural representation of the discourse can be different, depending on which pragmatic purpose is considered.

Also there is utterances with explication of pragmatic components. In the semantic dictionary A. Wierzbicka presents a collection of English speech act verbs with a thorough analysis of discursive elements [3]. Pragmatic characteristics of speech acts are reflected in those verbs.

Explicated utterances are considered to be structure – organized language elements, which are able to indicate the real link of tangible subjects and natural processes maintaining the main qualities of communicative dynamisms.

Students are recommended to follow the structure of discourse paying special attention to politeness phenomena, speech strategies and tactics. As a rule cognitive structures are analyzed to reconstruct individual system of personal meanings. In general these structures are predictable and depend on a range of factors including complex of situation, the topic of conversation, aim speech partner. In terms of the discourse we are engaged in, predictability will depend on whether the discourse contains cognitive patterns, and also on the extent to which we are familiar with these patterns.

In order to illustrate this point, consider the following texts:

- I shall be very glad to have your advice.
- Send for a doctor at once and don't let anybody move anything

The first partner's utterance has explication of illocutive aim in the speech act – “Advise”.

Illocutive aim is indicated in the speech dictionary of A. Wierzbicka. “Advise”: “I say this because I want to cause you to know what you should do” [4].

The first speech partner encourages the second partner to find out how he is supposed to act. In this example explication of the future speech act is presented. In that case pragmatic purpose is seen to be presupposing.

To attract attention the partner to your message, the first speaker can use the further utterance to inform you: - For your information, I've honed as a physician for four years.

Accented purpose is realized clearly. According the meaning of the verb inform, explication of illocutive aim is presented in the form of metalanguage element as: “I say this because I want to cause you to know it” [5].

Pragmatic and metalinguistic aspects of utterance should be analyzed in the light of the professional discursive interaction. In that case metacommunication is accepted as universal feature of human speech code, “communication about communication” [6]. Metacommunication units comment interactive code, explicate illocutive characteristics of utterance and provide the process of communication activity between speech partners. On the way explication of pragmatic components of utterance should be regarded as a part of metalanguage.

Practice teaching, as well as mastering needs different tricks of the trade process in order to promote language learning especially speaking. Teachers can also help students to develop the following abilities:

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- thinking about nuclear message idea;
- interpreting tactics and strategies;
- evaluating of utterance creativity; its information significance;
- practicing structured discourses for medical terms;
- collaborating guided discourses.

Don't forget that authentic materials used for training learners are more useful for developing communicative purposes. With such materials, students are more motivated to be prepared and feel themselves as real – life participants.

With the advent of new technology and online resources learning should include the possibility for students to send messages medical students from different countries in an on-line format.

To educate learners into reflective professional practitioners both teachers and students should create a ready discourse script to build the conversation. The presentation usually focuses all problem tasks – as grammatical as lexical but it also can allow students to improve their language skills and can solve the problem with their consciousness about the professional material.

More linguists think that English should be taught for the international professional communication purposes during the course of training in the High School according to the purposes of this School. Also teaching English is not effective through instruction, only in terms of grammar-translation method. Communicative development plays the unique role in the language education. So, teaching of professional discourse meets professional each other. Speakers open methods of socialization, the main topic placement in medical conversation, personal space, the roles and statuses of speakers.

In other words, rather than teaching rules of language, we should also give students tools for dealing with a wide variety of potentially unexpected and expected professional intercultural situations. We have to be confident that our learners know how to cope with misunderstanding or breakdowns in communication.

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Medical Scientific Conference at an English Lesson. How it Helps to Develop Communicative Competence

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Abstract: To communicate effectively in a foreign language students have to develop communicative competence (CC). To help my students promote the CC I use a communicative activity — a medical scientific conference — at an English lesson. The conference is called “*Disease. The Greatest Agent of Natural Selection*”. To prepare for the conference the students use the texts from my textbook “Clones, Viruses, etc. Reading and Speaking on Biology and Medicine”, which are read in the semester. The texts are about the causes of diseases, the nature of viruses, etc. They are read, translated, and analyzed. The post-text exercises are done. Then every student chooses a text on the basis of which he will prepare his presentation for the conference both in written form and orally. A number of conversational gambits are studied, which can be useful in the course of an academic presentation as well as in the course of a scientific conference. The techniques of preparing and delivering presentations have been thoroughly elaborated. The manuals for speakers and listeners have been developed. Oral presentations are given at the conference. Written texts of the reports are published in the Proceedings of the conference. All the four skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) interrelate and interact very closely here. The students acquire the CC, which consists of the following components: linguistic, socio-linguistic, sociocultural, discourse and strategic competences. The students accumulate subject-specific lexical items and gain grammatical accuracy, as well as the knowledge of sociocultural rules of appropriateness, discourse norms, and strategies for ensuring that a communication is understood. That is, they learn to be effective while communicating on professional topics.

Key words: communicative competence, communicative activity, scientific conference, language learning, specific language skills

1. INTRODUCTION

Today, global changes happen throughout the world. They are described as globalisation and informatization. These global changes influence education profoundly. The new educational paradigm is characterized by the shift from teaching to learning, from the mere development of skills in students to the acquisition of competences when the needs and interests of the students are met. So the focus is shifted from teaching, the mere transfer of knowledge, to learning and the formation of relevant competences. The Council of Europe has recently specified five basic groups of competences that are necessary for all specialists nowadays. One of them determines how well the students can communicate in their native language as well as in the foreign language that they are learning. Both written and oral communication are taken into consideration.

The students who study foreign languages have to acquire communicative competence (CC) so that they would be able to communicate effectively in these languages. To promote the CC in language learners the teachers often use “communicative activities”. These are such activities that rely on the students' ability to understand and communicate real information. The aim of such activities is to develop a pattern of language interaction within the classroom, which is as close as possible to that used by competent performers in real life.

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The goal of the teacher is to provide suitable tasks to encourage interaction and, through it, negotiation of meaning. A learner's expression and interpretation of meaning during appropriate tasks would enable the acquisition and refinement of linguistic knowledge and its social use. Communicative tasks involve learners in sharing meaning in the target language about everyday tasks (Breen 2011; Willis and Willis 2011).

To help my students promote the CC I use a communicative activity – a medical scientific conference – at an English lesson. The conference “*Disease. The Greatest Agent of Natural Selection*” is held at the end of the semester. In the semester the students study the texts from my textbook “*Clones, Viruses, etc. Reading and Speaking on Biology and Medicine*”. In the process of preparation for the conference and during the conference itself five components of the CC are formed. They are linguistic, socio-linguistic, socio-cultural, discourse, and strategic competences.

2. MEDICAL SCIENTIFIC CONFERENCE

2.1 Preparation for the Conference

The medical scientific conference is held at the end of the semester. At the conference every student gives an oral academic presentation (OAP) on a medical topic. To prepare for the conference the students use the texts from the textbook “*Clones, Viruses, etc. Reading and Speaking on Biology and Medicine*” (Snytnikova 2006). The texts are rather long (1,000 – 1,500 signs) and related to medicine and biology. They are dedicated to such academic topics as the causes of diseases, cloning from the point of view of the science, the moral, and the ethics, the nature of viruses, the classification of cells in the human body, the ways the bacteria can be used and so on. The texts are read aloud, translated, and thoroughly analyzed in class. All the exercises that accompany the texts are fulfilled. Reading skills are acquired here that are necessary to read and comprehend the texts on speciality. Subject-specific lexical items are also accumulated.

A number of conversational gambits are studied, which can be useful in the course of an OAP. In order to communicate successfully the students need to develop skills in the management of interaction and also in negotiation of meaning. The first means that they get to know when and how to take the floor, how to introduce a topic or change the subject, how to invite someone else to speak, how to keep a conversation going, when and how to terminate the conversation, etc. The second refers to the skills of making sure the person you are speaking to has correctly understood you and that you have correctly understood them (Nunan 1992).

A sequence of communicative tasks is carried out in the target language, namely, English, here. Central to the notion of a communicative task is the exchange of meanings. D. Nunan defines a communicative 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 form” (Nunan 1993).

In the activity of preparing for the conference “*Disease. The Greatest Agent of Natural Selection*” and during the conference itself the students form and promote the CC, which consists of five components: linguistic, socio-cultural, socio-linguistic, discourse and strategic competences.

Linguistic competence includes the knowledge of the lexical items acquired in the process of preparation for and carrying out the conference as well as the skills that allow the students to operate these items. The students form the skill to correlate abstract linguistic knowledge that they have acquired with a particular communicative situation.

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Socio-linguistic competence includes the knowledge and skills that help the students convey the information using coherent reasoned statements and to plan their speech behaviour due to the status of their partner (presenter, a member of the audience, the chair of the conference, etc.). Socio-cultural competence is composed of the knowledge of the patterns of social and speech behaviour of native speakers in the situation of a scientific conference and of the skills that help students organize their speech behaviour due to these patterns.

Discourse competence means the development of the skills to compose a report (a monologue) and to deliver it at the conference. The skills to participate in the discussion after the report are also to be developed. Strategic competence implies the development of skills that can help students reach the goal in the process of professional communication when they do not have enough linguistic tools.

The texts from *“Clones, Viruses, etc. Reading and Speaking on Biology and Medicine”* are read and translated at home. The students also make up a plan for every text. They choose Russian equivalents of English words and word combinations, make summaries of the texts, etc. They form and develop the skills in reading, speaking, and writing. They learn to identify the basic content of the text by prop words, international words, and linguistic analysis. They also learn to identify the meanings of the words from the context.

The manuals for speakers and listeners have been developed. They are: *“Conversational Lexicon”* (see Table I), *“Question-Answer Techniques”*, *“Discussion Techniques”*, *“Listening Strategies”*, *“Speaking Strategies”*, and *“Some hints for a successful presentation”*. The first manual comprises the phrases that are both necessary and appropriate in the situation of an OAP. The second and the third ones provide the samples of question-answer and discussion devices to be used in this situation. The manual *“Listening Strategies”* contains recommendations for listeners, the manual *“Speaking Strategies”* - for speakers. And the last manual teaches students how to make the text of the report for the conference, what language to use, and how to deliver the report properly.

The socio-cultural and socio-linguistic competences are formed. For example, we suggest as an introductory greeting the following phrase: *“Good afternoon, ladies and gentlemen”*. The students should realize that if they greet their listeners in the morning, they have to change *“afternoon”* to *“morning”*. If all the listeners are female persons, the presenter should say *“Good afternoon, ladies.”* (not *“ladies and gentlemen”*).

When preparing for the conference and during the conference the students learn to achieve a goal through communication. Success of communication depends very much on the knowledge of successful strategies chosen by the speakers. Successful strategies are known as the **“four maxims”** of good communication or Gricean maxims. These maxims include **quality** (say only what is supported by evidence), **quantity** (say no more and no less than you think is needed), **relevance** (say what is relevant to the point of communication) and **manner** (present your ideas clearly and unambiguously).

TABLE I.
Conversational Lexicon

1. Greetings.	Good afternoon, ladies and gentlemen. Thank you for joining me today. We haven't all met before, so I'd better introduce myself. I am Olga Bershak from Novosibirsk State University.
2. Introducing Subject.	1) In the course of my talk I want to talk about / tell you about / examine ... 2) During this short talk I'm going to give you some idea of ... / a brief outline of ...
3. Indicating	I've divided my talk into the following sections ...

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Structure	
4. Staging.	First of all, I'd like to consider ... Now, I want to move on to ...
5. Enumerating.	There are three points I want to make. The first one is ... / The second one is ... / The last one is ...
6. Emphasising.	I'd like to stress this particular point / factor / aspect ...
7. Exemplifying.	Let me give you an example
8. Clarifying and Restating.	In other words / That is to say / Or to put it another way / What I mean is
9. Closing.	Well, that's about it, I think. Thank you for your attention.
10. Asking for questions.	Now, if anyone has any questions I'd be happy to answer them.
11. Asking for clarification.	Sorry, I don't think I quite understand your question, could you rephrase it, please?

Every student chooses a text that he will use to prepare an OAP for the conference. As the texts have been thoroughly analyzed, they are easy as far as grammar and vocabulary are concerned. Making use of the key points from the text and special conversational gambits students write the texts of their presentations. They employ their skills in *Multi-Skills Reading* in the process. The following reading skills are involved: 1) skimming for key words; 2) scanning for specific information; 3) reading in meaningful units; 4) recognition of clues, which signal phrases. The students use the writing skills they have acquired and organize the content at the level of the paragraph reflecting the given information. The students try to 1) master and obey conventions of spelling and punctuation, and 2) use grammatical system to convey one's intended meaning (e.g. ask a proper question).

When preparing for the delivery of the report at the conference the students do the following exercises: translate the text of the report from English into Russian, then render it into English orally and in written form, etc.

When preparing for the conference my students and I regularly exchange e-mail letters. The students send me rough copies of their conference reports. Having checked and corrected them I send them back. Thus, e-mail allows me to carry out individual distance teaching providing my students by a feedback channel. One of the students is chosen to be the secretary of the conference. He is responsible for the printed materials. All students send him e-mails with the titles of their reports and some other necessary information like their names and surnames in the English spelling, their e-mail addresses, and their affiliations. He, then, makes up the conference program and prints it out. We usually publish the conference proceedings. Reports to be included into the proceedings are usually e-mailed, too.

2.2 Conference "Disease. The Greatest Agent of Natural Selection"

The conference "*Disease. The Greatest Agent of Natural Selection*" is a training conference. It is conducted on the basis of studied materials. Thus, the aim of students is not to convey some new information, but to present a brief summary of the main points of some texts dedicated to one of important medical or biological problems. They also have to use all the stereotyped expressions that are necessary in order to arrange the information used in the report.

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The aim of the activity is to help students learn how to take part in a scientific conference as presenters and members of the audience. Students give oral reports at the conference. The topics are “Disease”, “Virus”, “Cancer”, etc. While presenting the students are to use *Conference Lexicon* properly, that is the conversational gambits studied during the semester.

Some new speaking skills are involved here: 1) using appropriate conversational formulae and filters; 2) skills in taking short and long speaking turns, and so on. The audience listening to the reports is well prepared. New *Oral Communication Skills for Academic Purposes* are formed: 1) an acceptable degree of fluency, and 2) transactional and interpersonal skills. All students prepare one or two questions on the topic of each report. They are asked in the discussion after the reporter has given his presentation. The whole group takes part in the discussion.

The speaker and the audience interact quite closely here. The process of interaction includes both the receptive skill of listening and the productive skill of speaking. It is known that *Listening Comprehension Skills* comprise *Conversational Listening* and *Academic Listening*. In our situation of a scientific presentation students are expected to develop the ability to: 1) retain chunks of language of different lengths for short periods; 2) discriminate among the distinctive sounds of the English language; 3) distinguish word boundaries; 4) recognize typical word order patterns in English. Students also develop some skills in *Academic Listening* in the process of the OAP. These new skills involve the ability to 1) identify the purpose and scope of the lecture; 2) identify the topic of the lecture and follow the topic development; 3) recognize the key lexical items relating to the topic.

The conference audience are prepared for the conference. They have some non-linguistic knowledge and skills that are necessary to recognize the speech: 1) they have a strong intention to listen; 2) they have good basic knowledge as the texts used for the OAPs have been thoroughly worked out at home and in class.

After all the students have given their presentations and all the presentations have been discussed, the students are given sheets of paper and are asked to write short evaluation essays on the following topic “*Presentation I liked most of all*” (see Table II). They are supposed to evaluate how well the person prepared his presentation, how he behaved while speaking, etc. They tell if it was interesting to listen to the presentation, and if the reporter used special *Conference Lexicon* properly and appropriately.

Such peer evaluation is a useful component of oral “performance” activities. The evaluation is structured so that it meets the goals of the activity, with categories for such criteria as *content* (Is it focused? clear? sufficient?), *organization* (Is it logical? Are there appropriate transitions?), and *delivery* (Is eye contact maintained? Are notes relied on too much? Is the volume adequate?). They are to evaluate if the speakers have used stereotyped phrases properly and sufficiently. They should also consider the benefits and drawbacks of their own presentations.

The activity of writing an evaluation report is a very useful component of a real communicative situation. The students are familiar with the materials presented in the reports. They know what stereotyped expressions should be used to structure the reports and to deliver presentations at the conference. The activity of evaluating the presentations helps the students gain assertion and the ability to appraise the language.

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TABLE II.

Questionnaire "Presentation I liked most of all. Why?"

1.	Preparation. How well the student has prepared his/her presentation.
2.	Proper usage of Conference Lexicon.
3.	Behaviour during the presentation.
4.	Was the presentation interesting or not?
5.	What I think of my own presentation. What was good and bad about it?

In the situation of the conference the students experience the 'socio-pragmatic' level of language, that is 'the social conditions of language use, what can be talked about, when, and where'. For example what to say and do when someone is talking too quickly, what to say when you cannot recall a vocabulary item, etc. (Clennell 1999).

During the conference the students realize that they have to plan their presentations carefully and prepare for them very thoroughly. This can make them more confident and help them overcome their nervousness. The students learn how to deliver the OAP and how to behave properly during the OAP. They learn, for example, that eye contact is essential for maintaining a good rapport with the audience. They also have to time their presentations beforehand because they must meet the time allowed for the presentation. The time for one presentation is 8-10 minutes. The time for the discussion after the presentation is 5-7 minutes.

Presentations are popular with the students. The students understand that this activity has a context of meaning in it and trains them for their future careers. They feel content, which helps them cope with all the tasks they are supposed to fulfill and get appreciable results. Both receptive and productive language skills are developed in the process of interaction between the speaker and the audience. All the four skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) interrelate and interact very closely here. The skills are interwoven into a complex language activity and interact with each other in natural behaviour.

2.3 Communicative Competence Formed in the Process of Preparation and Carrying out the Conference

The students acquire the CC. They learn that they have to gain not only grammatical accuracy but also some knowledge of sociocultural rules of appropriateness, discourse norms, and strategies for ensuring that a communication is understood, that is, they learn to be effective while communicating on professional topics.

Compensatory strategies for speaking and writing help learners make up for missing knowledge when using English in oral or written communication. For example, compensatory strategies (or communicative strategies) for speaking include using synonyms, circumlocution, and gesturing to suggest the meaning. These strategies are employed for language use, but they simultaneously aid language learning. This is because "each instance of language use provides an immediate opportunity for 'incidental learning'" (Oxford 2011).

In the course of preparation and carrying out the conference "*Disease. The Greatest Agent of Natural Selection*" the students form and develop the strategic competence, which is comprised of the following skills: 1) the skills to join in conversation and to cooperate, i.e. to give clues to the partner; 2) the skills to apply for clarification and to make clarifications; 3) the skills to take into account the particular qualities of the audience when planning their speech behaviour; 4) the skill to choose an

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alternative way of phrasing when their word stock is insufficient; 5) the skill to control their speech and correct the mistakes.

The linguistic competence is formed and developed when the students acquire and master different kinds of lexical items: 1) professional medical and biological lexicon; 2) conference lexicon, etc. This competence is assessed with the help of the ratio of professional linguistic literacy (PLL). We consider the total amount of professional lexical items in the texts and then we count how many of them the students use in their reports at the conference and in the discussions after the reports.

The socio-cultural competence in our case includes the use of linguistic markers of social relations, rules of politeness, communicating register, and paralinguistic tools. In our situation the neutral communicating register is to be used. So the students have to appeal to their audience or to their interlocutor using the neutral form of address. For example, they should say '*Mr Mostovich*' or '*Miss Bershak*', but not '*Evgenij*' and '*Olga*' when they address their interlocutor. That is, they should call each other not by name, but by surname and use the linguistic markers of social relations. They should also be polite and should adequately use the formulae of speech etiquette. The usage of paralinguistic tools includes the correct and adequate usage of the voice by the speaker, the proper behaviour during the report and the skill to establish and maintain the eye contact. The students are to apply the rules of politeness, i. e. use such words as '*please*', '*thank you*', etc.

The socio-linguistic competence in the situation of an OAP means that the students know and are able to use the appropriate clichés and stereotyped phrases. The students got acquainted with these clichés and phrases during the preparation stage. They studied a set of stereotyped phrases to be used in the situation of an OAP, so called "*Conversational Lexicon*". They acquire and master question-answer techniques: they learn how to ask for information, how to answer if you know the answer and if you do not know it. They also learn what to do if you want to delay answering a question while you think for a moment or check on your facts. The students learn various discussion techniques: 1) how to attract somebody's attention in a polite way; 2) how to agree or refuse; 3) what hesitation devices to use when you want to think; 4) what to say when you want to keep talking and not be interrupted; 5) how to interrupt someone politely. They learned this from the manuals "*Question-Answer Techniques*" and "*Discussion Techniques*".

In the situation of the OAP, the discourse competence is formed and developed when the students learn how to organize the texts of their reports, how to decide what facts and ideas from the chosen texts are the most relevant and appropriate. The students learn that their presentations should have a clear, coherent structure and cover the points that they wish to make in a logical order. They are also taught how to properly deliver their presentations by using well-organized visual aids, the right body language, and by establishing and maintaining eye contact with their audience. The students get to know that the language used in their reports should be simple and clear, that the active verbs and concrete words are more preferable than passive verbs and abstract concepts, etc. To learn all the above-mentioned the students use the manual "*Some hints for a successful presentation*" and then they put into practice everything that they have learned.

The students develop the skills to participate in discussions. They learn to understand their partner and determine their communicative intentions, to respond to the conversational turns of their partners, and to start and terminate the dialogue (to ask a question, to express a request, etc.).

The CC comprises not only the knowledge of everything enumerated above, but also the skills to use this knowledge effectively in the appropriate communicative situations. The conference "*Disease. The Greatest Agent of Natural Selection*" is held as a part of an ESP (English for Specific Purposes) course. The course is called "*English for Medical Students*". In this course the students learn to communicate on professional topics in English. To acquire communicative and linguistic skills they are supposed to learn how to read and comprehend texts on their speciality in English, write

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summaries of the texts as well as scientific papers and reports, give and comprehend OAPs on their speciality. In the given course every student gives two OAPs at scientific seminars and two OAPs at scientific conferences: “*Disease. The Greatest Agent of Natural selection*” and “*Bacteria. The Workhorses of Biotechnology*”.

The main objective of any ESP course is to help students acquire the linguistic and communicative skills related to their disciplines, so a content-based approach is especially useful. A content-based curriculum integrates target learning and content learning. Content-based instruction “employs authentic reading materials which require students not only to understand information but interpret and evaluate it as well ... [and] requires students to synthesize facts and ideas from multiple sources as preparation for writing” (Brinton, Snow and Wesche 1989).

3. CONCLUSION

The elements of the CC are formed: linguistic, socio-cultural, socio-linguistic, discourse and strategic competences. The criteria are produced which help to evaluate how well the elements of the CC are formed. The criteria are also produced which help to evaluate the monologue (report or presentation) delivered at the conference as well as conversational skills manifested by students during the discussions after the reports at the conference.

The CC in the situation of a scientific conference we interpret as an aggregate of the knowledge of professional medical terms, stereotyped expressions and cliches from the “*Conversational Lexicon*”, the knowledge of socio-cultural rules of behaviour in such situations, the knowledge of the strategies used to overcome misunderstanding which was brought about by the lack of linguistic knowledge as well as the knowledge of the ways to construct a monologue and the main types of dialogues appropriate in the situation of a scientific conference.

Every student gives an OAP (oral academic presentation) at the conference “*Disease. The Greatest Agent of Natural Selection*”. They are to choose the most important information from a scientific text dedicated to one subject, organize it, add some necessary conversational formulae and present it in written form and then orally.

In the communicative activity of preparing for and carrying out the conference the students use English for a communicative purpose in order to achieve an outcome. Language brings an outcome in the task through the exchange of meanings. The conference as such an activity has a goal which is independent of the language used to achieve that goal. The learners who carry out a task are free to use any language they can to achieve an outcome. In order to achieve the goal they use and develop language forms to which they have been recently exposed.

The conference classroom has a workshop atmosphere where learners interact and share. Learning is a risky business. The classroom environment must be one that encourages learners to take risks. The four language skills are interrelated and interdependent. So deficiency or growth in one may cause deficiency or growth in another. The purpose of language is to create meaning. Skills are part of purposeful communication. Thus, learners must be involved in real language activities in order to develop a pattern of language interaction within the classroom, which is as close as possible to that used by competent performers in real life.

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Language Use in Medical Setting: Program Design and Evaluation

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Abstract: English is a vital means of communication for millions of people around the world. In order to survive in the modern world, Serbia is endeavoring to be on an equal par with the leading countries, and in order to be effective in this way communication has to be efficient.

Students of medicine have to master terms used in medicine, to be able to understand formal professional texts, produce formal pieces in writing, make professional presentations and participate in discussions on contemporary medical issues. Biomedical students at the Faculty of Medicine in Nis need training in specialized language which would enable them to communicate about specific topics with their colleagues, to publish research articles, to participate in international conferences and to practice abroad.

Taking into consideration the importance of English both in Serbia and in the rest of the world, this paper presents English in Medicine teaching program used at the Faculty of Medicine, University of Nis, Serbia, outlining its key aspects which promote the students' knowledge of medical English with respect to the circumstances in which medical students, future doctors, will use English in their work. Overall, the English Language course is an elective subject (first year, second semester) and it introduces the students to the most important language aspects they will need for entering the specialized language course. The English in Medicine course is a mandatory subject taught in the second year. It focuses on medical topics and includes both professional and academic levels of language.

The program intends to raise students' English levels and enable them to use English appropriately so that they become equal members of the medical community worldwide.

Key words: English in Medicine, biomedical students, doctors, teaching program

1. INTRODUCTION

English is nowadays popularly acknowledged to be the international language of a wide range of occupations. It has also emerged as both an intra-national and international language of medical communication, a prime vehicle for the transmission of information. Intercommunication, which means reading and publishing articles, getting involved in research, participating in conferences, following new improvements, is the imperative device for the self-development of a doctor.

The primary goal of ESP is to create knowledge about the specific needs to be covered in specialized language classrooms, in order to make this kind of language teaching as efficient as possible. The demand for English teaching in the medical field is an example of English for Specific Purposes (ESP)¹, a type of program that may concentrate on language learning in general while keeping to a specific purpose.² Courses in ESP focus on the specific vocabulary and the unique language skills those in a given field are likely to require.

¹ Tom Hutchinson and Alan Waters. *English for Specific Purposes: a learning-centered approach*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1987.

² Pauline C. Robinson. *ESP today: a practitioner's guide*. New York: Prentice Hall, 1991.

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Designing a course of English for Medical Purposes is a never-ending, open process of constant change and improvement.³ ESP teacher needs to realize this process in collaboration with students, so that needs analysis, students' autonomy and the set goals become a process which combines the teacher's professional knowledge and the students' own insights into their learning goals and their expectations with respect to the broader process of language learning.

One of our goals is to design a course which would produce learners who will be comfortable in using the English language as a tool for expressing themselves precisely. In order to fulfill this goal, teachers need to let go of their traditional authority and establish collaboration with both students and their specialized subjects teachers.

2. METHOD

An emphasis on the special needs of the learners and designing a specific course of English which would most effectively meet those needs are probably the most important concerns of teaching English for medical purposes. Medical students represent an essential source of information in course design. However, since each generation is specific and since the needs may change, it is necessary that need analysis be an ongoing process, repeated yearly and both at the beginning and during the course.

Furthermore, due to the nature of ESP classes and the fact that they are closely related to the specialized area the students study at a specific faculty, in our case the Faculty of Medicine, it is a good practice to take into account the opinion of doctors who may provide additional information based on the fact that they have a more specific knowledge about the areas in which they use English in their workplace. In addition, another useful source are student congresses which can also offer an insight into the needs of students from different university centers in Serbia, with the aim of creating a more uniform program and standardizing the students' knowledge of English.

3. RESULTS : What the need analysis shows us

Need analysis is commonly done through questionnaires, during lectures and consultation hours with students. Generally, we welcome every opportunity to obtain students' opinions, beliefs and interests concerning the English language. In general, students tend to mark the speaking skill as one of the most important but there is always a relatively constant agreement that all language skills need equal improvement.

The research conducted with students from different university centers in Serbia (277 participants) shows that students mostly mark listening as their weakest skill but there is no great difference compared to other skills (speaking, reading, writing, translation).⁴ The greatest problem is vocabulary while listening and speaking are marked as the most important and need most improvement.

Taking into account only the results obtained from medical students from the University of Nis (67 participants) it can be seen that their weakest skill is reading (Tab. I). However, there is an apparent contradiction since in the next section vocabulary is graded as the greatest problem and the reading skill is not marked at all. Such a situation shows that a questionnaire in itself is not sufficient and needs to be combined with direct conversation with students whenever possible. Their explanation of this contradiction was that they in essence have problems with medical English vocabulary which

³ Jack C. Richards and Theodore S. Rodgers. *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2001.

⁴ Zorica Antic. 'Towards Uniformity in English for Medical Purposes: Evaluation and Design'. *Srpski arhiv za celokupno lekarstvo* 137, 7-8. (2009): 454-457.

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hinders their understanding of the texts they read. In general, the students prefer direct communication with the teacher and find questionnaires and surveys rather limiting.

However, when it comes to the most important language skill, there are generally no differences and every generation of medical students emphasizes speaking as one of the skills that needs constant improvement and it is believed to be the most important both during their studies and for their future profession.

TABLE I.
Results obtained at the students' medical congress.

Weakest language skill

listening (4.13%)	speaking (3.65%)	reading (4.43%)	writing (3.40%)	translation (3.82)
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Greatest problem with the English language (% of students)

vocabulary (46.26%)	grammar (35.82%)	pronunciation (13.43%)	writing (17.91)	reading (0%)
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The most important skill for the students of medicine (1-least important; 5-most important)

listening (3.61%)	speaking (4.67%)	reading (3.63%)	writing (2.29%)	translation (4.45%)
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Another problem commonly outlined is grammar. This is a specific case because the students have a good knowledge of grammar in itself. They do well in grammar exercises which focus on separate units, they know the rules and they know how to use them. After all, almost all of the students have intermediate level of English which is required so that they would be able to participate during the course. However, in longer pieces of writing (such as sentences or paragraphs) and in speech it becomes evident that the knowledge of grammar is passive which is a drawback originating from their previous high school education which tends to give grammar instructions directly, without providing appropriate context. The most common are errors concerning tenses, inappropriate use of pronouns (students frequently use *he* or *she* for body organs) and forming questions. For example, in multiple-choice exercises the students usually circle the correct answer but the problems appear in exercises which require them to form questions based on the given answers:

- The pain is located in the middle of the chest. The required question is: *Where is the pain located?* Common errors include questions such as: *Where the pain is located?** *Where is the location of the pain?** etc.

- They also tend to omit auxiliary verbs or use the incorrect tense in the question form and we get constructions: *When he had the operation?** or: *How long do you have pain?** (instead of: *How long have you had the pain?*).

It is interesting to point out that medical students emphasize the need to improve their translating skills. On the one hand, it is a remnant of the nature of previous high school English courses and exams but on the other hand, the students insist that translating into and (more often) from English is very important as they increasingly use English literature in learning specialized subjects.

As a rule, need analyses done at the beginning of the course show that the writing skill is not considered very important. Such a situation needs a more detailed consideration. Our course is divided into two parts – the English Language and the English in Medicine course. The English Language is an elective subject taught during the second semester of the first academic year. It focuses on the most important language aspects they will need for entering the specialized language course. The English in

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Medicine is a mandatory subject taught in the second year (two semesters). It focuses on medical topics and includes both professional and academic levels of language. Some of the elements that compose the professional level are case studies and medical interviews. These learning units are directly connected with the medical profession. They help practice grammar, vocabulary, specific manner of behaviour, communication filters and expert knowledge. The lectures are problem- and project-based and rely on students' abilities and interests. The academic level refers to writing medical papers and preparing oral presentations which are particularly useful as they enable practicing all language skills.

When the students are surveyed at the beginning of the course, they tend to rank writing low on the priority list. It can be said that at that point in their studies they are not yet aware of the importance writing has in their medical profession. This belief is confirmed by the fact that, later, students even ask for additional instructions about writing in English – in particular, writing specialized medical papers and abstracts.

As already stated, oral communication skills are regularly considered the most important. In particular, students emphasize the areas which include participating in oral discussions and conferences, those who plan to enter student exchange programs or practice and specialize abroad are more focused on improving oral skills such as telephoning, taking part in casual conversation with colleagues (small talks), speaking with patients.

The results obtained from a survey with 112 medical doctors could also be used as a valuable signpost in designing the course. The survey was conducted during a continuous evaluation program *Language of Medicine* in 2012. The participants were professionals who have a clear picture about the specific areas where they need and are using English in their line of work. The interviewed doctors put reading as the most important skill, closely followed by speaking and writing. They also report speaking and writing to be the areas that need more improvement. According to the data, they mostly use English for reading medical literature and journals, writing conference abstract and papers, speaking with colleagues from abroad, for business correspondence and for participating in discussions and conferences abroad. The overall conclusion drawn from this interaction with medical experts is that opportunities for using English in the medial practice are numerous and the only limitations are professional interests, goals and desire to constantly learn and progress, the motivation to establish oneself as a professional beyond the borders of our country. Table II shows a comparison of the results obtained from doctors and from students of medicine concerning the most important English language skill.

TABLE II.
A comparison of the most important skill for students and doctors

	listening	speaking	reading	writing	translation
students	3.61%	4.67%	3.63%	2.29%	4.45%
doctors	2.23%	4.15%	4.28%	4.01%	2.99%

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4. DISCUSSION

The field of medicine and health care brings medical experts from all over the world into close contact with each other. In order to be equal members of the discourse community the students of medicine, future doctors, need to be well prepared for the linguistic tasks awaiting them in the future. The students of medicine are expected to develop an ability to adjust to a particular setting in order to be able to express themselves correctly. Future doctors need to master the use of English so as to be able to keep up with the developments in their field.⁵ In accordance with the results of our study, various surveys have shown that one of the biggest difficulties for students is expressing themselves in speech which is something that future doctors must not allow, because 'limited English can hurt patients'.⁶

Medical terminology should be a prerequisite for medical students who intend to work internationally whether in the form of further education abroad, publishing medical papers in English, taking part in conferences or presentations. Terminology (vocabulary) represents the first step and all other skills (reading, writing, listening and speaking) will be improved as terminology is accumulated. The goal is to learn the tools of word analysis which will make the understanding of complex terminology easier. Medical language is logical in that most terms can be broken into basic parts.⁷ When they have mastered basic word formation, the students are expected to apply their knowledge of word elements and relate the medical terms to structure and function of the human body on the basis of body systems. English for medical purposes is highly context-based and terminology is naturally put in a suitable context because it does not represent knowledge in itself.

Grammar is not taught explicitly but rather within the medical context because the students are basically familiar with grammatical rules but they often fail to use them correctly. Emphasis is on those units which will be used in professional medical environment. In this sense, grammar has a remedial function. It has been proven in practice that our students have passive knowledge of grammar which is partly due to their previous education and lack of appropriate contextualization of grammar. Since intermediate level of English is a prerequisite for successful participation in our EMP course, the students' attention is now focused on particular elements and their use in the medical setting. For example, medical students are presented with the use of present and past simple tense, the passive voice since these are most commonly used in medical writing; asking questions and modal verbs are also emphasized as they are an important part of medical interview when the doctor needs to elicit information from the patient but also acts as a kind of adviser. Grammar points without medical relevance are not included. In this way the students have a chance to integrate their medical knowledge with their knowledge of English.

The course aims at developing all language skills. Reading quickly and accurately is important for medical professionals. They need to understand a range of medical texts including hospital documents, textbooks, reference materials and articles. As English is becoming the official language of expert writing, the development of the writing skill should by no means be neglected. Practice is provided in writing referral letters, completing a range of medical documents, and later students learn to write specialized medical articles according to the IMRaD structure, starting from separate parts and building towards the whole. Intertwined with this is the skill of speaking which is almost always considered to be the most important and it also represents the final goal of the course. First of all, the students start by using smaller segments – talking about a specific body system or an organ, describing its location, function, structure. Then communication is raised to a higher level, the students prepare oral presentations which are staged before their peers, thus practicing speaking before the public. Many of the students will be using English during student exchange program so they study the

⁵ J. Maclean and J. Maher. *Medical language*. In R. E. Asher (Ed.). *The Encyclopedia of language and linguistics*. Oxford: Pergamon Press, 1994.

⁶ D. Kong. *Limited English can hurt patients*. NY Times, 2002. [online series]

⁷ Davi-Ellen Chabner. *The Language of Medicine*. Philadelphia: WB Saunders Co, 1996.

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language required to discuss investigations, diagnoses and treatment both with the patient and with English-speaking colleagues. Speaking tasks focus on speaking English in all aspects of patient care. Most of these tasks require *pair* and *group (team) work*.

In order to integrate the language and the 'specific purposes' various authors have suggested conducting ESP courses as close to the workplace as possible. Crandall⁸ suggested making the classroom into a simulated workplace whereas other authors believe that the best place for an ESP course is in the actual workplace rather than a classroom.^{9,10} Occupational context also helps keep the focus more on the specific purposes and less on the language. Several researchers have emphasized that content of ESP courses should be relevant to the field of interest to avoid a mismatch between what is learned in class and its usefulness in the workplace.^{11,12} Students in ESP courses should be prepared 'for the realities, rather than merely the theories, of the workplace'.¹³ ESP courses should concentrate on issues of communication through the use of a process – oriented approach in which learning how to learn is more important than learning how to produce specific linguistic forms. With the process – oriented approach 'learning will continue beyond the completion of instruction since the aim of such instruction precisely is to develop the capacity to learn'.¹⁴

5. MAJOR PRINCIPLES OF EMP COURSE

In order to meet the demands of modern education, an EMP course needs to be designed in line with the current principles of ESP methodology. The final goal – *lifelong learning* implies that students continue building their knowledge even after the completion of the course. For this goal to be achieved, the course has to rely on students' learning strategies and strive to develop students' autonomy. There are several steps in this process that have to be taken during the course.

First of all, English in Medicine course is necessarily *content-* and *context-based*. Students learning medical English are more motivated to learn, acquire and use language when the entire context of the learning is within the field of their interest, medicine and healthcare. The aim is to develop knowledge of how English is used for communication in the basic medical sciences. It is intended for students who already know how to handle the common English sentence patterns but who need to learn how these patterns are used in medical context to convey information and to express medical concepts.

The field of medicine is suitable for applying *problem-based learning*. This approach consists of carefully selected and designed problems encountered in life and career and that demand from the learner acquisition of critical knowledge, problem solving proficiency, self – directed learning strategies and team participation skills. The students assume increasing responsibility for their own learning, giving them more motivation and more feelings of accomplishment, setting the pattern for them to become successful life-long learners. Students are offered opportunities to own their own learning experiences and develop independence in inquiry.

Another important approach is *project-based learning* (PBL). It facilitates hands-on learning in student-driven investigations, resulting in high-quality, challenging activities. With problems solving

⁸ JoAnn Crandall. 'Adult ESL: The other ESP'. *English for Specific Purposes* 3, (1984): 91-96.

⁹ Adrian Holliday. 'Assessing language needs within an institutional context: An ethnographic approach'. *English for Specific Purposes* 14, 2. (1995): 115-126.

¹⁰ Malcolm MacDonald, Richard Badger, Goodith White. 'The real thing? Authenticity and academic listening'. *English for Specific Purposes* 19, 3. (2000): 253-267.

¹¹ Robert De Beaugrande. 'User-friendly communication skills in the teaching and learning of business English'. *English for Specific Purposes* 19, 3. (2000):331-349.

¹² M. Fincham. 'Hospital communication'. In A. Waters (Ed.), *Issues in ESP*. Oxford: Pergamon Press, 1982.

¹³ Sally Mavor, Beverly Trayner. 'Aligning genre and practice with learning in higher education: An interdisciplinary perspective for course design and teaching'. *English for Specific Purposes* 20,4. (2001):345-366.

¹⁴ Henry Widdowson. *English for Specific Purposes: Criteria for course design*. In L. Selinker, E. Tarone and V. Hanzeli (Eds.). *English for academic and technical purposes: Studies in honor of Louis Trimble*. Rowley, MA: Newbury House Publishers, 1981.

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at its core, PBL develops critical thinking, collaboration and communication. Depending on their individual interests and abilities, each student contributes to the whole group work and the final outcome. Using real-life problems to motivate students, challenging them to think deeply about meaningful content, and enabling them to work collaboratively are practices that yield benefits for all students and their future careers. Instead of using a rigid lesson plan that directs a learner down a specific path of learning outcomes or objectives, project-based learning allows in-depth investigation of a topic worth learning more about.^{15,16} PBL functions as a bridge between using English in class and using English in real life situations outside of class.¹⁷ It does this by placing learners in situations that require authentic use of language in order to communicate.¹⁸ Within the group work integral to projects, individuals' strengths and preferred ways of learning (e.g. by reading, writing, listening or speaking) strengthen the work of the teams as a whole.¹⁹ Projects allow learners to apply *multiple intelligences*. Depending on the intelligence modality that is most developed, students participate in group work and make use of their abilities. For example, some students are better at expressing themselves verbally and their linguistic-verbal intelligence will make them good at speaking and holding lectures and presentations. Others will gather materials, organize data, conduct researches which demand mathematical skills for data processing and statistical analyses. Some students will be good at coordinating group members and distributing specific tasks to perform or making presentations and visual aids, taking part in role plays and simulations. On the whole, possibilities are numerous and the final outcome mostly depends on students' motivation to use their abilities and intelligences in the best way possible. They are aware of the purpose and relevance since they are learning something they will need in the future.

Students' *autonomy* is at the core of a successful EMP course. Students need to take responsibility for their own language development, which would in turn prove useful when they have to use English in their professional lives. Taking responsibility for learning is the first step towards autonomy. A 'good language learner'²⁰ is one that finds his/her way, asks a lot of questions, makes guesses, organizes information, takes every chance to use the language. Students' autonomy presents a necessity in society which puts great emphasis on lifelong learning. Since teachers cannot provide the students with all the skills and knowledge they would like to have, the best way to help students is by providing them with strategies on how to learn by themselves. The first step towards autonomy is encouraging the students to take responsibility for their own learning. The concept of student autonomy and successful learning are closely connected.

In a modern society, which is ever-changing, education is perceived as a continuing process. The goal of education is the facilitation of learning. 'The only man who is educated is the man who has learned how to learn; the man who has learned how to adapt and change; the man who has realized that no knowledge is secure, that only the process of seeking knowledge gives a basis for security'.²¹

It can be expected that language teaching responds to the demands of the new world and hence shifts the authority away from the teacher and hands it to the learner.²² Teachers cannot learn for students and in order to increase learner independence and responsibility for learning, the traditional roles need to change.

¹⁵ Mukaddes Erdem. 'Proje Tabanlı Öğrenme'. *Hacettepe Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi* 22. (2002):172-179.

¹⁶ Judy Harris and Lillian G. Katz. *Young Investigators: The Project Approach in the Early Years*. New York: Teachers College Press, 2001.

¹⁷ Diana L. Fried-Booth. *Project work*. (8th Ed.). Oxford: OUP, 1997.

¹⁸ Sondra Gayle Stein. *Equipped for the future: A Customer-Driven Vision for Adult Literacy and Lifelong Learning*. Washington DC: National Institute for Literacy, 1995.

¹⁹ A. Lawrence. 'Expanding capacity in ESOL programs (EXCAP): Using Projects to Enhance Instruction'. *The Journal of the Literacy Assistance Center* 6,1. (1997):1-9.

²⁰ Joan Rubin and Irene Thompson. *How To Be a More Successful Language Learner*. Boston: Heinle&Heinle, 1982.

²¹ Carl R. Rogers. *Freedom to Learn for the 80's*. Columbus, OH: Charles E. Merrill, 1969.

²² Donard Britten. 'Three stages in teacher training'. *ELT Journal* 42, 1 (1988): 3-8.

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6. CONCLUSION

In learner-centered approaches, course design and teaching often become negotiated, dynamic processes, since needs, expectations and student resources vary within each group and within a single course sequence. It suggests that teachers must take into account student learning styles, strategies and language processing approaches. Students benefit from expanding their learning strategies, so ESP teachers should assist students in becoming more flexible and more aware of their own learning styles and approaches.

Students, and their needs, are placed at the centre of the course design. An ESP course is directly concerned with the purposes for which learners need English. It is 'tailor-made' – based on a rigorous analysis of students' needs which represent a source of essential information and they take an active part in designing the syllabus.

In our case, most students are at the intermediate level and they are motivated by the desire to learn English for professional and academic purposes. The students at the Faculty of Medicine, University of Nis have specific demands concerning the English language. They want to communicate in English with certain groups of people about fairly specific topics. They have a desire to publish medical articles in respected journals; they want to participate in international conferences. But first of all, when they graduate, they want to be able to speak medical English language.²³ For this reason, it is important to make use of what they bring to the class and nourish their interests and motivations. Students' interests are maintained because they can readily appreciate the relationship which is established between the English class and what goes on at the workplace. In this way the authentic world is brought to the students and they learn to interact with the language as it is spoken and written in the target situation.

If the teaching process is in accordance with the students' needs, the final product, communication in English, will be successful. The data show us that the students of other university centers in Serbia generally have the same needs with respect to learning English.²⁴ This fact should not be neglected as it points out that there exists a possibility for developing uniformity and homogeneity of language proficiency levels throughout the country. This process needs to begin in high schools, particularly vocational high schools, so as to enable students to continue developing their specialized knowledge of the field when they enter universities.

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²³ Antic, Towards Uniformity in English for Medical Purposes: Evaluation and Design', 454-457

²⁴ ibid.

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How to Improve Writing among Students of Computer Science: A Case Study

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Abstract: Despite the widely held belief that writing is a key communication skill one needs to master to be able to prosper well both in the academic and the workplace environment, career-oriented university courses in the Republic of Macedonia largely fail to develop this skill in their students. The Faculty of Computer Science and Engineering (FINKI) in Skopje is one of the rare ones which incorporate a course in the curriculum that predominantly focuses on developing students' writing skills. The course is, however, relatively new and research is needed to investigate its effectiveness and make necessary improvements. This is where the present study plays a role. The purpose of this paper is to examine the effectiveness of the course and to suggest areas that need improvement. Two research tools are used. In order to identify weaknesses in student performance and areas that need special attention during course instruction, an error analysis has been carried out on a sample of student final exam papers. In addition, a questionnaire has been constructed and distributed among a group of students. The questionnaire serves to obtain students' opinions on writing in general, as well as their perceptions of their learning styles, writing abilities and the course as a whole.

Key words: ESP writing, writing for computer science students, error analysis, student perceptions

1. INTRODUCTION

The importance of writing as a key communication skill has widely been recognised. Mastering the skill of writing is viewed as central if one is to prosper well in the academic and the workplace environment. Furthermore, writing ability is not only seen as a key to success in higher education and the business world, but also as a predictor of success in course work and an indicator of the value added by higher education and businesses in a knowledge-based economy (Kellogg & Raulerson 2007:237).

Whereas colleges and universities in the western countries, particularly in the USA and Europe, require all students to attend some kind of freshman composition class that would help them improve their communication skills (Conte 2010:2), this is not the case in our country. Career-oriented university courses in the Republic of Macedonia largely fail to develop these skills in their students. Writing is not included as a course in the study programs of the various university departments. Whereas it is true that some courses do include a writing component (i.e. students are required to submit a written paper on a pre-agreed topic), writing instruction is not provided on a systematic basis. As a result, students leave the university lacking in ability and confidence to express themselves clearly and coherently in writing. This is even truer for their ability to write in a second language.

The Faculty of Computer Science and Engineering (FINKI) at the Ss Cyril and Methodius University in Skopje is one of the rare ones which have recognised the significance of writing for students' academic and professional development. It has consequently incorporated a course in the curriculum that predominantly focuses on developing students' writing skills. Recognising the dominance of English as a global language and the necessity for any future computer graduate to use it correctly for both written and oral communication, it has introduced the writing course with English as the language of instruction. Having been introduced in the academic year 2011/2012, the Professional Skills course is, however, relatively new. Therefore, research is needed to investigate its effectiveness and make necessary improvements. This is where the present study plays a role.

The purpose of this paper is to examine the effectiveness of the Professional Skills course and to suggest areas that need improvement. The paper gives a short overview of the Professional Skills course taught at FINKI. It, then, presents the methodology and the results of the research. Finally, conclusions are drawn that have implications for the teaching of writing in the future.

2. PROFESSIONAL SKILLS COURSE OVERVIEW

The Professional Skills (PS) course is mandatory for first year students of a three and four-year Bachelor's degree in Computer Science and Engineering. The whole Bachelor's degree has 180 or 240 European Credit Transfer System (ECTS) credits and the PS course has 6 ECTS credits. It is a course that runs for 15 weeks in autumn term with one 3-hour class per week, of which half is a lecture and half a tutorial. The language of instruction is English.

The main purpose of the course is to train students to write effective and precise compositions; to develop their text comprehension skills; to encourage a discussion on different writing techniques; and to provide students with opportunities to work on assignments that would help them develop and acquire certain writing techniques (Professional Skills Course Description 2013). A small portion of the course focuses on oral communication and business skills. The course components are roughly divided as follows: 80% writing skills, 20% oral and business communication skills.

The topics covered in the writing component include: steps in the writing process, prewriting, first draft, revising, editing, point and support in a paragraph and in an essay, different patterns of essay development (description, narration, exemplification, process, cause and effect, comparison or contrast, definition, division or classification, argument), writing a report, proposal, formal letter, CV, e-mail, fax, memo, minutes of meetings, press release, as well as how to design and report a survey. The oral and business communication component includes: meetings, presentations, telephoning, business across cultures, time and time management, stress and stress management.

3. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

In view of the importance of oral and written communication in the world of work, any course that aims to develop such skills in computer science students must do so effectively. The same is true of the Professional Skills course. However, since this course has relatively recently been introduced in

the curriculum, it is necessary to examine its effectiveness and make improvements. Therefore, the overall question that this study aims to address is:

1. How much is the Professional Skills course effective in developing students' writing skills and how can it be improved?

To be able to tackle the issue in practical terms, the question has been reduced to several more specific research questions:

2. What are students' perceptions of writing?
3. What are students' favourite learning styles?
4. How do students view their writing ability?
5. How do students view the Professional Skills course?
6. What are the most common errors that computer science students make in writing?

4. METHODOLOGY

Subjects

The subjects taking part in this study are computer science students who have attended the Professional Skills course in the academic year 2011/2012. At the time the study is conducted the students are in their second year of study, which means that a year has passed since they had classes in Professional Skills. The amount of time that has passed between the time they had the classes and the time they participate in this study may be considered a limitation of the study and may affect the research results.

When it comes to their knowledge of English, their knowledge upon completing high school is considered to be the baseline. Based on their high school curriculum for English, it is roughly assessed that they are at intermediate to upper-intermediate level, or B1 to B2 according to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages.

Instruments and Data Analysis

Two research tools are used to help answer the research questions: a questionnaire and an error analysis.

Questionnaire

It is widely believed that it is very difficult to impart written communication skills to computer science students. Cunningham & Holmes (1995) suggest that this may partly be so because of students' attitudes toward writing. They are thought to lack in confidence about their writing skills and avoid writing whenever possible. If this is true, then efforts should be devoted to identifying students' views.

A number of researchers have emphasised the need for teachers to adjust their instruction and materials to the students' needs (Leki & Carson 1994:82, Flowerdew & Peacock 2001 cited in Rogers 2010:7, Kaczmarczyk 2003:341, Ismail 2011:74). Horwitz (1987 cited in Leki & Carson 1994:82) goes on to say that what students believe about what they are learning and about what they need to

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learn strongly influences their receptiveness to learning. Thus, what students learn is greatly determined by what they want to learn. This is valid for any subject, including writing.

The need to identify students' perceptions is further stressed when a writing course is relatively new. In view of the fact that successful teaching strategies depend upon understanding student perceptions, it is imperative to respond appropriately to students' demands and expectations when structuring and executing a new program.

Considering all the above, a questionnaire has been constructed and distributed among a group of students. The questionnaire serves to obtain students' opinions on writing in general, as well as their perceptions of their own learning styles and writing abilities and the Professional Skills course as a whole. The questionnaire has been designed based on Isamil's model (2011:82-83). In fact, the majority of the questions have been taken from the model with some minor modifications, and only a few new questions have been added. Thus, there are a total of twenty two questions constructed in line with the research questions. The questions are in the form of statements and the students are asked to say how far they agree with each statement on a 1 to 5 scale, where 1 means "strongly disagree" and 5 means "strongly agree". The Likert scale is used because it ensures the answers are never neutral but favourable or unfavourable to a certain degree (Forsyth, Jolliffe & Stevens 1999:8). A total of 43 students have responded. The data have been analysed using SPSS in order to obtain different types of descriptive statistics, including the mean (the arithmetic mean of the sample) and the median (the numerical value separating the higher half of the sample from the lower half).

Error Analysis

It is generally acknowledged that in the course of learning a second language, students produce erroneous utterances in speech and writing in view of the rules of the second language. It is also commonly accepted that errors are an indication that the student has not yet mastered the rules. These assumptions further lead to the notion that errors are a sign of the difficulties students face with certain aspects of the language and that these could be dealt with by repeating the explanations of the rules (Corder 1975:201). This is the attitude adopted in the present study.

It is clear that based on experience every teacher is able to predict the errors that will arise in students' performance, however, this will only be a rough estimation of the errors' frequency. As a result, the teacher may focus on errors which are not widespread at the expense of those which are more prevalent. Therefore, a systematic error analysis is needed to make a more accurate assessment of errors and to take any remedial action that may be necessary (Wyatt 1973:177, Yang 2010:268, Wang 2010:201). This is also the view taken in the study presented here.

Finally, following Corder (1975:205), for educational purposes the basic learning difficulties of students should be identified by means of a qualitative linguistic classification of errors, a quantitative statement of the frequency of each type of error, an evaluation of the gravity of each type of error from a communicative or pedagogical point of view, in order to set priorities to the treatment of each issue, as well as an explanation of the cause of each type of error in order to take suitable remedial steps.

Based on the above assumptions, in order to identify weaknesses in student performance and areas that need special attention during course instruction, an error analysis has been carried out on a sample of student final exam papers. 50 essays of approximately 500 words each and 50 letters of application of 250-300 words each have been analysed. Errors have been identified and classified in categories. Then, a quantitative analysis has been performed to determine the relative frequency of each type of error, where Wyatt's position has been adopted: it is not the number of times a particular error has occurred that is relevant, but the percentage it represents of all errors (1973:177). Finally, an

evaluation of the gravity of each type of error from a communicative point of view has been made because the number of errors is not as important as the assessment of how much they distort communication (Llach 2007:5).

Regarding the classification of errors, the present study acknowledges that there is no ideal classification. The major problems of classification arise from “assigning errors to categories due to a lack of precise criteria for classification, overlapping of categories, and the possibility of multiple explanations” (Richards 1980:94). The same issues have arisen during the present study. Nevertheless, the classification proposed here is deemed useful and generally serves the purpose of the present study.

5. RESULTS

Questionnaire

To answer the first specific research question regarding students’ perceptions of writing, students have been asked two groups of questions: one regarding their views on the importance of writing and another on their own attitudes towards writing in general. Their answers on both sets of questions indicate a very positive attitude (Tables 1 and 2).

When it comes to the importance of writing for their studies and career, the overall mean scores on a scale of 1 to 5, where 1 means “strongly disagree” and 5 means “strongly agree”, are 4.05 and 4.28, whereas the median scores are 4 and 5, respectively. At the same time, their answer to the statement that writing is not important has a mean score of 1.88 with a median of 1, whereas the answer to the statement that they write only in PS classes has a mean score of 2.35 with a median of 2. This result confirms that overall students have very high perceptions of the importance of writing both for their academic study and for their professional career. The results also reveal that the PS course is not the only place where they are required to write.

TABLE 1:
 Students’ perceptions of the importance of writing

	Importance for university	Importance for career	Not important	Write only in PS course
N Valid	43	43	43	43
Missing	0	0	0	0
Mean	4,05	4,28	1,88	2,35
Median	4,00	5,00	1,00	2,00
Std. Deviation	1,253	1,098	1,159	1,343

As regards their attitude to the act of writing, two questions have been posed. The results show a favourable attitude here as well. With mean scores of 3.81 (median 4) on enjoyment and 2.44 (median 2) on dislike for writing, students seem to like writing and find it enjoyable.

TABLE 2:
 Students' attitude to writing

		Enjoy writing	Don't want writing
N	Valid	43	43
	Missing	0	0
Mean		3,81	2,44
Median		4,00	2,00
Std. Deviation		1,139	1,419

Regarding the second specific research question, there have been six variables which test students' views on their learning styles. The results are revealing and illustrate that students have a strong preference for some approaches (Table 3).

TABLE 3:
 Students' learning styles

		Better with regular practice	Always need help	Want feedback	Group work	Want model	Want explanation of rules
N	Valid	43	43	43	43	43	43
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mean		4,09	2,60	3,98	2,58	3,44	3,56
Median		4,00	2,00	4,00	3,00	4,00	4,00
Std. Deviation		1,087	1,256	1,035	1,159	1,181	1,259

For example, the mean scores of 3.56 (median 4) and 3.44 (median 4) for provision of an explanation of the rules and a writing model, respectively, indicate that students would like to have beforehand an explicit presentation and clarification of the basic rules for writing as well as a model text that they could follow. They also display a clear preference for regular practice and feedback. The mean scores are 4.09 (median 4) and 3.98 (median 4), in turn. When it comes to group work, they seem to have a less favourable attitude (mean 2.58 with a median of 3), whereas with regard to help they are more categorical (mean 2.60 with a median of 2) – they do not appear to need assistance every time they need to write.

As regards the third specific research question, four variables have been used to obtain information on students' perceptions of their own writing abilities. As can be seen in Table 4, the results are pretty straight-forward. Students strongly disagree with the statement that writing is difficult (mean score 1.49, median 1). They also have considerable confidence in their command of English – the mean score on the statement that their English is not good is 1.63, median 1. Finally, the results demonstrate that students firmly believe that they know how to write and are good writers in both their mother tongue and English. The mean scores for the two variables are 1.47 (median 1) and 3.74 (median 4), respectively.

TABLE 4:
 Students' view on their writing ability

		Don't know how to write	Difficult	English not good	Good writer in both languages
N	Valid	43	43	43	43
	Missing	0	0	0	0
Mean		1,47	1,49	1,63	3,74
Median		1,00	1,00	1,00	4,00
Std. Deviation		,797	,960	1,070	1,136

The last set of six questions have aimed at identifying students' view on the Professional Skills course. The results show that students make rather indeterminate judgments on almost all variables (Table 5). Regarding the usefulness of materials and class activities, their mean scores are 2.98 (median 3) and 3.09 (median 3), respectively. When asked if there should be more grammar and vocabulary in the writing classes, they also express a neutral opinion (mean 3.42, median 3). The results are similar with regard to how much they enjoyed the PS course and how much it helped them improve (means/medians: 2.95/3 and 3.19/3, respectively). Perhaps the most encouraging result is obtained on the variable on the usefulness of PS for students' study and work. They seem to have a generally positive opinion on the PS course (mean score of 3.58 with a median of 4).

TABLE 5:
 Students' perceptions of the Professional Skills course

		PS useful for study and work	PS helped me improve	Materials helpful	Enjoyed PS	More grammar and vocabulary	Activities helpful
N	Valid	43	43	43	43	43	43
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mean		3,58	3,19	2,98	2,95	3,42	3,09
Median		4,00	3,00	3,00	3,00	3,00	3,00
Std. Deviation		1,220	1,239	1,282	1,396	1,180	1,306

Error Analysis

The analysis of errors in students' writing has produced significant results too. In the corpus of 100 texts (50 essays and 50 letters) and approximately 37500 words, a total of 1396 errors have been identified (13.9 errors per text) and classified in 25 categories. As is illustrated in Fig. 1, the analysis of the frequency of each type of error shows that the two error types with the highest frequency are register (16.4%) and punctuation errors (14.5%). Errors in the use of articles (9.7%), prepositions (8%), layout (7.4%) and spelling (7.4%) have a significant share too. Errors in sentence structure (6.8%), vocabulary (5.6%), verb forms (5.3%) and errors resulting in clumsy or meaningless sentences or phrases (4.3%) are also worth mentioning. The remaining errors, whose frequency is less than 2.5% each, are classified in the following categories: organisation, content, pronouns, phrase structure, cohesion, text structure, questions, nouns, plagiarism, adjectives, acronyms, intensifiers, carelessness, circumlocution and short answer.

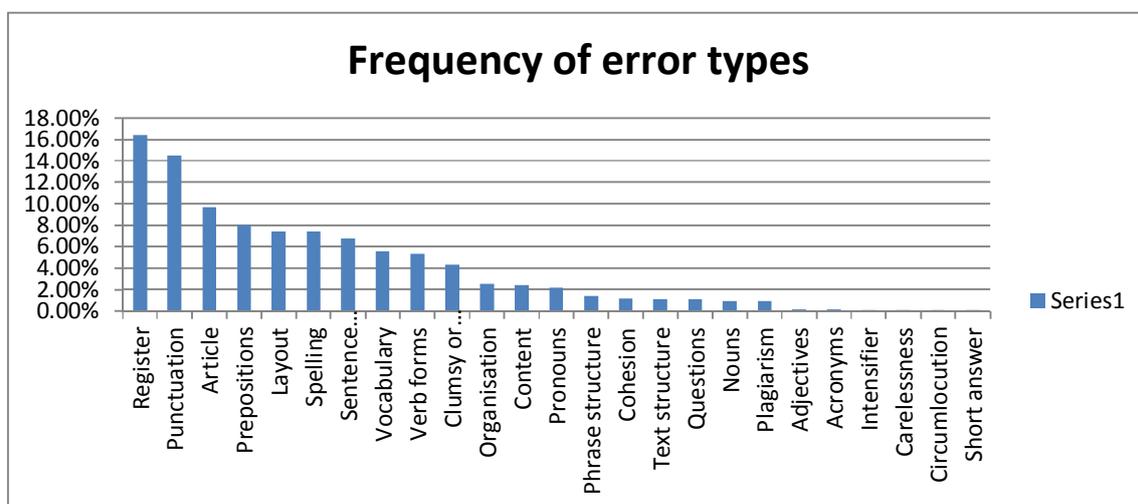


Fig. 1: Frequency of error types

Below follows a presentation of the most common errors in the categories with the highest number of errors, illustrated by examples taken from the corpus.

In the register category, the most common error is the use of contractions and short forms in formal style. 71.1% of register errors fall in this subcategory. For instance, *we're*, *we've*, *shouldn't*(E1)¹, *I'm*(L7), *pros and cons*(E32), *cause*(E1).

In the category of punctuation, errors include errors in capitalisation (underuse or overuse of capital letter), the use of punctuation marks (comma, period, question mark, hyphen, brackets) and the use of space (where it is not used when necessary or is used excessively). The latter are most frequent errors with 52.9% of all errors in this category. The most striking finding is the failure on the part of students to use space after comma, period or between words (a total of 32.1% of all errors in this category). For example, *Currently, I; Engineering(Macedonia),in; faculty, but* (L24), the most important ones (E17).

When it comes to the use of articles, the error which is made most often is the omission of the definite and indefinite article (57.8% of all errors in this category). The second most frequent error in this category is the use of the article where it is not necessary (34.9%). Here are some examples: *with highest marks* (L35) - Ø instead of *the* before a superlative form; *activity of people* (E13) - Ø instead of *the* before a noun modified by an *of-phrase*; *is very nice and prestigious place* (L12) - Ø instead of *a* before a class noun defined by adjectives; *to have mobile phone was luxury* (E42) - Ø instead of *a* before a singular noun indicating indefinite reference; *one segment of the advanced technology* (E16) - *the* instead of Ø before an abstract noun; *a magical buttons* (E31) - *a* instead of Ø before a plural noun qualified by an adjective.

In the prepositions category, 62.2% of the errors have to do with using the wrong preposition and 21.6% with using a redundant preposition. For example, *study on the Faculty of Computer Science and Engineering* (E40) - *on* instead of *at*; *in the same time* (E9) - *in* instead of *at*; *addicted of technology* (E48) - *of* instead of *to*; *knowledge of the Internet and some from programming languages* (L38) - *from* instead of *of*; *outside of Macedonia* (E33), *regarding with this job* (L23), *facing with vast technological changes* (E5) - redundant prepositions.

¹The codes after each example indicate the text from which the example is taken, where the letter E stands for the text type "essay", the letter L for text type "letter" and the number is the identification number of the text in the corpus.

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Regarding layout errors, 98% of the errors are made in letter writing. Essay layout seems to be pretty straight-forward for students. Of all letter layout errors, 43.2% are related to the wrong positioning of the sender's name and address, and the date, whereas 38.5% of the errors are due to failure on the part of the students to include an important element of a letter format. For instance, the sender's name is placed in the top right corner above the sender's address instead of after the salutation and signature (L19, L27), the sender's address is placed in the top left corner above the recipient's address instead of in the top right corner (L6, L27), the date is placed in the top left corner above the recipient's address instead of in the top right corner under the sender's address (L18, L19), the sender's address is missing (L4, L15, L16), the recipient's address is missing (L9, L28), the date is missing (L15, L16, L39, L41), the opening is missing (L17, L24), the enclosure is missing (L11, L42).

Spelling errors include errors in the spelling of consonants and vowels, as well as the spelling of single instead of double consonants and the spelling of (proper or near) homophones. Most of the spelling errors are errors in consonants (53.5% of all errors in this category), whereas vowel errors have a share of 29.8%. Some examples follow: *gaget vs. gadget* (E44); *tehnologies vs. technologies* (L24); *en's vs. men's* (E7) - missing consonant; *colege vs. college* (E50); *progres vs. progress* (L9); *comunicative vs. communicative* (L33); *disapeared vs. disappeared* (E17) - single instead of double consonant; *advertisment vs. advertisement* (L24); *abot vs. about* (L4); *or vs. our* (E7) - missing vowel; *paedophiles vs. pedophiles* (E50); *planete vs. planet* (E48) - redundant vowel; *now vs. know* (E13); *than vs. then* (L47); *where vs. were* (L12); *there vs. their* (E33); *men vs. man* (E48) - homophones (proper or near).

When it comes to errors in sentence structure, the most common types of errors are omission of essential elements (25.3% of all errors in this category), inconsistency in number or verb forms in a sentence or over a stretch of text (24.2%) and subject-verb agreement (21.1%). For example, *Family the most important thing in your live* (E13) - omission of the verb; *So is up to us to accept the changes* (E13) - omission of the subject; *Today's economy are mainly dependent on* (E7), *Previously I have met with programming languages that at the beginning was difficult to learn* (L23) - subject-verb agreement; *Emotions are supposed to be kept in private, but now, people tend to share it in public* (E37) - inconsistency in number; *we worked in teams of four, developing new websites and updated old websites* (L15) - inconsistency in verb forms.

6. DISCUSSION

To return now to the aims of this study: the main intention of this paper has been to examine the effectiveness of the PS course and to identify areas that need improvement. The general question posed by the study has been how much the PS course is effective in developing students' writing skills and how it can be improved. The more specific research questions have tested students' perceptions of writing in general, their learning styles, their views on their writing abilities, their views on the PS course as well as the most frequent errors students commit in writing. The results seem to be pretty revealing.

It has been shown that students have very positive perceptions of writing both in terms of its importance for their study and work and in terms of their attitude to the act of writing. The study has also identified students' favourite learning styles. The results indicate that students approach the task of writing independently and do not need external assistance very often. They prefer to have regular practice and feedback as well as an explicit explanation of writing rules and a writing model. The results show reluctance on the part of students to engage in group work. This seems contradictory to

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the findings of other researchers who claim that group or peer work is beneficial to learning and students find it enjoyable and useful (Ismail 2011, Storch 2005 reported in *ibid.*). However, this result may be due to PS students' lack of exposure to group activities and the lack of opportunity to experience the benefits of such practice. Regarding student's view on their writing skills, the analysis shows that students have a high regard for their abilities. This, though, seems not to be in line with their final exam results. The average number of points won on both tasks is 35.6 (out of 60) on the essay and 23.5 (out of 30) on the letter. This result is very similar to Ismail's (*ibid.*) findings about students' misconceptions about their writing ability. In his study, too, students' satisfaction with their writing skills was disproportionate to their demonstrated skills. Finally, regarding students' perceptions of the PS course, the finding that they perceive it as useful is very positive and encouraging. Nevertheless, they are more uncertain when it comes to course delivery aspects. Thus, it seems improvements are necessary in the teaching methods used, including class activities and materials. Perhaps students' suggestions for more in-class and home practice and regular feedback could be implemented. To implement the latter, however, consideration should be taken of the large student numbers (around 100/group) and the enormous workload it would place on the teacher.

The results of the error analysis are revealing too. But, one needs to be careful when interpreting them because, as was previously said, it is not only the number of errors that is important but also the assessment of how much they distort communication. The errors which occur in the highest numbers in this corpus do not seem to present as significant an obstacle to communication as some of those which occur in smaller numbers. More specifically, errors in register, punctuation, articles, prepositions, layout or spelling may be distracting but do not prevent communication. On the other hand, errors in sentence structure, vocabulary, verb forms, content and errors resulting in meaningless phrases or sentences may cause a real breakdown in communication. In addition, macrostructure errors, such as organisation, cohesion and text structure, are also important and may contribute a great deal to the impression of how one communicates their ideas. Lastly, plagiarism is a grave error and, although may not be relevant from a communicative point of view, communicates a lot about the ethical and professional character of the writer. The analysis demonstrates that plagiarism is very prevalent in our group of subjects: evidence of plagiarism (mainly from internet sources) has been found in 13% of the texts in our corpus. This may be attributed to the fact that the exam was a take-home exam so students had access to information they would not normally have in class exam conditions as well as to the fact that this was the first group to sit the exam for this course so they were not fully aware (although warned) how severely plagiarism would be punished (0 points and a prohibition to sit the exam the following session).

7. CONCLUSION

In view of the above results and discussion, the answer to the general question posed by this study is positive. Considering the average number of errors per text and the indeterminate students' judgments on the PS course, the PS course may be said to be moderately effective in developing students' writing skills. In addition, bearing in mind students' views on delivery methods and the range of errors they commit, there is sufficient room for improvement. The more so because, irrespective of the type of error and the level of difficulty of comprehension, native English speakers find all errors equally irritating (Albrechtsen et al 1979 cited in Richards 1980:98). Therefore, every effort should be put to minimise student errors to the extent possible. Since the errors students make fall in a wide

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range of categories, a combination of approaches to teaching writing should be utilised. To cater for errors in the macrostructure so that students produce texts with relevant and comprehensive content, good text structure, clear organisation of ideas and good cohesion, the process-oriented method should be followed. To tackle issues such as layout and, possibly, register, the genre-oriented approach should be taken. To put emphasis on the final product, the product-oriented approach should be adopted where students are given authentic models to analyse and compare. All these approaches should be further combined with techniques like peer review and feedback to make students aware of and help them eliminate errors in grammar, vocabulary, spelling and punctuation. Finally, to tackle the issue of plagiarism tasks like paraphrasing and summary writing could be incorporated in class activities. Whatever approach or combination of approaches is chosen, what should always be born in mind is that the methods and materials should be developed in line with students' needs and should be regularly amended and updated accordingly. These recommendations are valid for the PS course but may also have application far beyond it.

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The Correlation of General English and English for Specific Purposes at IT Departments in Serbia

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Abstract: The authors suggest the optimal correlation between General English and English for Specific Purposes at IT departments in tertiary education in Serbia in order to find the best possible way to address the students' needs. The quantitative and qualitative research was taken. The aims of the research were to determine the current position of English as a subject at IT departments in Serbia, the correlation of General English and English for Specific Purposes and to learn about the opinions of professors, assistants and students on these topics.

Key words: General English, English for Specific Purposes, IT departments, tertiary education;

1. INTRODUCTION

English in the age of globalization has a direct impact on the exchange of ideas and data circulation in international relations and has an indirect impact on the language of communication within social and ethnic groups. Trying to make certain information available to the world community, the national communities are losing the communication space in their own language making English the dominant world language (Škiljan, 2002). This is particularly true for the area of Science and Technology, especially in tertiary education. The foregoing is especially true for students of Information Technology whose literature is in great extent in English. A colleague from IT¹ department has recently said: "If one does not know English, they do not know Informatics". Are the students at the IT departments in Serbia well-equipped with English competence both in General English and English for Specific Purposes to deal with the tasks they have to face with when they graduate? Or to be more precise, is the correlation between General English and English for Specific Purposes existing at IT departments in Serbia well-balanced to answer the needs of our future IT graduates?

¹The authors will use the term IT to cover all the areas related to IT.

2. GENERAL ENGLISH VS. ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES

General English² would be understood by almost any speaker of English, the only obstacle can be the level of speaker's competence. GE is taught in Kindergartens, in Primary Schools and mostly in Secondary Schools, where one could find some lessons with the elements of English for Specific Purposes³. We can use this plain example to show the difference: if we refer to "the muscular wall between the left and right ventricles of the heart," we all know what that means. Medical professionals can use the shorter phrase "cardiac septum" but only other medical professionals will understand what it means.

Hutchinson and Waters (1987:53) see the key issue that distinguishes GE from ESP the awareness of the need rather than the existence of the need. To be more precise, it is the awareness of the target situation analysis -a definable need to communicate in English- which distinguishes the ESP learner from the learner of GE. The fact that GE and ESP diverge in the aim of instruction is the most important factor that determines the difference between GE and ESP, not only in the methodology applied, but also in the final result. While GE courses tend to stress all four language skills equally: writing, speaking, reading and listening, in ESP courses it is the needs analysis that determines which language skills are primarily needed by students, so that the syllabus can be designed accordingly. For instance, an ESP course might emphasize reading skills in students of modern literature or speaking skills in students of tourism who will become tourist guides (Jerković 2011).

3. THE AIMS OF THE RESEARCH

There are three aims of this research:

- a. To find the optimal correlation of GE and ESP at IT departments in Serbia.
- b. To state the opinions and attitudes of professor, assistants and students concerning the GE and ESP correlation at IT departments in Serbia.
- c. To detect the relevant factors distinguishing the opinions of professors, assistants and students.

4. THE METHODOLOGY

The research was conducted from November 2011 to April 2012 at the IT departments at the following institutions of tertiary education in Serbia: Faculty of Organizational Sciences and Faculty of Electrical Engineering in Belgrade, Faculty of Technical Science, Faculty of Science and Higher Technical School of Professional Studies in Novi Sad, Technical Faculty "Mihajlo Pupin" in Zrenjanin, Faculty of Technical Science in Čačak and Higher Technological School of Professional Studies in Šabac. The instruments used were a survey for students of the second and third year of IT departments, a survey for the professors and assistants teaching IT subjects at the IT departments and the structured interview for both students and teachers. The results obtained from the surveys were analyzed with SPSS software. The interviews were recorded and later transcribed. To analyse the

²Further in the text GE.

³Further in the text ESP.

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findings and opinions gathered from interviews the interpretive analysis typical for qualitative research method was used. The authors were interested in seeing whether there are any marked differences between the opinion of professors, assistants and students, likewise whether there are any differences between the opinion of the students of the second and third year of study. There are two reasons for choosing the students to be from the second and third year: (a) students are more occupied with some general subjects during the first and second year; at the third year they are more focused to their particular field of study; (b) at Higher Schools of Professional Studies and at the Faculty of Technical Science in Čačak the last year of studying is the third year.

In the following text the sample is given in more details:

4.1. The professors and assistants

TABLE 1 These sex

sex	No	%
male	57	75.0
female	19	25.0
total	76	100.0

Table 1 shows the sex of the professors and assistants who took part in the research. The number of male professors and assistants is 57, which makes 75% of the subsample, while the number of female professors and assistants is 19, which makes 25% of the subsample.

TABLE 2 Number of professors and assistants that took part in the research

	No	%
professors	38	50.0
assistants	38	50.0
total	76	100.0

Table 2 shows that the number of professors and assistants that took part in the research is equal – 38.

TABLE 3 The distribution of professors and assistants according to the place of work

The Educational Institution	Place					Total
	Belgrade	Čačak	Novi Sad	Šabac	Zrenjanin	
Faculty of Electrical Engineering	18					18
Faculty of Organizational Sciences	11					11
Faculty of Technical Science		6				6
Technical Faculty "Mihajlo Pupin"					11	11
Higher School of Professional Studies			8	6		14
Faculty of Technical Science NS			8			8
Faculty of Science			8			8
Total	29	6	24	6	11	76

Table 3 shows the distribution of professors and assistants according to their place of work. We can notice that there is a significant difference between the number of professors and assistants who work in Belgrade and Novi Sad and the number of professors and assistants who work in other cities. To be precise there are 29 of them from Belgrade and 24 from Novi Sad.

5.2. Students

TABLE 4 The sex

sex	No	%
male	510	78.5
female	138	21.2
missing	2	.3
total	650	100.0

Table 4 shows that male students are predominately present at IT departments in Serbia. There are 510 of them, what makes 78.5 % of the subsample, and there are 138 female students, what makes 21.2% of the subsample.

TABLE 5 The distribution of students according to the place and institution of studying

The Educational Institution	Place					Total
	Belgrade	Čačak	Novi Sad	Šabac	Zrenjanin	
Faculty of Electrical Engineering	150					150
Faculty of Technical Science		52				52
Technical Faculty "Mihajlo Pupin"					76	76
Higher School of Professional Studies			74	127		201
Faculty of Technical Science NS			105			105
Faculty of Science			64			64
Total	150	52	243	127	76	648

As we can see in Table 5, the majority of the students come from Novi Sad, 271 of them, and Belgrade, 150 of them.

5.1 THE ANALYSIS OF THE SURVEYS AND THE INTERVIEWS

5.1. The surveys

The authors will analyze only two questions from the surveys⁴ which are relevant for GE and ESP correlation that we discuss in this paper. The first question is from the survey for professors and assistants.

The students of IT department should have in their curriculum:

Faculty	Higher School of Professional Studies
a) only General English	a) only General English
b) only English for Specific Purposes	b) only English for Specific Purposes
c) both GE and ESP	c) both GE and ESP

⁴The surveys were used to question more issues concerning ESP in IT field. The correlation of GE and ESP is just a small part of that research. That is the reason why only two questions are presented in the paper.

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The aim of the question is to learn about the professors' and assistants' attitudes and to see whether there are any differences between the opinion of the informants at Faculties and at Higher Schools of Professional Studies. At Faculties 92.1 % informants think there should be both GE and ESP, 6.3 % think that there should be only ESP while only 1.6 % think there should be only GE. At Higher Schools of Professional Studies 64.3% think there should be both GE and ESP, 28.6 % think that there should be only ESP while only 7.1 % think there should be only GE. The chi-squared test was used to check whether there are any differences concerning the opinions of the informants teaching at faculties and the ones teaching at HSPSSs. The results were statistically significant concerning the presence of only ESP at HSPSSs: 28.6% of the informants teaching at HSPSSs support this idea, while only 4.8% of their colleagues teaching at faculties share that opinion ($p < 0.005$). The second significant statistical detail points out one more marked difference between the attitudes of the informants at faculties and HSPSSs about the presence of both GE and ESP at faculties: 92.1% of the informants teaching at faculties support both GE and ESP, while only 50% of their colleagues at HSPSSs support this idea ($p < 0.000$).

The authors also wanted to question whether the following variables (sex, age, the years of studying English, professor/assistant) influence the informants' answers. The differences between the subsamples were again tested by the means of chi-squared test. The values that we obtained for each criterion are not statistically significant what indicates that none of the mentioned variables influenced the informants' answers (at faculties- sex: $p < 0.699$; age: $p < 0.700$; the years of studying English: $p < 0.913$; professor or assistant: $p < 0.334$; /at HSPSSs- sex $p < 0.792$; age: $p < 0.316$; the years of studying English: $p < 0.756$; professor or assistant: $p < 0.546$).

The second analyzed question is a question in students' survey that questions how important is for students to master English in order to be able to broaden their knowledge of professional subjects.

I find it important to master English in order to be able to broaden my knowledge of professional subjects.

a) *I agree*

b) *I partly agree*

c) *I don't agree*

The majority of the students, 78.7% of them, agree with this statement, 20.2% of students partly agree and only 1.1% of students do not agree with this statement. The authors wanted to check whether any of the listed variables (sex, age, work or not during studies, the town of educational institution, at II or III year) influenced the informants' answers. The values that we obtained for each criterion are not statistically significant what indicates that none of the mentioned variables influenced the informants' answers (sex: $p < 0.178$; age: $p < 0.954$; work or not during studies; $p < 0.886$; town: $p < 0.384$).

5.2. The interviews

The interview sample includes 32 informants, 4 from every Educational institution (1 professor, 1 assistant, 1 student of II year and 1 student of III year). In this paper the authors have decided to include only the parts of the interviews dealing with GE and ESP correlation and attitude towards English as a subject at their institutions. Out of 32 informants the authors chose 4 professors, 4 assistants and 4 students. In the interviews Q stands for the questioner while professors, assistants and students are marked respectively P1, P2, P3, P4, A1, A2, A3, A4, S1, S2, S3 and S4 (the institution of every participant in the interview is given below).

P1 - Professor 1 (Faculty of Technical Science, Novi Sad)

P2 - Professor 2 (Technical Faculty "Mihajlo Pupin", Zrenjanin)

P3 - Professor 3 (Faculty of Organizational Sciences, Belgrade)

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P4 - Professor 4 (Faculty of Electrical Engineering, Belgrade)

A1 - Assistant 1 (Faculty of Electrical Engineering, Belgrade)

A2 - Assistant 2 (Faculty of Technical Science, Novi Sad)

A3 - Assistant 3 (Higher Technical School of Professional Studies, Novi Sad)

A4 - Assistant 4 (Faculty of Technical Science, Čačak)

S1 - Student 1 (Faculty of Science, Novi Sad) III year

S2 - Student 2 (Faculty of Electrical Engineering, Belgrade) II year

S3 - Student 3 (Technical Faculty "Mihajlo Pupin", Zrenjanin) III year

S4 - Student 4 (Higher Technological School of Professional Studies, Šabac)

Concerning the optimal GE and ESP correlation we have noticed that the professors gave the priority to GE. The suggested optimal correlation is 80% of GE and 20% of ESP:

P1: I think the optimal correlation is 80% of GE and 20% of ESP...it is very difficult for us to achieve that for so many reasons. Perhaps, it could be done if English classes were offered as optional classes⁵. The question is: Are the courses that are offered to our students in the present curriculum what they actually need?

P3: 80 % GE, a 20% ESP. In every semester conversational English should be introduced, they should have eight exams.

Q: (*Laughing*)

P3: I am not kidding, I am dead serious. It is very important for them, but they do not realise that.

The assistants mostly do not agree with the professors about the 80-20% correlation, but they unconsciously give certain statements that support it:

A3: The problem that I encounter is that when they are at the third year of their studies, I would like to share some state-of-the-art technology texts with them, but I can't. It is usually some reading material about fifty pages long...in the end I have to translate it in Serbian. That is the problem I have to deal with. We are aware of the constant growing demand for English language, but we have only six semesters and we have to include all those subjects that are closely related to the students' field of study. Unfortunately, little space is left for English.

A4: The main reason is the fact that most of the material we use is in English, especially on the Internet...and it is extremely difficult for our students who don't know English well. When I give them, they complain that they don't understand. So they use Google Translate and then when you see that, it's a disaster! They just copy the text into Google Translate, and later they don't even read it in Serbian, you get sentences without any sense...and you should see the desperation on their faces when I tell them they can't find that in Serbian. When I type and show them the material on the Internet they say: "It's all in English!" Unfortunately, all good material is in English, so...they really need it. I am talking about the students who are at the fourth year!

These attitudes correlate with the quantitative results we got in the first analyzed question concerning the informants' opinion about the presence of only GE, only ESP or both GE and ESP in the curriculum of the IT students. As it was mentioned before, 92.1% informants at faculties support the GE and ESP option, while only 64.3% of their colleagues at HSPSs chose this opinion.

The professors believe that students should have the high level of GE competence as an essential foundation before embarking on ESP learning:

P1: ...it is easy to master ESP, afterwards. It is not a problem at all. Students should first learn to read, write and speak properly, to be independent, to acquire the terminology ... if they are capable of doing that, they will be able to deal with everything that follows. The most important thing is to master the terminology of certain study field, but if they don't know GE then it's a real handicap for them.

P2: As far as I am concerned, GE knowledge is more important, while ESP, yes, it is ... ESP courses should be gradually introduced at higher years of studying when students are done with their more general subjects, when

⁵The professor, who gave the interview, used the term in Serbian *fakultativnastava*. The authors decided to translate it as *optional classes* as the closest equivalent in English.

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they learn more about their actual study field, when they find out what they are interested in most, when they are able to discuss highly specialized topics...then ESP courses should be introduced.

P3: I give lectures of one IT course in English. The curriculum is the same as the one I teach in Serbian. It is for the students who are willing to listen to the lessons in English. Every year there are 250 of them who are taking that subject. However, only 15 to 20 students decide to attend the classes in English. Five of them give up immediately after the first lecture because they cannot follow.

P1 and P2 elaborate on their attitudes of giving priority to GE, while P3 gives the proof that supports the attitudes of his colleagues.

Nevertheless, there is one more important issue that we should bear in mind and it concerns the students who started learning English at the age of four or five in private schools, attended them during Primary and/or Secondary school and eventually most of them had passed FCE, CAE and/or CPE exams before enrolling their studies:

Q: How long have you been learning English?

S1: Well, for quite a long time. I don't know, I even remember we did some English in Kindergarten, but from the third year of Primary school regularly.

Q: Did you attend any private schools?

S1: Well, yes, during Primary and Secondary School, but afterwards I have been learning on my own.

Q: What did you exactly do?

S1: I was reading the practice material for those certificates, American, the SAP test, I was reading, when I came across an unfamiliar word, I would stop to find the translation and that's that.

S2: I started when I was four or five in a private school and I had been there till I was the third grade of Primary school when we got English, so I learned it all the way through Primary school, Secondary school and now at the Faculty. I took it now in the third semester, no ... I am wrong, in the fourth, in the third it was elective, but I didn't take it.

T: What is the difference concerning those elective English courses?

S2: More or less, there is no great difference, honestly, it seems to me that English is...I don't get why it's compulsory when it's so easy to pass it, and you can't learn a lot, to be honest, I have had no problems passing the exams so far with the knowledge I had already had.

There is even one professor who points out this problem:

P4: Let me tell you something what is happening at our faculty and you treat it as you like it. The way how English is organised here has no sense because students choose English, actually some English courses are compulsory and some are elective, but they actually don't learn a thing. They practically...for example, as well as my children, since they are four or five take and finish various courses, and passing English here is for them an easy and elegant way to gain the points, to pass that exam and to get virtually nothing out of it. So...what is done here, these people from the Educational Department, and this colleague, she is a nice person, she is proud how many students choose her subjects, but according to me nobody here learns anything. I know that, because I have a son, and he took those subjects, English I and English II, and before that he passed all those courses, the last one Proficiency. He did absolutely nothing.

The number of those students is not great but they are still present and we should also consider their needs when we plan English courses at IT departments. The distribution of these students is probably not even according to the cities where the research was taken. We can expect bigger number of them in Belgrade and Novi Sad due to the fact that the trend of attending private schools from early age is more present in bigger centres.

On the contrary to the professors, the students find the place in the curriculum for GE only at the beginning, in the first or second semester, while the rest of English courses they would devote to ESP.

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S1: ESP is much more useful for our area of expertise. We have now two semesters. Personally, I think it is insufficient ... we should have at least three or four semesters. It would be nice if the intensity of the course could be enhanced, but it is understood that the GE has already been mastered at the faculty.

S2: As far as I am concerned, I don't need GE at faculty, I get on well with what I know, at least I think so...

T: What is your impression of your fellow students' knowledge?

S2: I know that there are students who are not so good at GE, so they should have a GE course in the first semester, but it must be compulsory, because if it is not, then there is no use...and afterwards we should have two courses of ESP.

S3:As I see it, there should be no GE at faculty because it should already have been mastered before coming to the faculty. We should have 100% ESP. Every year we have one semester, I think it should stay like that, but we should have just ESP courses. Maybe I am repeating myself, but if you don't know English you can't do anything!

S4: Concerning GE maybe two semesters, and the rest to be ESP, four semesters, we should have one intensive ESP course and the rest...well it should be always present in order that students can practise communication, I think that conversation is the thing that is particularly missing. I believe it's the case all over Serbia.

These statements correlate with the results obtained in the analyzed question from the students' survey: 78% of the students find it important to master English in order to be able to broaden their knowledge of professional studies. This indicates that students see English as a means to expand their knowledge in their area of expertise. They are not aware of the fact that ESP cannot compensate their lack of GE knowledge.

The assistants mostly share the opinion of even share of GE and ESP, even giving in some contexts the priority to ESP:

A1: At the beginning there should be a bit of GE, while later students should have English courses with elements of ESP. I think at the third year when they have been introduced to all the areas existing in IT and then they need exclusively ESP.

A2: Let me tell you something. I don't believe that there can be any ESP knowledge without GE knowledge. I think it isn't possible that one learns to read just professional literature and to finish their learning at that point. According to that, my firm belief is that one should have a strong foundation of GE in order to be able to master ESP.

A3: Well, I think that students should have both GE and ESP courses simultaneously during first and second semester. I personally don't see a great difference between GE and ESP, English is English; the only difference I see is that ESP has more professional terms ... but English is essential for all IT areas, so that my piece of advice is that they should be taught simultaneously.

A4: Well, for example two semesters of GE and later just ESP, I mean during second, third and fourth year.

We can notice that there is just one assistant who agrees with the professors, A2. A1 and A4 suggest GE at the beginning and ESP to follow but to a greater extent. A3 gives the idea of having GE and ESP course simultaneously.

6. CONCLUSION

Taking all the results into consideration, we can come to several conclusions. The first, all the participants of the research are aware of the growing demand for English, especially in IT field. To support this we can look into the results of the second analyzed questions (78% of students find it important to know English to broaden their knowledge from professional subjects). The second, both professors and assistants support the idea that both GE and ESP should be included in the curriculum of IT students. However, we can notice two different attitudes concerning GE and ESP correlation at IT departments: the "amount" of ESP at Higher Schools of Professional Studies stated by the informants at HSPSs (28.6%) and by their colleagues at faculties (6.3%) and the "amount" of both GE and ESP at faculties, 92.1% of the informants teaching at faculties support both GE and ESP, while only 50% of their colleagues at HSPSs support this idea We can explain this fact in the light of restricted number of semesters at HSPSs what leaves little space for English courses. Due to that, HSPS informants would probably like to focus on their immediate needs and that is to master IT terminology in English and they see ESP courses as a means of achieving it. The fourth, analyzing the

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parts of the given interviews we can see a kind of a rising continuum of ESP courses demand from professor, over assistants to students. The possible explanation is that the professors are the ones with the greatest experience in using English for various purposes and in their work they have come to the conclusion that without a solid knowledge of GE one cannot learn or use properly ESP knowledge. The assistants are on their way to become PhD professors, so they have gained a certain amount of experience but obviously not enough to share the professor's opinion. The students have no or little experience in using English in their field of study so they assume that mastering ESP will bring them both GE competence and IT knowledge.

Having all these results in mind, we see that it is a rather demanding job to find the right measure for the optimal GE and ESP correlation. Professors, assistants and students gave their piece of mind and stated their reasons but generally they do not collide. The English teachers working at IT departments in Serbia have a tough and demanding job. How many English courses should be offered to IT students? Should the offered courses be compulsory, elective or optional? How many GE course and how many ESP course should they have? Can we achieve uniformity at all IT departments in Serbia and should we do that at all? These are just some of the answers that need to be answered and we hope that we will be able to accomplish it in the near future.

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The Importance of English in the Education of Electrical Engineers

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Abstract: Due to the globalization process and hence the increased mobility of professionals, the English language has become the main language of communication for engineers. Accordingly, engineering education has to stand up to the challenge of preparing new professionals with outstanding English language skills. The paper discusses the role of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) in engineering education which focuses the learner's attention on the particular terminology, grammar as well as communication skills required in a particular professional field. Furthermore, the authors conducted a questionnaire among undergraduate students at the Faculty of Electrical Engineering in Osijek, Croatia, with the aim of researching students' attitudes towards learning a foreign language and their motivation for learning ESP, as well as to find out which of the four skills of language learning students believe are most important and/or most efficient in their respective fields of study. The results of the student questionnaire will be used for the purpose of improving the ESP course at the Faculty of Electrical Engineering in Osijek.

Keywords: education of electrical engineers, English language skills, English for Specific Purposes (ESP), motivation, student questionnaire

1. INTRODUCTION

In this age of globalization, international projects are increasing and cross-cultural communication is rising, especially in the international practice of engineering. Globalization directly influences industry requirements thus forcing the modern engineer not only to be proficient in his/her own field of specialization but also to acquire some other skills which will make him/her competitive in these demanding global circumstances. As a result, the profile of a modern highly qualified engineer should include well-developed communication skills and high English language proficiency in order to provide efficient opportunities for competitiveness and success in the global labor market. In other words, deficiency of English language skills might be a major barrier to effective participation in the global economy. Accordingly, quality ESP courses must be implemented as an important part of the curriculum at engineering faculties aimed at preparing future engineers to use English in their future work settings.

2. ROLE OF ESP

ESP is characterized by specific features¹ resulting from the specific functions it is supposed to perform such as acquisition of language knowledge including the development and enhancement of all linguistic skills, as well as integration of professional knowledge and communication skills.

¹ According to Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998), ESP has the following characteristics: *Absolute characteristics*: 1. ESP is defined to meet the specific needs of the learners; 2. ESP makes use of underlying methodology and activities of the discipline it serves; 3. ESP is centered on the language appropriate to these activities in terms of grammar, lexis, register, study skills, discourse and genre. *Variable characteristics*: 1. ESP may be related to or

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Accordingly, it is of vital importance that ESP courses enable students to develop strategies and techniques that will help them use linguistic structures fluently both in written and oral communication, apply language in different situations, use acquired vocabulary and grammatical structures accurately, take part in discussions and express their opinion to name but a few.

In other words, an ESP course must be tailored to meet the specific needs of a “specific” learner regarding the contents (themes and topics), terminology, grammar as well as communication skills appropriate to a particular professional field. Such methodology is called a learning-centered approach (Hutchinson and Waters 1987) according to which the syllabi of ESP courses respect students’ target and learning needs. In order to create a well-balanced course, the ESP teacher must carry out a needs analysis to pinpoint students’ interests and preferences, select proper teaching materials, preferably authentic and up-to-date texts related to students’ current studies and future jobs, as well as to adjust teaching methods and techniques to students’ individual needs. Failure in respecting any of the above mentioned features may result in lack of motivation and a negative attitude towards learning the English language.

3. MOTIVATION AND ATTITUDE

The success of foreign language learning is largely influenced by motivation and attitude of the learner. Extensive research relative to motivation has been carried out for many years and it still attracts interest among linguists and psychologists. Gardner and Lambert (1972)² were the first to conduct significant research on motivation and to make a distinction between integrative and instrumental motivation. According to them, integrative motivation refers to motivation associated with the learner’s wish to be integrated into the culture and community of the language concerned, while the instrumentally motivated learner has more pragmatic reasons in his/her mind, such as getting a better job. This dichotomy was partially refused by Dörnyei (2005) because he noticed that one type of motivation does not necessarily exclude the presence of the other³. Furthermore, he noticed that the term “integrative” is too limited and does not make much sense for most foreign language learning environments. Yashima (2002, in Dörnyei 2009) expanded the notion of integrativeness to refer to generalized international outlook or “international posture” which she defines as the willingness of a foreign language learner to interact with international partners, go overseas to stay or work, etc. Another important factor in FL learning is the attitude towards the language being learnt. Despite the fact that motivation and attitude are two distinct individual learner factors, they are regarded as closely interrelated and are often investigated together. Attitude is usually referred to as a positive or negative feeling about a language. According to Gardner (1985), attitude is a component of motivation in language learning, i.e. motivation is a combination of desire to learn the language, positive attitudes

designed for specific disciplines; 2. ESP may use, in specific teaching situations, a different methodology from that of General English; 3. ESP is likely to be designed for adult learners, either at a tertiary level institution or in a professional work situation. It could, however, be for learners at secondary school level; 4. ESP is generally designed for intermediate and advanced learners; 5. Most ESP courses assume some basic knowledge of the language system.

² Due to space limitations, only the most widely accepted theories on motivation will be mentioned in this paper.

³ In his research Dörnyei (2005) tries to argue Gardner’s classical theory by making use of the study of “possible selves” (Markus and Nurius, 1986, in Dörnyei 2009) further elaborated by Higgins (1996, in Dörnyei 2009) who gave a more detailed analysis of the possible self by distinguishing “the ideal self” (representation of the attributes that one would like to possess, such as hopes, aspiration or wishes) and the “ought self” (representation of the attributes one ought to possess, i.e. representation of sense of duties, obligations, etc.). By applying the “possible selves” theory to the integrative component, Dörnyei (2005) links the “ideal self” to foreign language knowledge. Consequently, we can conclude that a person who wants to be successful in foreign language learning possesses an integrative disposition. This interpretation explains why this instrumental variable is closely related to integrativeness.

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towards learning the language and the effort invested in learning. Wenden (1991, in Al-Tamimi and Shuib 2009) proposed a broader definition. He claims that attitude incorporates three components, i.e. a cognitive component composed of the beliefs, ideas and opinions about the object of the attitude, an affective component pertaining to emotions (likes or dislikes) towards the object and ultimately, a behavioral component which refers to one's consisting actions or behavioral intentions towards the object.

4. RESEARCH AIMS AND METHODOLOGY

With this research, we wanted to find out what attitudes electrical/computer engineering students have towards the importance of learning English for Specific Purposes, to which extent students are motivated for ESP classes, what motivates our students, as well as whether their motivation has changed after entering university. Furthermore, we wanted to identify what language skills they consider most important and most effective in the process of second language acquisition, but also to which extent particular skills cause difficulty to them and which skills they think should be more represented in the teaching process. Ultimately, on the basis of students' suggestions and ideas we wanted to identify elements which students consider important for good quality ESP classes with the aim of tailoring the classes accordingly.

Research was carried out in form of an anonymous questionnaire that consisted of two parts. The first part referred to general data (i.e. gender, study program students are enrolled in, the age at which they started to learn English and the final grade achieved in the English language course at the end of the previous semester). The second part of the questionnaire was focused on ESP classes held at the Faculty of Electrical Engineering in Osijek (i.e. importance, workload, goals, attitudes, motivation, interest, relation of English knowledge with their future careers with special stress placed on assessment of skills). Finally, students were asked to write down what changes they would like to introduce to ESP classes. Depending on the question/statement, the questionnaire offered two possibilities for the response to questions/statements: a choice between multiple answers (multiple choice questions) and a choice of only one of the answers (a scale from 1 to 4). Some questions were open-ended. For questions/statements in which several answers were offered, unless otherwise stated, respondents were supposed to circle one answer only. The questionnaire was created using Google Docs and uploaded into Moodle. All third-year students automatically received an e-mail about the questionnaire through the Moodle platform. The results of the research were obtained through analysis using SPSS software and are planned to be used for the purpose of improving the ESP classes at the Faculty of Electrical Engineering in Osijek.

4. RESEARCH RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The survey on the importance of English in the education of electrical/computer engineering students was conducted on a sample of 121 participants, 6.6 % female students (i.e. 8 participants) and 93.4 % male students (i.e. 113 participants) enrolled in the third year of their bachelor's degree program at the Faculty of Electrical Engineering, J.J. Strossmayer University of Osijek, Republic of Croatia. The reason for involving only third-year students was that within the undergraduate study program students attend ESP classes in the 4th, 5th and 6th semester. In other words, the authors wanted to involve students who are already well acquainted with the teaching methods employed in ESP classes and are therefore eligible to state the most objective responses and views. From a total of 121 students, 32 (i.e. 26.4 %) power engineering students, 26 (21.5 %) communications and informatics students

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and 63 (52.1 %) computer engineering students participated in the survey. Before entering university more than half of the students (59.5 %) started to learn English in the fourth grade of primary school, 11.6 % in kindergarten and 9.1 % in the first three grades in primary school. In other words, 80.2 % of the students began to learn English at an early phase which lets us assume that the level of English knowledge ranges from B2⁴ (intermediate) to C1 (advanced). 10.7 % and 9.1 % of the students started to learn English at university and in secondary school, respectively. In the end of the general part of the questionnaire, participants had to state their final grade achieved in the English language course at the end of the previous semester. 32.2 % of participants obtained an excellent grade⁵ (5), 33.1 % received a very good (4) grade, 13.2 % a good (3) grade, 10.7 % a sufficient (2) grade, while only 10.7 % have not passed the exam.

The first two questions referred to students' attitudes towards learning the English language. The 1st question tried to uncover students' attitudes towards English being taught as a compulsory course at university, while the 2nd one concerned students' attitudes towards the importance of the ESP course in comparison to engineering-related courses. In both questions students had to opt for only one statement out of three.

TABLE 1

Students' attitudes towards English as a compulsory course at a technical university

	Frequency	Percent
It is logical that English is a compulsory course at university	112	92.6
English should be offered only as an elective course	7	5.8
It is unnecessary to learn English at technical colleges	2	1.7
Total	121	100

As presented in Table 1, from a total of 121 participants, 112 students (92.6 %) replied it is logical that English is a compulsory course at university. 7 students (5.8 %) stated that English should only be offered as an elective course, while only 2 students (1.7 %) believe that English should not be learnt at university level at all.

TABLE 2

Students' attitudes towards the importance of the ESP course in comparison to engineering-related courses

	Frequency	Percent
More important than engineering-related courses	2	1.7
Equally important	76	62.8
Less important than engineering-related courses	43	35.5
Total	121	100

⁴ Level groups according to the Common European Framework for Languages.

⁵ According to the Croatian grading system (1 = insufficient or failing, 2 = sufficient, 3 = good, 4 = very good, 5 = excellent).

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Table 2 shows data regarding students' attitudes towards the importance of the ESP course relative to engineering-related courses. Only two students (1.7 %) regard the ESP course more important than engineering-related courses. More than half of the 76 respondents (62.8 %) consider ESP equally important, whereas 43 respondents (35.5 %) are of the view that ESP is less important. Taking the high degree of positive responses to questions 1 and 2 into account, we can conclude that students at the Faculty of Electrical Engineering in Osijek, Croatia, have a highly positive attitude towards the stipulation of English as a compulsory course at university level and its importance in the curriculum. Nevertheless, we should not neglect the 35.5 % of participants who regard ESP less important than engineering courses which, however, should be viewed in the light of the fact that we are dealing with engineering students whose choice was to study engineering and not English.

With the 3rd question we wanted to find out whether our students believe that the current total workload⁶ of the ESP course should be increased, reduced or remain the same. The data obtained show that the vast majority of students (83.5 %) would not change the total workload, 10.7 % believe that the workload should be reduced, whereas only 5.8 % of students would like to increase the total workload. To sum up, the majority of our students are not interested in attending more ESP classes and feel that the current total workload will suffice to master all the skills required for their future careers. Unlike the students, the authors believe the current workload is insufficient to cover all the contents needed for proper preparation of future engineers. They would prefer English were taught throughout the first four semesters of the study, with the total of 30 hours (i.e. 15 weeks×2 hours/classes a week) each.

The 4th question concerned students' motivation for learning English within the scope of the ESP course. Given the fact that an ESP course is to prepare a student for his/her future work setting and focuses on subject-matter fields, the authors did not aim to analyze students' motivation based on Gardner's dichotomy "instrumental"/"integrative" since the authors started from the assumption that students are more instrumentally oriented due to the nature of the course itself. Participants were offered 6 statements and were allowed to opt for at most two of them (Table 3).

TABLE 3

Data on students' motivation for learning the English language

I learn English because...	Frequency	Percent
knowledge of English will help me find a job easier	66	22.7
every engineer should have an excellent command over English	82	28.2
knowledge of English makes it easier to research the professional literature in English	56	19.2
knowledge of English allows easier communication with acquaintances, friends and business partners from foreign countries ⁷	59	20.3
it is a compulsory course at our Faculty	25	8.6
other reasons	3	1.0

⁶ It should be pointed out that the current weekly workload for the courses "English Language 1" and "English Language 2" is 2 hours which makes a total of 30 hours per semester, except for "English Language 3" where the weekly workload is 3 hours, i.e. 45 hours per semester.

⁷ This item referred to integrative motivation according to Yashima's (2002, in Dörnyei 2009) expanded notion of integrativeness.

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As shown in Table 3, it can be observed that the percentage is about equally distributed. 82 respondents (28.2 %) learn English because they believe that every engineer should have an excellent command over English, 66 of them (22.7 %) favor learning English for the purpose of getting a job easier, 59 respondents (20.3 %) state easier communication with foreigners as their source of motivation, 56 students (20.3 %) think that knowledge of English makes it easier to research the professional literature in English, whereas only 25 students (8.6 %) learn English because it is a compulsory course. In the end, the number of students who opted for other reasons is negligible.

Question 5 aimed to uncover the level of motivation for learning the English language in relation to secondary school education, i.e. whether our students are more, less or equally motivated for learning English at university. According to Dörnyei (2005), motivation changes over time; it changes depending on the context, i.e., different motives may be involved at different points of time. Since we were interested in finding out the context/motives that may have affected students' level of motivation at university, students were also required to provide an explanation to their response which yielded interesting results. 57 participants (i.e. 47.1 %) replied that they are equally motivated, 44 of them (i.e. 36.4 %) have a higher level of motivation, while 20 students (i.e. 16.5 %) are less motivated than in secondary school (Fig. 1).

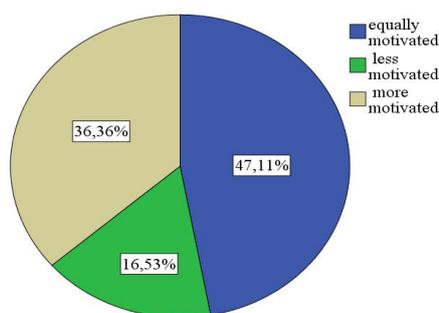


Fig.1 Level of motivation for learning English at university in relation to secondary school education

By analyzing students' descriptive responses we noticed that the reasons more motivated students stated were primarily connected with the professional context, i.e. the majority of students felt that English as taught at university prepares them for their future careers much better than English in secondary school. Also, they find professional texts and vocabulary more interesting than general English texts they dealt with in secondary school. Some of the students were of the view that they are older now and more aware of the importance of English and are thus more motivated for learning the language. Moreover, considering students' descriptive responses, it should be pointed out that the authors' assumption that our students are more instrumentally motivated has proved to be correct. In the end, the majority of less motivated participants did not find the ESP course challenging enough since they felt they did not learn anything new. The following direct quotes illustrate some of the students' reasons:

I am more motivated since in college we deal with more engineering-related English and this is far more interesting to me than high-school English where general English texts are done.

A foreign language, especially English, is necessary for engineering-related jobs. English is the most widely used language in the IT industry and de facto the standard.

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I am more motivated because I'm getting closer to the moment when I'll enter the labor market; in relation to high school, English is now taught better and more professionally which is of great importance for my career.

I am not motivated. The required level of knowledge is lower than in high school. I understand most of the materials we deal with without additional learning.

In order to find out which English language skills students find most important for their future careers, students were asked to highlight the importance of particular skills on a scale from 1-4. Table 4 depicts mean values representing the subjects' responses to question 6. The means are simply arithmetic average of the responses with 1 point assigned for "not important at all", 2 for "slightly important", 3 for "important", and 4 for "extremely important".

TABLE 4

Data on students' attitudes towards the importance of English language skills to their careers

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
1 understanding voice messages/listening	121	1	4	3.62	.581
2 reading professional texts	121	1	4	3.18	.764
3 conversation	121	1	4	3.37	.709
5 writing	121	1	4	3.03	.718
6 translation of professional texts	121	1	4	2.77	.844
Valid N (listwise)	121				

Question 7 referred to the importance of the representation of particular skills in ESP classes which had to be ranked on a scale from 1-4 (i.e. from 1- not important at all to 4 - extremely important) (Table 5).

TABLE 5

Data on students' attitudes towards the importance of the representation of English language skills in ESP classes

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
1 speaking	121	1	4	3.33	.700
2 writing	121	1	4	3.07	.716
3 grammar	121	1	4	2.89	.854
4 translation of professional texts	121	1	4	2.79	.896
5 understanding	121	2	4	3.55	.562
6 professional vocabulary	121	2	4	3.16	.683
Valid N (listwise)	121				

If we compare the results given in Table 4 and Table 5, overlapping of mean scores concerning some skills can be observed, e.g. "understanding" received the highest mean scores in both cases (M=3.62 and M=3.55), while "translation of professional texts" is considered the least important skill (M=2.77 and M=2.79) both in the professional and the ESP setting. Speaking, i.e. conversation was emphasized as the second most important skill with almost equal mean scores in both questions (M=3.37 and M=3.33).

In order to identify which skills cause difficulty to our students, the participants had to assign points to the skills depending on the level of difficulty they cause to them, where 1, 2, 3 and 4, stood for "very much", "not too much", "little" and "not at all" difficult, respectively.

TABLE 6

Data on the levels of difficulty of particular skills

	N	Maximum	Minimum	Mean	Std. Deviation
1 reading and understanding of texts	121	1	4	3.41	.813
2 use of various grammar structures in oral communication	121	1	4	2.74	.964
3 use of various grammar structures in written communication	121	1	4	2.85	.928
4 writing (spelling)	121	1	4	3.14	.840
5 discussion on professional topics	121	1	4	2.79	1.008
6 expressing opinion/attitude	121	1	4	2.79	1.024
7 delivering oral presentations	121	1	4	2.73	1.155
Valid N (listwise)	121				

The results demonstrate that students do not feel any of the above skills particularly difficult. The mean scores of the majority of skills fall into the range of 2.74 to 2.85 thus indicating that the skills in question did not cause much difficulty to the respondents. However, within the scope of the obtained results, “delivering oral presentations” seemed to be the most difficult skill, while “reading and understanding of texts” was the easiest skill to master.

With the 9th question we were able to identify which skills students wished to have been more practiced in ESP classes. Participants were offered six statements and were required to opt for at most two of them. The percentage shown in Table 7 leads to the conclusion that students wished they had more practice in pronunciation and conversation. The next skill students think should be paid more attention to is expansion of professional vocabulary. Although, according to authors’ experience spelling represents a weak spot for many students, only 16 respondents stated that spelling should have been more focused on in ESP classes.

TABLE 7

Data on students’ opinion regarding skills that need to be more practiced in ESP classes

In the English language classes, I wished we...	Frequency	Percent
had more practice in pronunciation and conversation	88	39.1
had more exercises focused on grammar structures	25	11.1
had more translation exercises	21	9.3
worked on expansion of professional vocabulary	70	31.1
practiced spelling	16	7.1
other	5	2.2

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With the next question we wanted to find out whether ESP classes at our Faculty are adapted to the students' level of English language knowledge. 98 students (81%) stated that ESP classes at our Faculty are adapted to the majority of students (Fig. 2). This result correlates with the 80.2 % of the respondents who have been learning English for at least 10 years, which lets us deduce that ESP classes at our Faculty are tailored to intermediate and advanced learners. 15.7 % of respondents thought that ESP classes were too easy which is in correlation with the percentage of students who stated to be less motivated compared to secondary school education (16.5 %). Only 3.3 % of students found the classes too laborious and difficult to follow.

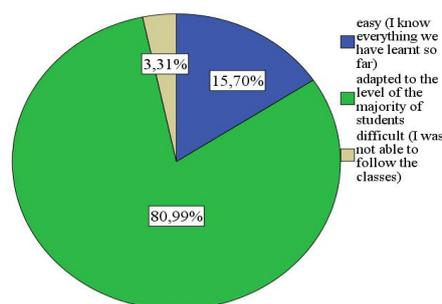


Fig. 2 Students' opinion on the difficulty of ESP classes

In the end, the participants were invited to write down what changes they would like to introduce to ESP classes in order to make them more efficient for their future careers, as well as more interesting and thus more motivating. The analysis of participants' suggestions showed that the majority of students do not want any changes since they feel that the ESP classes are well organized and cover all the relevant topics important for their future jobs. Still, with the mentioned wishes of students for oral communication, some students pointed out the relevance of homework assignments as an additional motivation for individual work, as well as the relevance of learning professional vocabulary. The following quotes represent the most interesting and constructive suggestions:

More discussions/debates.

I would like to do more technical vocabulary and e.g. interactive workshops (business meetings).

Writing essays and translating texts as homework.

Dedicate more time to engineering-related vocabulary rather than grammar.

I would try to introduce conversation and casual contact with students or professors of the same profession and living abroad. Skype as an option.

6. CONCLUSION

As English has become the main language of communication in all fields of life, including engineering, the aim of this paper was to discuss the role of ESP in the education of electrical/computer engineering students at the Faculty of Electrical Engineering in Osijek, Croatia, and to find out by means of a questionnaire what their attitudes and motivation in relation to learning

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ESP are. The results obtained by the survey revealed that the majority of students have a positive attitude towards English as a compulsory university course with the present weekly workload. As to motivation, most of our respondents are either more motivated or equally motivated for learning English at university. All of this might be due to the fact that students have become aware of the importance of English in their respective fields of study and their future careers. When it comes to the importance of particular English language skills for their future careers and the importance of the representation of particular skills in ESP classes, the results overlap, i.e. in both cases electrical/computer engineering students find understanding and listening most important, and translation of professional texts least important. Students were also asked to sort language skills according to the level of difficulty they cause to them. The results showed that delivering oral presentations seems to be the most difficult skill, whereas reading and understanding of texts is the easiest. When asked which skills they wished to have been more practiced in ESP classes, the majority of students wished they had more practice in pronunciation and conversation in ESP classes, while only a few opted for spelling exercises. The questionnaire also revealed that most of our students believe that ESP classes at our institution are adapted to the level of knowledge of the majority of students and that generally they do not want any changes. Finally, in the last question students were asked to write down specific suggestions aimed at making ESP classes more interesting and more motivating. Regardless of mixed-level (heterogeneous) and large ESP classes and the fact that it is difficult to meet all students' needs and adapt to individual student's level of English knowledge, this comprehensive questionnaire showed that ESP courses at the Faculty of Electrical Engineering in Osijek, Croatia, are well organized and that they mostly cover relevant topics important for our students' future careers. The results of the questionnaire, especially our students' helpful and specific suggestions, will be used to enhance the teaching and learning experience in ESP courses at the Faculty of Electrical Engineering in Osijek.

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Introducing Environmental Concepts through Metaphors to Adult Learners

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Abstract: The paper focuses on introducing environmental concepts like Cradle-to-Grave, Cradle-to-Cradle through metaphors during the English classes, in order to provide an effective communication about environmental issues during the teaching process, with the purpose of optimizing it to the 2nd year students in Environmental Engineering.

Key words: cognitive metaphor, cradle-to-grave, cradle-to-cradle, linear and circular economic systems

1. INTRODUCTION

This article explores how, through metaphor, students can acquire specialized vocabulary in a foreign language (English) and also knowledge in the field of environmental related issues. My attention is focused in particular on some metaphors that help people shift from a mindset that is linear, mechanistic, reductionist, expansionist, and consumerist (Cradle-to-Grave) to one that is cyclic, organic, complex, constrained, productive and self-generating (Cradle-to-Cradle).

Over the years, the metaphor approach has encountered several stages from a traditional approach that considers metaphor “as a matter of mere language” to a cognitive one that views metaphor “as a means of structuring our conceptual system and the kinds of everyday activities we perform” (Lakoff and Johnson, 111). This latter type of approach rejects the idea that metaphor is just a poetic device and states that it is part of our daily language that takes into account the society we live in, feel and interpret messages that originate in our inner and outer world. The central role that metaphor plays in our lives and way of thinking was identified and shown by George Lakoff and Mark Johnson through the cognitive approach.

For this reason, the present paper points out the key aspects of this new approach to metaphor and assesses the usage of a set of the most popular and common metaphors in the environmental-related discourse and will take into account the way they can be introduced during technical English lessons not forgetting about their interpretation in the social, economic and cultural context of the moment.

2. ENVIRONMENTAL COGNITIVE METAPHORS

This study is grounded in cognitive linguistics. The great advantage of this approach, when analyzing the environmental discourse, is that metaphor is regarded as a conceptual and linguistic phenomenon which has a great capacity of expression. (Hulban 2001, 137)

The main assumption of this paper is that metaphors pervade the environmental scientific texts that were always considered to be lacking of emotional characteristics and should have used a precise language that was consistent with reality.

The general attitude regarding metaphors changed drastically after being recognized their ability to introduce creative and didactic elements in scientific language. Effective communication,

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when it comes to science, requires a kind of translation, and the scientific community acknowledged that one of the best way to perform this translation is through metaphor. By using a word instead of another, metaphor allows us to interpret and understand abstract scientific ideas (concepts) through comparison. Metaphor allows a better comprehension of the theoretical concept through semantic transfer, and the presence of the image and relational analogy.

Metaphor can be used as an effective tool in educational practice to assist students in grasping complex concepts, to make correlations between information and the existent knowledge, to deepen conceptualizations of our social and environmental relations for a better encoding of the information into memory. Draaisma (2000) made some statements on the importance of metaphor in education considering that the combination of image and language, of graphic and abstract are ideally suited to explaining and teaching theories (Walker 2005, 76).

A special attention given to the use of metaphors in adult environmental education was also paid by Lillian Hall and Julie Johnston who stated that: "As educators, we have responsibilities for forging a broad educational belief system that involves the cultivation of awe and wonder of the earth, assisting students in their process of meaning making, creation of metaphors and worldviews that nourish our capacity to live with and in the world..." (Hall and Johnston 2003, 23).

The transformative potential of the metaphor was noticed by Barrett & Cooperrider who considered that with "an almost unconscious flash of insight" (Barrett and Cooperrider 2001, 4) it can spontaneously merge two separate worlds/realms of experience. The metaphor not only helps us understand something new, it helps to refine and adapt what we already know through a set of categories that we use when interpreting the world. Metaphoric thinking is a creative process that can help individuals in relating to the world differently. If we change the metaphors by which we see the world, we can quite literally change the way we relate to and effect change in the world.

A relevant example is that until recently the dominant metaphor in industrialized societies was a mechanistic one, the universe being seen as machine (17th century). Descartes proposed that God was a great engineer and his creation were mechanisms. Therefore, nature was seen as a set of mechanisms created by God, the engineer, who then put a piece of his God-mind into his favourite robot – man, so that he could also create machinery (Sahtouris 1996, 4).

The most commonly used concept to characterize the mechanistic system is *Cradle-to-Grave* – in fact a metaphor that speaks about a linear economic system based on the model: TAKE-MAKE-WASTE.

In the case of mechanistic system, Earth/nature was always seen as an inexhaustible source of natural resources (*nature as resource* or as a *natural capital*) that could be exploited endlessly by human beings without thinking in perspective and be considerate for the future of the next generations. It is a well known fact that with metaphors we compare the image of something (the linear model) that we know with the image of something else that we are seeking to understand (the lifecycle of products expressed by the metaphor *Cradle-to-Grave*). As we try to match the shape of one image (the mathematical representation of a line embodied by TAKE-MAKE-WASTE) we transfer our understanding of one to the other- in our case the stages passed by a finite product from its *taking the raw materials/ birth to its disposal/death*.

The Earth was always seen as the cradle of humanity where human beings altogether with other living organisms have been nurtured by Mother Earth. Mother Earth nurtured its children (living organisms), the cradle being thus a symbol of birth. On the other hand, Grave represents Death, the end of any living organism. Extrapolating this metaphor of Earth seen as a cradle for living organisms into the world of non-living ones, we may state that *Cradle-to-Grave* metaphor may refer on one hand to the life cycle of materials from the moment they are taken from the ground (Earth seen as a Cradle), they are transformed into finite products, used by beneficiaries and at the end of its lifecycle they are disposed in the ground as wastes (Earth seen as a grave). Therefore, there is an obvious analogy

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between the concept of creation-to-destruction in the case of non-living products and the biological process birth-to-death in case of living organisms.

This attitude continued till the 20th century when a new metaphor (that of the earth seen as a living organism) was introduced altogether with Gaia hypothesis by James Lovelock in 1972: "I see the world as a living organism of which we are part a part; not the owner, nor the tenant, not even a passenger. To exploit such as a world on the scale we do is as foolish as it would be to consider our brains supreme and the cells of other organism expendable. Would we mine our livers for nutrients for some short-term benefit?" (Lovelock 1986, 489).

McDonough and Braungart, two pioneers in ecological thinking show how conceptual metaphors can play an important part in the shift of people's mindset to an ecologically sustainable society by encouraging the approach of the circular economy instead of the linear one. In their revolutionary book *Cradle to Cradle: Remaking the way we make things* they are challenging the linear metaphors of the mechanistic mindset by advocating the implementation of new conceptual metaphors based on ecological systems thinking. Thus, McDonough and Braungart emphasize metaphors modeled on nature such as *Waste = Food/Nutrient* to encourage innovation and redesigning industry with closed loops or 'cradle-to-cradle' rather than linear *Cradle-to-Grave* characteristics.

The switch from the concept *Cradle-to-Grave* to *Cradle-to-Cradle* or from the linear economic system to a circular system consisted basically in the fact that materials are taken (TAKE), transformed into products (MAKE) and then they are reused (REUSE) in such a manner that they can be included either in a biological cycle or a technical one in order to close the loop. Thus, the new metaphor *Cradle-to-Cradle* promotes zero wastes and tries to replace an old linear approach of the economic system (linear) that is mechanistic, resource-consumer into a self-regenerating, and self-renewable circular system.

One of the most beautiful metaphors proposed by the authors to illustrate a regenerating and symbiotic self-sustainable system is that of *the cherry tree*. It seems that little or nothing is wasted in nature. What is surplus or bad for one organism often becomes another's food directly or indirectly. Every spring, a cherry tree offers a habitat and produces thousands of blossoms which provide food to humans, birds, insects and other animals in an effort to grow one tree. The blossoms and fruits that reach the ground aren't wasted because they can be nutrients for other systems and processes that nourish the tree and soil,

The authors introduce the term "nutrient" in the metaphor *Waste=Food/Nutrient* to draw an analogy between ecosystems and industrial systems and to prove how deficient is the present economic system that is non-cyclic and single-use. Our industrial systems should mimic the ecosystems considering the raw materials as nutrients that need to be efficiently cycled. There are two types of nutrients: technical nutrients that describe the inorganic or synthetic materials used to produce goods and they will serve the purpose of the technical cycle/loop within which they can be reclaimed, reused or recycled and biological nutrients that describe the organic nature of a product serving the purpose of the biological cycle/loop wherein they can be consumed or composted.

Thus, any industry's waste product can be turned into a different product or into energy, the cleaning function being one of the most promising ways to achieve and promote long-term sustainability.

3. INTRODUCTION OF ENVIRONMENTAL METAPHORS TO ADULT STUDENTS

The introduction of environmental metaphors during the English classes can be accomplished through a hands-on, multi-sensory, multi-media approach. *Each lesson should have a language as well as an environmental objective.* It also provides background on the environmental objective, a list of materials needed, a glossary of terms used in that lesson and a worksheet. Lessons should be introduced when the adult learner is already familiar with the grammatical construction emphasized in the materials. Flash cards and picture files are also included. Activating knowledge can be accomplished by presenting two or more photos. The students need to present the connections between the photos following the model of a brainstorming session. The expansion of vocabulary can be achieved by looking at different images and their equivalent words (e.g. society, environment, economy, sustainability, wastes) Students can be asked to guess what each word means based on the given image.

A good exercise to using words in context can be the explanation of a concept map/ graph/ diagram/table or making lists (e.g. global issues). They can also develop categories according to the factors that influence these issues (e.g. local or global). The usage of sample impact diagrams determines students to choose one product (organic or inorganic) and try to disassemble it according to its ingredients/materials that are used to make the respective product (e.g. hamburger, T-shirt, computer). Students may discuss about the resources and processes required to produce each part of the good and all the impacts (social, economic and environmental) that might be related to producing and using it. Alternatively, tables can be used instead of diagrams that should include information, such as: components, ingredients, needed resources, social/economic/environmental impacts.

Group work is also a favourite activity in the classroom: one bag with trash items is distributed to each group. Discussions should be directed to its content. Alternative situation: students make a list with all the trash items they have discarded in the past 3 days. What is the common characteristic of all items. Discussions are on the content of the trash in order to define *luxury* and *necessity* for themselves, how these artifacts reflect the lifestyle of those who used and disposed the items; critical analysis of consumption; examine trends of modern disposal of material goods. Differences of opinions are encouraged.

Watching movies (e.g. The story of stuff) can lead to discussion on what factors drive consumption (cultural, social, economic, historical) but also to inquiry/critical thinking questions of the type: what are the hidden impacts of the materials or how we can start to shift our worldview and underlying assumptions around consumption.

4. CONCLUSIONS

Because each lesson is supposed to have a language as well as an environmental objective, the use of metaphors in educational practice is to assist students in grasping complex concepts and make correlations between information and existent knowledge share ecological knowledge on one hand and to establish cultural values for relating to the environment being focused on community priorities within a local context on other hand.

During the analysis of metaphors, it was also mentioned their transformative power. If metaphors are changed, thinking will change and if thinking is changed, actions will change (Lakoff

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and Johnson 1980, 145). Students, thus, are invited during the English class not only to acquire terminology in the field of environmental sciences or to assimilate English grammar notions but also to change their worldview on sustainability by discovering their own relation with the environment within which they are living. One means to relate to the environment is metaphor. As we previously showed, different societies can be characterized by the predominant metaphors that they use.

The new metaphors help education for sustainability to determine the reconceptualization of the relationships between the economy, society and environment – encourage transformation towards sustainability. Our economic and political systems must be redesigned using the paradigm of self-renewing, regenerative, living systems. It is a switch that requires a fundamental change in thinking because our systems don't work for the benefit of today's society and certainly for the good of the future generations.

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Motivating ESP Learners in a Hybrid Course

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Abstract: The concept of task motivation in language learning context has been getting a great deal of attention in recent decades. ESP classes, with a strong focus on learners' goals, should belong to the rare places where motivation to learn the foreign language is not an issue. Yet it appears that the frequently conflicting sub-goals of individual learners can make the tasks introduced in a face-to-face classroom environment incompatible with their expectations, and, consequently, highly demotivating. The paper looks into the features of a Moodle based component of a hybrid ESP course (English in Mathematics), taught last year to third year students of Mathematics at PWSZ in Tarnow, to illuminate the ways the tool might help to remedy the situation in a blended learning environment. Particular attention is paid to the motivational properties of Moodle tasks. Conclusions include recommendations for e-course designers and e-materials developers supported by the analysis of the data derived from the statistical module of the platform as well as students' comments drawn from their reflections submitted after the course.

Key words: motivation, Moodle, blended learning, ESP

1. INTRODUCTION

In the last few years, motivation has become a wildly used term in second language learning. Many teachers and researchers claim to believe that "motivation is one of the key factors that influence the rate and success of second or foreign language (L2) learning" as it "provides the primary impetus to initiate learning the L2 and later the driving force to sustain the long and often tedious learning process" (Dornyei, 2001, 117). In other words, it means that even students with the most remarkable abilities won't be able to rise to the challenge and accomplish previously set goals without sufficient motivation.

2 DEFINING MOTIVATION

To be able to discuss the concept it is necessary for it to be defined. A number of researchers have tried to provide a definition of the term, usually focusing on one or two features they believed to be the most important for the environment they researched. Gardner (1985) presents motivation as a construct consisting of three main components:

- Motivational intensity (effort)
- Desire to learn the language (willingness)
- Attitudes towards learning the language (affect)

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In this respect his idea is similar to Dörnyei's who maintains that motivation is responsible for "why people decide to do something, how long they are willing to sustain the activity and how hard they are going to pursue it" (Dörnyei, 2001a, 8). Ryan and Deci (2000, 54) state that in order to be motivated there must be something that one aspires to. Contrary to unmotivated people who are often characterized as ones without any aspiration, motivated people are full of energy, new ideas and are eager to fulfill the given tasks. The qualities of motivated people are for example "interest, curiosity, or a desire to achieve" (Williams and Burden, 1997, 111).

Although many theories imply that motivation is relatively a stable state, the latest research suggests that the level of motivation does not remain constant over the time. It is prone to various internal and external influences to which the student is exposed. (Ushioda, 2001). The above mentioned theories concentrate on various aspects of the complex human nature, some of which are closely related to each other while others are unique to a particular model. It has been claimed that creating a theory which would cover all the aspects of motivation is hardly possible (Dörnyei, 2001, 9) although some attempts have been made to unify the overall picture.

3. OPERATIONALISING THE CONCEPT

While motivation is often viewed as a unitary phenomenon, one that varies from little motivation to act to a great deal of it, people not only have various levels of motivation, but also different types of it, based on the different reasons and goals that give raise to an action.. Progressive studies over the relationship of these types of motivation led Deci and Ryan (1985) to formulate the self-determination theory. According to them, extrinsic rewards not only prevent the loss of intrinsic interest in the activity but by contrast they direct the intrinsic motivation if combined with self-determination. They also report consistent findings that "people will be more self-determined in performing particular behaviours to the extent they have the opportunity to experience: autonomy (i.e. experiencing oneself as the origin of one's behaviour), competence (i.e. feeling efficacious and having a sense of accomplishment). relatedness (i.e. feeling close to and connected to other individuals)" Deci and Ryan (1985, 27). They see these as fundamental human needs that individuals seek to satisfy.

An aspect that seems to be especially important in case of language learners is autonomy. There is some evidence that "learning success and enhanced motivation is conditional on the learners taking responsibility for their own learning, being able to control their own learning and perceiving that their learning success and failures are to be attributed to their own efforts and strategies rather than to factors outside their control." Dickinson (1995, 173-4). However, a number of other factors have been put forward that also influence motivation to a great extent. Jeremy Brophy (1987) stated that "motivation to learn is competence acquired through general experience but stimulated most directly through modeling, communication of expectations, and direct instruction or socialization by significant others (especially parents and teachers)."

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Although parents are not directly involved in the school scene, they have a great influence on a students' motivation to learn, even at the tertiary level. It happens as they "act as the major intermediary between the cultural milieu and the student" Gardner (1985, 109). Gardner (ibid) distinguished two roles that parents play in their children's learning process. One, called an active role, based on encouragement and the second, a passive role which involves "indirect modeling and communicating attitudes related to L2 learning and the L2 community". He stated that both roles are effective when they are in harmony. However, when they are not the passive role becomes the dominating one. What is more, empirical surveys prove that active parental influence and involvement have a great effect on the students' linguistic self-confidence, increase their academic motivation, improve school performance and behavior and lower dropout rates.

Teachers are also major factors in the development of the student's motivation. Their role is multifaceted and their motivational influence depends not just on their personality and competence, but also on attitudes and traits that individual students carry into the classroom. It has been claimed that the teacher alone cannot overcome the negative effects of hostile behavior and self-defeating attitudes in a student (Wlodkowski & Jaynes, 1990), so that is why the teacher-student relationship is so vital in the process of motivating. The aim of the teachers is both to provide their learners with informative feedback and to build some kind of a rapport which would be based on understanding and friendship. Unfortunately, many of them fail to do this and limit their actions exclusively to the role of mentors, pushing aside support for students' autonomy and motivation. Fortunately there also are praiseworthy teachers who stand as models for their students, symbolizing their unity and identity. As Deborah Stipek (1988, 202) rightly noticed "To a very large degree, students expect to learn if their teachers expect them to learn". That means that hardly any student makes himself study if he is not motivated by the teacher. Satisfied learners feel good about their accomplishments, though reinforcement provided by the teacher and setting goals help them believe they will succeed at every step. Both initiating and sustaining student's motivation seem to be decisive to the process of learning L2. Dornyei (2001: 35-36) proposed a 4-point-way of organising the influence teachers have on their students:

- the personal characteristics of the teachers, their personality and competence, which determine the students attitude towards the subject
 - teachers' immediacy which generally refers to the relationship between a teacher and a student. Dornyei states that immediacy behaviours, like using humor, addressing students by name, moving around the class can reduce the distance between the two.
 - active motivational socializing behaviour, which assumes that by means of modeling, calling students attention to the purpose of an activity and a reward system teachers can indirectly communicate to students what they believe in and hope their students will adopt similar beliefs .
 - classroom management - efficient classroom procedures make students feel good, safe and, what is most important, promote student motivation. Teachers are in complete control of the running of the classroom. Rules set by them determine students' behaviour in the classroom setting, thus teachers should prepare them carefully for each group and then enforce them at every step. Failure in doing it will result in their being irreparably ignored and disobeyed.
- Dornyei sees the ability of a teacher to motivate students as absolutely crucial. In fact he notes: "teacher skills in motivating learners should be seen as central to teaching effectiveness" (2001: 116).

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Another factor that affects students' attitudes towards language learning is the approach to learning the language presented by other learners who are close to them. This means that if the peers are academic or keen on studying the language, there is a great probability that the student will be more motivated to learn the subject. To confirm this idea Clement et al (1994) found that perceived group cohesiveness substantially contributed to the learners' overall motivation construct and correlated significantly with various language criterion measures.

One of the most powerful individual factors that influence learner' motivation is the goal, which they hope to achieve. The belief that they are making acceptable progress towards a goal augments their efficacy and sustains motivation while eventual success will enhance their self-esteem. The goals can be either provided by the teacher or developed by the learners themselves and are divided into short-term or long-term goals. To clear up the terms, the short-term goals can comprise for instance the learning of a small amount of new vocabulary or writing an essay and long-term goals may involve the mastery of English, ability to speak fluently in English or passing an exam. While short-term goals may be more absorbing as they are closer to the student's day-to-day reality, long-range goals are often vitally more important (Harmer, 2007, 53). An ideal motivational system includes short-term goals that direct a student straight into achieving long-term goals. It is important for the teacher to set goals that would be personally meaningful for students and with which they would internalize. Although many students believe that it is the best for them to accomplish a task set by themselves rather than by teachers, it is not so easy, as many of them may set goals that may be too easy or too difficult to attain.

Both the external factors and the intrinsic goals build up what Dornyei (2005, 2009) calls the Ideal L2 Self, part of the ideal self (a representation of the person what one would like to become) which in turn constitutes a key element of the L2 Motivational Self System. The System ensures that the person undertakes and persists in activities decreasing the discrepancy between the ideal and actual selves. In other words the ideal L2 self does not exist in isolation but comprises all the motivational, affective and cognitive areas that participate in making plans for one's future, taking into consideration the existing resources, the opinions and feelings of important others as well as possible feasibility of the tasks involved in accomplishing the ideal vision.

4. TASK MOTIVATION

A concept that stemmed from the mainstream research on motivation and has attracted considerable attention in the field of language education research is task motivation comprising both the motives brought by the learner to the language classroom and the situation specific motives provided by the language task (Julkunen, 1989). While the former are generally seen as stable, the latter, task-dependent factors are prone to change and possibly create a more (or less) motivating environment for the execution of the task. The overall task motivation would thus result from an interplay of those two sources of motivation (Julkunen, 2001). Dornyei (2002) developed the trait/state explanation of task motivation adding an extra element: motivation that stems from actional contexts such as the culture of a particular school or the contingencies of a particular language. To Dornyei this specific

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environmental influence produces a dynamic field determining the learner's engagement in task completion.

Dornyei (2002, 2005) proposed a task processing system which consists of three interconnected factors: task execution, task appraisal, and action control. Task execution concerns any on-task learning behaviour demonstrated by the students. It may have been prompted by the teacher or put forward by the students. Task appraisal denotes the assessment of the progress in task completion and an evaluation of the possible scenarios of alternative choices. Action control processes refer to an implementation of some of the possible scenarios where the outcome seems to be more satisfactory than the one resulting from the actual choice. In other words they refer to the students' constant examining and evaluating the execution of the task as well as modifying their performance, should such a need arise. As suggested by Winne and Marx (1989), Dornyei (2002, 2005) maintains that the negative signals from the appraisal system evoke the need to put action control strategies into practice and the appropriate level of motivation is preserved, provided the representations of the possible changes needed for the desired behaviour are available for the student. Dornyei and Kormos carried out a series of studies further examining the concept of task motivation in relation to interactional tasks (Dornyei and Kormos, 2000; Dornyei, 2002; Kormos and Dornyei, 2004). They concluded that the main motivating factors influencing the students' on-task behaviour were their attitudes towards the L2 tasks, their attitudes towards the L2 course, and their level of linguistic self-confidence. Their study showed that situation specific motives were of much less importance than the three factors mentioned above.

5. THE ESP HYBRID COURSE IN PWSZ TARNÓW

Bearing in mind the findings mentioned above a hybrid "English in Mathematics" course was prepared for third year students of Mathematics. This supplementary (not compulsory for students) course covered 120 hours, half of which were delivered through a Moodle based component. The remaining half was led in the traditional face to face mode, following a textbook that was especially designed together with the Moodle based component. The group of volunteers taking part in the course amounted to 22 students. To find out what the students' ideal selves and L2 ideal selves were a needs analysis was carried out before the development of the course. The needs analysis revealed that students expected to enhance their listening and speaking skills most as many of them intended to carry on their education abroad and take active part in classes led in the foreign language. They also needed to learn the subject specific vocabulary and practice grammar and language use on B2 level (according to Common European Framework for Languages), as revealed by a placement test delivered three months before the beginning of the course. Students also specified areas of mathematics they most needed to cover during the course as the following: Operations in Arithmetic, Numbers, Fractions, Percentages, The Decimal Numeral System, Elementary Algebra, Linear Equations, Quadratic Equations, Probability Calculus, Logic and Set Theory, Graphs, Functions and Relations, Statistics, The Basics of Geometry. Naturally the needs analysis revealed a number of conflicting goals, both in terms of topics of interest as well as with reference to language needs or long term goals. These differences were decided to be catered for on individual basis during the face to face classes.

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The Moodle component was divided into fifteen Modules in the weekly format. Each module was theme based (in accordance with the findings revealed in the process of needs analysis) and comprised material and tasks for four hours' work (two weeks of the course). The material included glossaries, resources and activities (assignments, chats, forums, quizzes) that students needed to carry out individually or in groups. The Introduction Module included three glossaries: Grammatical explanations glossary, Expressions and phrases glossary and main Glossary of mathematical terms, which was a collection of lexical items (terms, symbols, words, expressions, idioms, phrasal verbs) used during the course with example sentences, images, links to video and audio files, synonyms, antonyms, information on the word grammar and context of use for particular entries. The entries defined in the glossary were highlighted wherever they appeared in the course and hyperlinked to the Glossary information. The glossary was not only searchable but also modifiable for the students who often added extra links or comments regarding the entries. The Resource pages sent students to selected webpages where they needed to watch a video, listen to a podcast, read a paragraph or do an interactive exercise and comment on it on the module Forum. Vocabulary quizzes practiced the key vocabulary of the topic covered in the module in the form of multiple choice, true/false, multiple matching or gap filling exercises. Grammar practice exercises covering the areas of grammar revised during the face to face classes were included in the MS Word format for students to do and send in the form of Assignments (as attachments). Once per week there were Chat sessions scheduled which served mainly as remedial sessions for students who needed extra guidance. Each module also included a full key of the simultaneously discussed textbook Module used during the face to face classes, mostly in audio files, gradually open for the students. (See Fig. 1)

To maximize the motivational value of the language learning tasks in the Moodle component as well as minimize the negative effect of working in an unfamiliar environment (students had not worked with any e-learning platforms before) during each face to face session the teacher made frequent references to the Moodle component of the course explaining how the particular activities might be of use for the overall development of the language for specific purposes. During the first semester these explanations were frequently followed by brief demonstrations of certain aspects of the technology e.g how to send an Assignment, how to find, retrieve, add or modify entries in the Glossary or how to check one's results in the grades section.

A B2 English Course for Students of Mathematics

To do list for Module 1 Operations in Arithmetic:

- - Look through the **Prefix multipliers and their abbreviations** before the next F2F meeting. Prepare possible questions.
- - **Complete and send 2 exercises of your choice** from the **Grammar – Module 1** file as an attachment in the **Grammar 1** task
- - **Do the Module 1 vocabulary quizzes**
- - **Guess the Crazy Mathematician's Corner puzzle and send your answer(s) to the Module 1 Forum (various answers possible)**
- - **Watch the suggested video and comment on its theme in the Module 1 Forum**

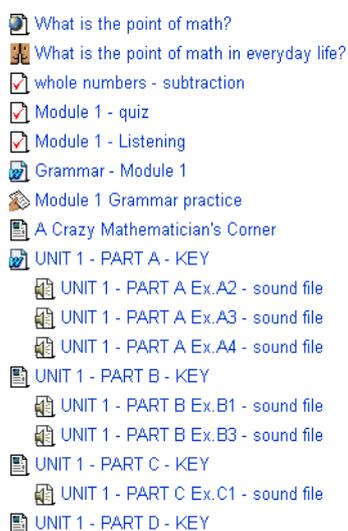


Fig. 1 Moodle course Module 1 week 1

As shown in Fig. 3 below, the level of involvement an activity generated was measured through the number of views of each of the above mentioned activities as recorded by the statistical module of the Moodle platform (see Fig. 2) and calculated to obtain a monthly average number of views per activity. It can clearly be seen that the activities generating the greatest involvement were those that had to do with vocabulary practice: Glossary and Vocabulary quizzes. Students clearly saw them as instrumental in enhancing their language skills and paid twice as much attention to them as they did to Listening resources and Grammar practice. The least frequently used activity was Chat, visited by only a few students each week. It was those students, however who most needed help in carrying out their assignments. All of the most popular activities were interactive, although their level of interactivity varied greatly. Glossary involved viewing, adding and modifying entries (with the name of the author of the new clearly visible to other participants) as well as commenting on existing or newly added entries. Forum was an interactive tool used for discussions of topics related to the theme of the module (with discussion threads started by individual students). Quizzes were solitary activities where a student interacted with the computer only. It may be inferred that the activity giving the possibility of the most varied interactions appeared to be most appealing to the students.

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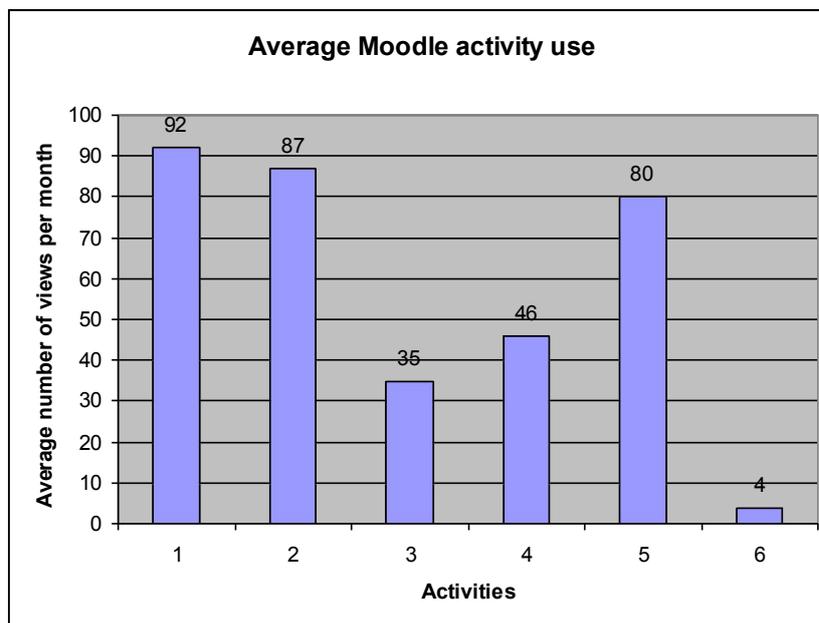
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At the end of the course students participating in the course submitted a written anonymous evaluation of each of the components of the course which largely seem to confirm the findings generated by the statistical module of the platform. They saw the greatest strength of the Moodle based component in building up the vocabulary they needed to function in the field specific language (17 out of 22 students). However, more than a third of the students (8 respondents) mentioned usefulness of the resources, which gave them an insight into plentiful educational resources existing on the Web that can be used to develop their individual interests or keep up the language skills while developing professionally. Six students commented negatively on activities involving group interactions (Glossary, Forum) complaining about their colleagues lack of cooperation and participation in discussion threads, while four other individuals were overwhelmed by the number and variety of discussion threads, which they were disinterested in.

Activity	Views
Topic 1	
 Module 1 chat	2
 What is the point of math?	25
 What is the point of math in everyday life?	113
 whole numbers - subtraction	36
 Module 1 - quiz	109
 Module 1 - Listening	95
 Grammar - Module 1	48
 Module 1 Grammar practice	44
 A Crazy Mathematician's Corner	45
 UNIT 1 - PART A - KEY	41
 UNIT 1 - PART A Ex.A2 - sound file	81
 UNIT 1 - PART A Ex.A3 - sound file	65
 UNIT 1 - PART A Ex.A4 - sound file	25
 UNIT 1 - PART B - KEY	24
 UNIT 1 - PART B Ex.B1 - sound file	18
 UNIT 1 - PART B Ex.B3 - sound file	13
 UNIT 1 - PART C - KEY	13
 UNIT 1 - PART C Ex.C1 - sound file	3
 UNIT 1 - PART D - KEY	13

Figure 2 Activity report Module 1



1- Glossary ; 2 - Vocabulary quiz ; 3 - Listening resources ; 4 - Grammar practise ; 5 - Forum ; 6- Chat.

Figure 3 Average Moodle activity use

5. CONCLUSIONS

The results of the above mentioned analysis, while limited in scope, seem to confirm Dörnyei's (2009) thesis that the situation specific motives are less important than the students attitudes to the course and the learning tasks themselves. The activities most popular with students in the "English for Mathematics" Moodle component were those that they believed to be most beneficial to their future development, although all the activities were related to the same topics, handpicked by the students. Also the interactivity of the tasks tends to generate interest, however in the environment of ESP it needs to be remembered that students often have very narrow fields of interest, which may be uninteresting or unreachable for the majority of the group. The Moodle component therefore needs to be designed not only to cater for the majority of the group but in a way that allows a great deal of individuality.

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Teaching English for Sciences through Mock Scientific Conferences

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Abstract: The paper deals with teaching English for sciences through mock scientific conferences which are regularly held at Perm State National Research University. The conferences aim to provide students who are interested in pursuing a career in science with a good mixture of English language exposure and practice in exchanging scientific ideas in English. They also provide students with an opportunity to showcase their newly learned English language skills, as well as with practice of presenting scientific material in front of peer audience.

Key words: a mock conference, competence, communication strategies, authentic communication, report presentation

1. INTRODUCTION

The aim of this paper is to share experience in teaching English to students of sciences at Perm State National Research University. One of the key concepts in up-to-date professional training is competence. Today competence, i.e. the ability to use knowledge and skills in professional activities, is regarded as the desirable result of learning and teaching. It is quite obvious that development of learners' competence has to be encouraged in the context of authentic professional activities. Teachers should create the educational environment which enhances students' learning experience and maximizes their interaction with speakers of English. The course should be devised in a rational and flexible manner that will meet the trainees' needs. The focus has shifted from the teacher to the learner, and with this has come the realization that each learner is an individual, with distinct needs, learning styles, and attitudes. Today it is universally accepted that the teacher has to create a positive classroom environment. The students should be stimulated by activities that arouse their interest, and develop communicative abilities through tasks in which they can play an active role. The transition from classroom to the realities of the workplace is often a rough one. Classroom use of language is constrained by factors that are irrelevant to real life. The students may find it difficult to communicate with people who speak the language for real purposes outside the classroom. What can teachers do to help their students? It is essential that the task given to the students is not intended merely to model the proper use of English. Its nature must be other than language oriented. Tasks should address authentic problems. Such tasks involve free-thinking and personal choice-making. The participants should know enough about the situation in order to begin their interaction (Alekseeva 2011,9).

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Having analyzed the needs of our students we came to the conclusion that mock conferences could become a powerful tool in coping with the challenges mentioned above. Mock conferences are simulations of professional gatherings where students can report their studies in the form of presentations. These events provide opportunities to learn about the strengths and weaknesses of one's research strategies, to identify new problems worth studying systematically, to draw tentative research plans, to make contacts with people who can help us at certain stages, and to gauge the public's acceptance of different types of report presentations. Below we will look at possibilities which mock conferences create for language learners.

2. MOCK CONFERENCES AS THE TEACHING TOOL

Summarizing our experience in organizing scientific mock conferences, we should point out the following possibilities which they give to language learners:

- Foster English communication in a scientific/academic context;
- Enhance familiarity with issues surrounding scientific thought and history;
- Improve skills in scientific communication through speaking, listening and writing;
- Promote the students' confidence in using conversational English;
- Engage the students in discussion of contemporary topics;
- Enable students to become accustomed with delivery of presentations and answering questions impromptu in English;
- Learn to listen to scientific lectures in English and practice discussion and presentation skills;
- Help to master academic vocabulary;
- Help to develop writing skills, oral presentation skills, listening and note-making skills;
- Give learners exposure to a range of language items and language functions;
- Allow learners to develop fluency in the use of language;
- Give learners the opportunity to learn communication strategies (e.g. seeking clarification; checking comprehension; agreement/disagreement etc.);
- Enhance familiarity with norms of etiquette (e.g. small talk rules during the coffee breaks);
- Help to master the content of the curriculum subject the learners are studying;
- Raise awareness of cultural differences in communication
- Help students learn and practice appropriate expressions / politeness markers corresponding to various social settings.

In general, mock conferences are events where everyone involved is interested, active, and thoughtful. They result in empowerment of less confident students through self-expression.

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Mock conferences also give the students of different groups and years of studies the possibility to become better acquainted with each other. It goes without saying that to be successful, these activities need a well-structured teacher's guidance. The responsibility of a teacher is to design and set up a series of practice situations which can be regarded as the main steps of a complicated process of organizing a conference.

These situations include: election of members of the conference organizing committee with its chair person; identifying the number of participants and keynote presenters; designing the conference program; organization of extra-curricular events (e.g. guided excursions to university botanic garden and museums); writing letters of invitation and corresponding with participants; an opening ceremony; round table discussions of presentations; communication during coffee breaks; a closing ceremony; proofreading and publication of the proceedings. Publishing students' writing is very important. As Ilona Leki from University of Tennessee (USA) points out, 'students are much more likely to be willing to exert energy in their work if they think someone else will read it or even simply if their work is treated as important in itself, worthy of publication and the attention that publication brings. If students are writing for publication, they have some idea of the real audience who will be reading their work.' (Leki 1994, 177). A good idea is to get the students as involved as possible by, for example, allowing the class to select a group of students to be the editorial board and decide which of the papers presented at the conference they would like to publish.

Less confident students with lower levels of language knowledge are encouraged to participate actively in mock conferences as well. They may be afraid of delivering presentations and answering questions in public, but they are usually eager to act as assessors and members of the jury. To facilitate their task, they are given the presentation skills rubric (see table 1) which was developed by Stephen V. Hoyt, professor of the State University of New York for his classes at The English Language Intensive Training (ELIT) Camp hosted by Kazan in 2010. The ELIT program began in 2002 with a grant from the MacArthur Foundation to support the improvement of the English language learning at RECs (Research and Education Centres) within various Russian universities including Perm State National Research University.

TABLE 1
Presentation Skills Rubric

Points	4	3	2	1
Category	High degree	Satisfactory	Few elements	No elements
Body Language	Movements seemed fluid and helped the audience visualize	Made movements or gestures that enhanced articulation	Very little movement or descriptive gestures	No movement or descriptive gestures; or movements distracted
Eye Contact	Holds attention of entire audience with the use of direct eye contact	Consistent use of direct eye contact with audience	Displayed minimal eye contact with audience	No eye contact with audience
Introduction	Opening remarks capture the attention of the audience and set the mood	Clear introductory remarks	Poor opening remark	No opening remark
Visual Aids	Aids are well done and appropriately used during presentation	Aids are appropriate but contain minor errors	Aids are difficult to see and contain many errors	No aids are used or are used inappropriately
Voice	Use of fluid speech and inflection maintains the	Satisfactory use of inflection, but does not consistently use	Displays some level of inflection throughout the	Consistently uses a monotone voice

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	interest of the audience	fluid speech	delivery	
Poise	Displays relaxed, self-confident nature about self, with no mistakes	Makes minor mistakes, but quickly recovers from them; displays little or no tension	Displays mild tension; has trouble recovering from mistakes	Tension and nervousness is obvious; has trouble recovering from mistakes
Timing	Uses exact amount of time or comes within 5-10 seconds of allotted time	Within 15-20 seconds of allotted time and pace is good	Within 20-30 seconds of allotted time, but pace is too fast	Goes over the time, speaks significantly less or more than allotted time
Pronunciation	Speech is presented with no pronunciation errors	Most words are pronounced correctly	Many words are pronounced incorrectly and detract from the speech	Significant pronunciation errors detract from speech
Conclusion	Closing remarks keep the attention of the audience	Clear closing remarks	Unclear closing remarks	No closing remark
Total				

Students- assessors are asked to analyze professor Hoyt's rubric and to develop it taking into account the needs of mock conferences' participants. Students-presenters undertake an independent research project that will end with a final presentation of their projects and findings. Among the presenters there are foreign students both at Bachelor's and Master's levels as well as post-graduates. At our university we have undergraduates from China, India, Tadjikistan and Great Britain (Oxford and Manchester) who actively take part in our conferences. Two years ago we added on-line presentations made by our partners from Manchester Metropolitan University, Royal College of London and Ohio Northern University. Cooperation with our foreign partners helps enhance students' learning experience and maximize their interaction with English speakers. It is especially important for developing our learners' listening skills, which involves four things simultaneously: understanding a speaker's accent or pronunciation, his grammar and his vocabulary, and grasping his meaning. (Bradford 2011, 18). Learners tend to be used to their teacher's accent or to the standard variety of British or American English. That is why they find it hard to understand speakers with other accents. Listening to conference presenters from different countries gives students a good opportunity to enrich their experience in identifying a variety of accents. As Ur (Ur 1984, 25) pointed out, "Listening exercises are most effective if they are constructed round a task. That is to say, the students are required to do something in response to what they hear that will demonstrate their understanding." Some of such tasks include expressing agreement-disagreement, taking notes, answering and asking questions. All these tasks are integral part of communication at conferences.

3. CONCLUSIONS

As these few suggestions have shown, there is a lot that the language teacher can do by using mock conferences as alternative to traditional class activities and tasks. With our curriculum, where 40 % of hours is given to class work and 60% - to individual work of students, it is very important to create an effective learning environment which is as close to authentic communication as possible. It should also be pointed out that these suggestions can easily be modified or extended to suit the teacher's own teaching situation and to meet the learners' needs.

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Teaching English through Science and Vice Versa: a Computer-assisted Approach

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Abstract: Students of Science and English lecturers at their universities have long been faced with a lack of adequate textbooks and supporting study materials. Unlike some other fields, particularly economics, business, management, information and communication technology, textbooks for students of chemistry, biology, ecology and related sciences can hardly be found both in libraries and bookstores. Thanks to the Internet and an abundance of study material from different areas that can be easily 'googled', the way to overcome this problem may be found. On the other hand, the modern means of communication offer some additional opportunities for second language learners. This does not apply only to the abundance of material available, but to the maintaining the appropriate individual pace of learning, their individual freedom to prepare their own presentation and show the outcomes of their work, and communication with students from other countries and possible exchange of ideas. Since the occurrence of computer-assisted language learning (CALL) at the end of the last century and somewhat younger mobile-assisted language learning (MALL), we have been witnessing the attempts of using virtual learning environment and distance learning implying student-centred approach instead of the traditional foreign language learning implying teacher-centred approach. However, as a foreign language (mainly English) examination is prescribed by the higher education system, then English lecturers' support cannot be completely eliminated. Generally, foreign language teachers have been enthusiastic and avid users of modern technology for a very long time. Providing an appropriate relationship between traditional and up-to-date methods of learning with special emphasis on the independent work of students and encouraging their curiosity and desire to explore will definitely help to achieve the best results in learning. The paper also presents some examples of seizing the opportunities offered by information and communication technologies in teaching and learning English through Science and vice versa.

Key words: ESP: Chemistry/Biology/Ecology, Computer-assisted language learning (CALL), Internet, information technologies, Science

1. INTRODUCTION

These days when hundreds of millions of people are learning English, we can talk about English as a global language. Not only have non-native speakers of English already outnumbered native speakers by a ratio 3 to 1 (Crystal 1997), but international Standard English could be an English variety used for communicating among foreigners. Since the language appears to be the engine of globalization along with computers and mass migration, English language has become the world's language number one for commerce, diplomacy, technology and science, let alone music, sport and entertainment.

Nowadays, non-native speakers begin to learn English at ever-younger ages, which is appreciated as a valuable enterprise. A growing number of preschoolers are enrolled in the myriad of

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English courses. Such great enthusiasm is nothing else but the outcome of parental awareness of the situation when fluency in English language has become a must for gaining employment even outside the native English speaking countries. A lot of thorough research has been conducted on the most effective methods and aids for learning various aspects of English – to start with printed books and audio recordings up to CDs, video, e-books, and the most recent and fabulous Internet and palm gadgets. One can hardly believe that 1991 was the year in which the World Wide Web was born – a bit more than twenty years back! This revolutionary technology is, among lots of other purposes, being employed to foster the development of employment-related *knowledge*. Thus, a 40-year old prediction made by a famous SF writer Sir Arthur Clarke that satellites would someday "bring the accumulated knowledge of the world to your fingertips" (von Braun 1970) – came true!

However, foreign languages have long been studied using traditional teaching methods, tools, and resources. Students of Science and English lecturers at their universities have long been faced with a lack of adequate textbooks and supporting study materials. Unlike some other fields, particularly economics, business, management, information and communication technology, textbooks for students of chemistry, biology, ecology and related sciences can hardly be found in both libraries and bookstores. Thanks to the Internet and an abundance of study material from different areas that can be easily 'googled', the way to overcome this problem may be found.

2. THE INTERNET AGE

All languages are work in progress. The only languages that do not change are the dead ones. Languages always change because societies they belong to also change. Every society consists of young and old and their attitudes, desires and ideas somehow inevitably clash. However, language adapts amazingly quickly in this fast changing world. But here the word 'language' is primarily addressed to English, since with the spread of the Internet English language has been increasing its domination worldwide, even to the detriment of many other languages. Of course, there is also an optimistic outlook in this respect because the volume of material in other languages is steadily increasing (Crystal 2004). According to the British Council 80% of the electronically stored information in the world is in English and 66% of the world scientists read in it (The British Council). English-language teachers and lecturers point to the rise of Microsoft English and new technologies that help people to pick up the language. On the other hand, if they want to keep pace with their students, English language educators must be conversant with cutting-edge technologies and the possibilities they offer in language learning. Lifelong education and personal growth for all! New media necessitate a responsive and proactive vision of educational practice because of qualitative shifts in communicative contexts, purposes and genres.

Only ten years ago social interaction and communication were markedly different. With all the changes taking place in everyday communication and information practices English language educators have to adapt not only themselves but the whole process of education, and to include new genres and communication tools in foreign language curricula. In this respect, the Internet has become a fruitful soil for both course developers and language learners. E-mail, instant messaging, chatgroups, Web, MOOs, blogs ... all seem to be obsolete if compared with more dramatic changes in our electronic environment embodied in iPhones, Android phones, iPads, etc. all steering toward mobile learning or m-Learning. Although most interfaces currently employ keyboards, mouse or touch technology, there are also some emerging developments using voice or even marker-based gesture recognition (Han 2012). The latest generation of robots merge mobile information technology and

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robotics. A gap between computer-assisted language learning (CALL) and robot-assisted language learning (RALL) seems to be almost bridged. Let alone a recent radical demonstration of the technology when scientists used the Internet to link the brains of two rats separated by thousands of miles – one was in the USA and the other in Brazil (Sample 2013). It seems it may enable multiple brains to be hooked up to share information. ‘Organic computers’ revolution!

However, in the meantime, English language educators face some major challenges. Teaching does not cause learning but rather becomes the management of learning (Larsen-Freeman 2000). Since teaching strategy may greatly influence learner proficiency, traditional role of teachers and language educators changes quite markedly from teaching language to advising on learning (Mozzon-McPherson, 2001). We, language educators, should bear in mind that our young learners are comfortable using computers. And they generally enjoy the use of computers! Thus, to keep the pace with younger generations of their students language educators have to be ‘on speaking terms’ with communication technologies and to endeavour to gain the profit from all the benefits they offer. They can provide nonthreatening and flexible environment for their students in a very simple way – by encouraging students’ autonomy and, particularly, their self-motivated practice. Of course, learner variability must be considered – they excel on different tasks (Heift and Rimrott 2012) – and learner performance varies according to teaching objectives.

3. SELF-ORGANIZED LEARNING

A more personalized experience for learners has been offered with increased internationalism, commercialization of language provision, and wider accessibility of communication technologies. Accordingly, conventional teaching methods have to be combined with electronic or web-based resources in so-called blended learning. In an era when young people are always busy tapping away on their laptops, smartphones and tablets language educators may take advantage of such growing addiction. Different gadgets have always attracted the young and their educators must be aware of technology-mediated language learning and language use outside of educational institutions. It also means – outside of educational frameworks and curricula but across diverse social, cultural, socioeconomic, and political contexts (Kern 2006). Global problems such as the greenhouse effect, energy sources, and organic food may connect different individuals and groups (Green parties, campaigns against GMOs, etc.) and such interpersonal and intrapersonal interactions may encourage useful input for language acquisition.

Do computers improve language learning? If the answer to this question is ‘Yes’, do we need curricular overhaul? Which among the myriad ways in which computers are being used to choose? In what contexts? For what purpose? What about the idea of ‘computer-mediated colonialization’ (Ess 2005) and CMC technologies imposing Western values and practices?

The Internet and the Web are currently ideal tools for communication. Once adapted to technology-dependent methods learners can use written chat, a telephone-like contact, and video cameras. Then spoken utterances must be internalised more quickly than written words since written words remain visible while the sounds disappear more quickly. In that respect, the computer voice capabilities may cut short the passage from spoken words to their written form. In addition, learners’ production can be monitored using computer voice recognition software. Here, while talking about interaction between the learner and the computer, we should emphasize the salience of key linguistic characteristics by highlighting and opportunities for repetitions. In addition, learners may request help, revise and modify their responses, and get access to repetition. Particular software packages provide foreign-language subtitles and keyword support since verbal and visual annotations may help with

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vocabulary in listening (Chapelle 2007). Informative feedback is necessary for learners to prompt their noticing of gaps in knowledge and help them to improve their production through self-corrections. Of course, they always may stop and ask for help when a comprehension breakdown occurs. On the other hand, in spite of the benefits and advantages of self-organized learning, the situation when a learner communicates with others using communication gadgets may be additionally stressed because of the cognitive overload (Myers 2002). However, provided that tasks are placed in a meaningful context, learners may follow their stepping stones and be fully satisfied with their language mastery. Some authors believe that the Internet has resulted from the idea of the borderless world in which the role of this 'superhighway' is to flatten out cultural difference (Hanna and Nooy 2003).

The aforesaid refers to self-directed language learning outside the classroom. But, what happens inside the walls of educational institutions? Do we use computers and other devices in the classroom? What can language educators do to help their students improve their English language proficiency? Firstly, electronic devices such as computers and video displays have already been in use, whether we like it or not. Students can listen to audio recordings related to general topics of their study, they can take notes, discuss, and get ideas for their own presentations. Students majoring Biology, Chemistry and Ecology can prepare presentations choosing a topic from a vast array of possible choices – from the origins of life, endangered species, and bioengineering to state-of-the-art technologies in pharmaceutical industry, waste management and recycling, and climate changes. Thanks to capabilities of the Internet and multimedia software, students are more interested in 'brushing up' their English – they gather the necessary information, prepare video presentation, and elaborate upon the theme.

4. VIDEO GAMES AND DIGITAL STORIES

It has been recognized that there is no popular science publication with learning materials specifically for English language learners. However, in 2011 *Science Niblets* was created as an on-line popular science magazine for a potentially receptive audience. Therefore, the gap between the fields of science education and foreign language education has been bridged. In this respect, English language is not taken as a system to be analyzed on its own, but as a tool for communication about science. In that way English language educators have a chance to learn more about science from those who actually study science – their students. The materials do not focus on language content but on scientific and cultural content. Here is an illustrative example – a table presenting functional relationship between scientific and cultural topics:

Science	Scientific Topic	Cultural Topic	Communicative Skills	Intercultural skills	Social Forms
BIOLOGY	Photosynthesis	Potted and garden plants	Oral & written communication; vocabulary in context	Comparisons; relating target culture to personal experience	Individual; pair work; groups; class discussion
CHEMISTRY	Hormones – chemical communicators	Chemistry of love	Oral & written communication; vocabulary in context	Comparisons; relating target culture to personal experience; analysis of symbols	Individual; pair work; groups; class discussion

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ECOLOGY	Greenhouse effect	Climate changes	Oral & written communication; vocabulary in context	Comparisons; relating target culture to personal experience	Individual; pair work; groups; class discussion
GENETICS	Genetic engineering	Dr Jekyll and Mr Hyde	Oral & written communication; vocabulary in context	Comparisons; relating target culture to personal experience; taboos	Individual; pair work; groups; class discussion

What is the language of science? There are lots of possible answers to this question. A non-stereotypical attitude involves three areas of language for any classroom context: subject-specific language, general academic language, and peripheral language (Kelly 2010). While general academic language is cross-curricular language and not exclusive to a particular subject, subject-specific language is related to information carrying words – the specific scientific discipline-related vocabulary and expressions. Peripheral language is used by the educator to manage the class. However, these three areas of language mutually permeate each other. Sometimes learners should be exposed to the general academic language in science to a greater extent and then educators should provide opportunities for both input and output of science language – to begin with laboratory observation and description of an experiment and to end with computer-assisted techniques in language learning.

Furthermore, an interesting idea arose out of the advent and wide spread use of electronic gadgets. Despite a typical middle-aged language educator who readily admits to being a bit of a technophobe, young people usually show fewer inhibitions even turning themselves into technical whizzes. Not only were some of their communication and behaviour patterns explored (Roed 2003; Belz 2004), but it was found that a virtual environment is more relaxed than a classroom. Because of that, we, all involved in the educational process, should seize the opportunities offered and reap the benefits of electronic gadgets. Playing chemistry video games – beginning with simple puzzles, crosswords, and properties of the periodic table of elements and going to advanced levels with mixing fluids, building larger molecules, and balancing chemical equations – is certainly not only for fun, but could be an effective method of learning both English and Chemistry at the same time. Similarly, students of Biology may also be willing to educate *themselves* by *trying* some *video games* – *from struggling to survive as a primitive single cell and evolving into higher life forms to the practical issues on genetics, photosynthesis and the circulatory system. Besides the state-of-the-art graphics, there are also simpler versions of quizzes, interactive drag-and-drop questions, and many more. Not so long ago, a student team from the University of Southern California designed a gesture-based gardening/ecology game in which the game-play and logics were founded on the mechanics, behaviours and interrelationships of real-world animals, birds, insects and plants. In some other ecology video games we all can learn about eutrophication, biomagnification, dissolved oxygen, pH, and the effects of pesticides. Curiosity rarely kills – but, finally, we are not cats!*

An additional language-learning tool may be a digital story where the agency of the learner in the learning process is particularly emphasized. Apart from the sense of exclusion or marginalization in the classroom due to his inability to speak like a native, the English language learner may develop a sense of belonging and connectedness to a global English-speaking community – on the Internet! A particular gap between in-class and out-class literacy practices may be bridged by digital storytelling projects in which learners working individually or in groups design and produce short movies. After gathering the information, they prepare a script and manage the project and their

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technology skills seem to be equally important to their presentation, problem-solving and interpersonal skills (Hafner et al 2011). Of course, learners ought to be focused on the story and the issues of language use, not the technology. They draw on established scientific conventions and contribute to popularization of science through their experiences. Internet search engines and online databases are at their disposal in the planning stage. Simple technologies such as Microsoft Word and Power Point can also be used to create digital stories and Microsoft's Photo Story 3 for Windows is available for free and creates digital stories from still images. Windows Movie Maker uses both still images and video clips. In addition, a simple book talk can be transformed into one that incorporates book trailers. Book trailers have become a popular approach for promoting books pairing hard copy with a digital source particularly among the young who have been brought on graphic visuals. Popular sites like You Tube or School Tube and some others not protected behind a 'paywall' offer both amateur creations by students and educators and professional trailers by book publishers. The process is quite easy – everyone can use on-line resources for music and images and with a bit of creativity or friends' support they can produce a story. It should be succinct and not redundant. And, of course, the whole process should be both learning and fun!

5. CONCLUSION

Here we only try to explain how acquisition is promoted through exposure to language and how the advantages of electronic devices may be exploited in foreign language learning. In further research we should outline methodological principles of task-based language teaching that can be developed through technology-supported pedagogy (Doughty and Long 2003). Since technology has become necessary in all aspects of the lives of language learners and has been further expanding, language educators and creators of curricula have to be open for more technology-sensitive perspectives. Unprecedented opportunities for learning, assessment and communication offered by computer technologies have enabled both enthusiastic neophytes and sophisticated buffs to learn much faster than ever before. In that respect, language educators must imagine themselves as learners – they are not only trainers and practitioners but they are also developers, researchers and – learners! A language-learning renaissance is on its way.

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ESP in the Frame of the English Language Program

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Abstract: Kazakh-British Technical University (KBTU) is one of the most advanced technical institutions in the Republic of Kazakhstan which is shifting its educational system and programs to meet international standards to conform to the Bologna process. This paper introduces the frame of the English language program that was launched in KBTU two years ago, explains the status of English for specific purposes and provides feedback on the experience gained within these two years. The new English language program is based on the Common European Framework for language education and establishes clear and uniform expectations for students' progress so that by the time of graduation all their further academic and professional opportunities become attainable. For this purpose the frame presupposes different educational trajectories based on a student's entry language level. The strategy of the course for all types of students is to raise the students' social and communicative competences in their respective fields of study: Management, Economics and Finance, Oil and Gas Engineering, Geology, Chemical Engineering, and Information Technologies. All competence descriptors are based on industry and business survey feedback and designed in collaboration with university specialized departments.

Key words: Kazakhstan, language policy, English language education, ESP, EFL proficiency level

1. INTRODUCTION

The Republic of Kazakhstan has been undergoing drastic changes in all spheres of its life, and education is one of them. Kazakhstan is a former Soviet Union republic which gained its independence in 1991. It is the ninth largest country in territory in the world with the multiethnic population of over 15 million people. The access to the high school education has always been free while the secondary education is mandatory. These are the reasons for a very high level of literacy and functionality of local labor force.

Modern reforms in Kazakhstani foreign language education are part of the state policy to meet the needs of society, on the one hand, and to make the country a competitive member of the global community, on the other. The language policy of the country has been formalized in the frame of a set of state documents which include: Constitution of the Republic of Kazakhstan¹, Republic of Kazakhstan Law "On Education"², The State program of education development in the Republic of Kazakhstan³, The State program for the development and functioning of languages in the Republic of Kazakhstan⁴, "Strategy Kazakhstan-2050": new political course of the established state⁵.

¹ Constitution of the Republic of Kazakhstan. 1995.

² Republic of Kazakhstan Law «On Education». 2007. http://www.iqaa.kz/documents/law_of_education/

³ The State program of education development in the Republic of Kazakhstan. 2010. http://www.akorda.kz/en/category/gos_programmi_razvitiya

⁴ The State program for the development and functioning of languages in the Republic of Kazakhstan. 2011. http://www.akorda.kz/en/category/gos_programmi_razvitiya

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The corner stone of the language policy is the notion of the tri-unity of languages in Kazakhstan, Kazakh being the state language, Russian – the language of interstate communication, and English – the language of international communication. As Kazakhstan is a multiethnic state, the languages of minority groups are freely used for intraethnic communication.

According to the first Census-1999 of our independent state only 0.7% of the population recorded their competence in English. Census-2009 data demonstrate that 15.4% of the population understands spoken English, 2.6% read fluently, and 7.7% write and read fluently⁶. The State program for the development and functioning of languages in the Republic of Kazakhstan for 2011-2020⁷ sets an impressive benchmark for English language acquisition in the country for the nearest future: 10% by 2014, 15% by 2017, and 20% by 2020. This means that educational institutions of all levels, from preschool to universities, have to reconsider approaches to the English language education to foster teaching and learning English in the country.

Moreover, in 2011 Kazakhstan joined the Bologna process, and the country's educational system is now being reformed to meet international standards. The major directions of reforming the higher education system cover several areas. They are:

- (1) updating the content of education by adopting a Classifier of Occupations for higher educational specialties;
- (2) developing new higher education standards;
- (3) creating procedures that regulate the university admission process;
- (4) introducing higher education quality assessment, attestation and accreditation requirements;
- (5) providing legislative mechanisms to ensure financial support to students who study on state grants and beyond the state budget.

In foreign language teaching the Common European Framework (CEFR) is taken as the basis for language education. Starting from 2012-2013 academic year English is introduced from the first grade in the elementary school and is to be taught during 12 years at school. The English language proficiency level to be achieved by the time students finish high school is B1 (Intermediate). Higher educational institutions have to increase the English language proficiency level to B2 (Upper-Intermediate) at the undergraduate (bachelor) stage and to C1 (Advanced) at the graduate (master) stage⁸.

This paper deals with the experience of the Kazakh-British Technical University (KBTU) in designing and implementing an innovative English language program that is to be disseminated in higher educational institutions in the Republic of Kazakhstan.

2. STUDENT BODY

In KBTU English is taught to students of all faculties. English is the language of instruction in the International School of Economics and Social Sciences (joint program with the London School of Economics), the Maritime Academy and the Faculty of Information Technologies (starting from the second year of studies). In the Faculty of Oil and Gas Industry, the Center for Chemical Engineering and the School of Finance and Economics students can choose any of three languages, Kazakh, Russian or English, as the language of instruction. However, for being part of the English language cohort students need to possess minimum B1 (Intermediate) English language proficiency level.

⁵ Strategy Kazakhstan-2050: new political course of the established state. 2012. http://akorda.kz/en/page/page_poslanie-prezidenta-respubliki-kazakhstan-n-nazarbaeva-narodu-kazakhstanu-14-dekabrya-2012-g_1357813742

⁶ The results of the national population census in 2009. 2010. http://www.eng.stat.kz/perepis_nasl/Pages/n1_12_11_10.aspx

⁷ The State program for the development and functioning of languages, 4

⁸ *Kontseptsiya razvitiya inoyazychnogo obrazovaniya Respubliki Kazakstan* (Conception of the foreign language education in the Republic of Kazakhstan). Compiled by S.S. Kunanbayeva, M.K. Karmysova, A.M. Ivanova, T.D. Arenova, B.S. Zhumagulova, T.D. Kuznetsova, S.K. Abydygaparova. (Almaty: Abylai khan Kazakh University of International Relations & World Languages, 2006), 10-11

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English is a mandatory discipline. Students are assigned to a cohort and a group based on their English language proficiency level. Each student's level is identified by the results of the diagnostic test (Oxford/Cambridge Placement Tests, etc.) that all students take at the university at the application or entrance stage. Students who submit IELTS/TOEFL certificates are placed in groups on the basis of their international test results.

3. ENGLISH LANGUAGE PROGRAM

The English language program is an integral part of the educational philosophy of KBTU, and its focus and content meet the requirements of the state policy in the field of foreign language education and the demands of the modern labor market. The priority goal of the KBTU English language department is to prepare competitive specialists for the 21st century, who are able to communicate efficiently in English at a professional level (6.0 and higher in IELTS).

The KBTU English language program is based on the Common European Framework (CEFR) for language education and establishes clear and uniform expectations for students' progress so that by the time of graduation all their further academic and professional opportunities become attainable. For this purpose the frame presupposes different educational trajectories based on a student's entry language level. Students take the appropriate level-based core/mandatory courses:

- General English – A2 level (Pre-Intermediate/Waystage user)
- Academic English – B1 level (Intermediate/Threshold user)
- Business English – B2 level (Upper-Intermediate/Independent user) and
- Professional English – B2 level (Upper-Intermediate/Independent user).

ESP is understood as an umbrella term for such courses as Academic English, Business English and Professional English, the latter being the key focus of this paper. Professional English is designed for students who have achieved a 5.5 score on the IELTS (or equivalent) test to prepare them to communicate successfully in English in their professional field and to develop skills useful for future careers.

Depending on their entry level students take 6 to 14 credit core/mandatory courses (Table 1). Each core course is a semester long. To take a subsequent core course students have to reach a required English language proficiency level.

TABLE 1
Course distribution based on the English language proficiency level / Core courses

Program level	Course titles	Core courses					
Master	English for Professional Purposes (3 credit course)	A1	A2	B1	B2	C1	C2
	Professional English (3 credit course)						
Business English (3 credit course)							
Academic English (3 credit course)							
General English (3 credit course)							
Elementary English (2 credit course)							
English language proficiency level		A1	A2	B1	B2	C1	C2
IELTS scores		0-2.5	3.0-3.5	4.0-4.5	5.0-6.0	6.5-7.0	7.5-9.0

Every year 3-5% of students enter KBTU with a low or zero English language proficiency level. These are students who studied French or German at school, or those students, mostly from

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rural areas, who did not study a foreign language at all due to the lack of foreign language teachers in their schools. During the first semester a supplementary 2 credit Elementary English course is conducted for these students as part of the university optional disciplines curricula to help them to overcome the gap and join the major student cohort.

On the other hand, there exists an evident tendency for the increase in the number of students whose entry level is C1 (Advanced/Competent user). These students have an opportunity to choose either a core Advanced English course or any elective course(s) of the English language department.

The elective courses of the English language department cover diverse language and communication areas, such as Remedial Grammar, Conversational English, Advanced Writing, Business Communication, Intercultural Communication, Research Reading and Writing. Each elective course is designed for a certain English language proficiency level (Table 2) and is aimed at further improvement of foreign language as well as social, personal and professional competencies of students.

Table 2
Course distribution based on the English language proficiency level / Elective courses

Program level	Course titles	Elective courses					
Master / Doctorate	English for Research						
	Research Reading and Writing						
Bachelor	Business Communication						
	Intercultural Communication						
	Advanced Writing						
	IELTS / TOEFL						
	Conversational English						
	Remedial English						
English language proficiency level		A1	A2	B1	B2	C1	C2
IELTS scores		0-2.5	3.0-3.5	4.0-4.5	5.0-6.0	6.5-7.0	7.5-9.0

The English language program aims at developing all four language skills (listening, reading, speaking, and writing). The major focus is on specific communicative competencies that should help students to overcome the daily challenges of studying specialty disciplines which are taught in English. Other priority issues are mastering the skills of communicating professional concepts in English (in spoken and written forms) and developing students' critical thinking and self-evaluation abilities.

Student self-study is an essential part of the program that involves a substantial amount of independent work to be done. A wide variety of assignments including projects, surveys, interviewing, writing summaries, reviews, essays, reports and descriptions of digital and graphic information, compiling glossaries of professional terms are designed for students as part of core and elective course requirements.

The strategy of the English language program is to raise the students' social and communicative competences in their respective fields of study: Management, Economics and Finance, Oil and Gas Engineering, Geology, Chemical Engineering, and Information Technologies. All competence descriptors are based on industry and business survey feedback (such companies as KazMunaiGas, KazTransOil, Karachaganak Petroleum Operating, Agip KCO, TengizChevroil, Shell, Statoil, Halliburton, Weatherford, Baker Hughes, MaerskOil) and are designed in collaboration with university specialized departments.

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To create the English speaking environment the KBTU English language department organizes a variety of extracurricular activities for students and university staff. These include the Go English initiative (English Club, Movie Club, Music Club, Effortless English Club, Research Clinic, Creative Writing Club, Debate Club), English Language Week, Olympiads in English, essay competitions, Student Translation/Interpretation Bureau, participation of students in research and applied conferences.

4. ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES COMPONENT

The current English language program in KBTU can be considered as a transition program that will last for the next 12 years. By that time Kazakhstani high schools are to prepare students whose minimum level of English for university admission is B1⁹. Then the necessity of teaching General English will no longer exist and the essential focus of the program will concentrate on ESP.

As it has already been mentioned, ESP covers the courses of Academic English, Business English and Professional English. Course descriptions and learning outcomes of these courses can provide a better understanding of the ESP aims, content and priorities.

The Academic English course is offered to students who have achieved a 4.5 on the IELTS test. The prerequisite of the course is a Diagnostic Test (Level 4.5 in IELTS format) or General English. The post-requisite is Business English (Level 5.0 in IELTS format). It is designed to raise the students' language competence to the required international standards of academics and future professional needs. The course requires regular guided practice for all four skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing) concentrating on teaching written and spoken expression that is precise and demonstrates higher level thinking skills. Academic English has its own vocabulary and special characteristics that distinguish it from General or Professional English.

Upon successful completion of the course, the student will be able to:

- Recognize and understand selected academic words when seen in context
- Identify a topic, main idea/thesis, and argument structure
- Develop the micro skills of a competent reader, including skimming, scanning, note-taking, and guessing the meanings of unknown words
- Distinguish fact from opinion in reading and listening passages
- Understand academic lectures and take effective notes
- Clearly express and support an opinion in speech and writing
- Write clear paragraphs, short essays supporting opinion with basic research
- Use APA references and citations

The Business English course is offered to students who have achieved a 5.0 on the IELTS test. The prerequisite is Diagnostic Test (Level 5.0 in IELTS format) or Academic English and the post-requisite is Professional English (Level 5.5 in IELTS format). It is designed to raise the students' language competence to required standards of academics and future professional needs in the business world. The course is focused on developing advanced reading, writing, listening and speaking skills integrated with Business English content. The students will also work as a team on a semester project which aims to simulate a businesslike environment in the classroom. The project may include creating and running a mock company or long-term case studies.

Upon successful completion of the course, the student will be able to:

- Identify ideas in a variety of oral presentations on a range of topics using appropriate vocabulary and take notes

⁹ *Kontseptsiya* (Conception), 25

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- Respond to spoken English used in academic and business situations
- Take notes from teacher lessons using a supplied written outline as a guide
- Express a point of view and explain it in some detail in group discussions
- Make presentations using resources
- Use skills in independent research to gather information (e.g. in the library and community)
- Use the stages of the writing process (e.g. prewriting, drafting, revising, editing, and publishing) for writing summaries, memos and emails

The Professional English course is designed for students who have achieved a 5.5 on the IELTS test. The prerequisite is a Diagnostic Test (Level 5.5) or Business English. The post-requisite is an exit test (level 6.0).

The course is designed to raise the students' language competence in their respective fields of study: Economics and Finance, Oil and Gas Engineering, Geology, Chemical Engineering and Information Technologies. The course is focused on developing advanced reading, writing, listening and speaking skills and provides opportunities for building up professional vocabulary and higher level grammar. Types of academic, business and technical discourse will be studied to show students how to use diverse resources. Students will learn a variety of patterns for communicating in professional settings and develop appropriate communication behavior skills. The semester project will include writing a research paper on a professional topic.

Upon successful completion of the course, the student will be able to:

- Use target professional vocabulary in context
- Discuss, debate and explain professional issues
- Comprehend professional audio texts and take notes
- Skim, scan, summarize and select information in a range of writing activities
- Do independent research and compile a glossary of technical terms
- Make in-text citations and references

ESP courses prepare students to communicate successfully in English in their professional field and to develop skills useful for future careers.

5. CONCLUSION

The structure and content of the KBTU English language program and the continuity of courses prove to help students and graduates to achieve a sufficiently high level of the English language competence and proficiency required for their further academic (including study abroad) and professional careers. Our experience of implementing the program demonstrates that students expand their professional vocabulary, broaden their knowledge of English speaking countries, the challenges of modern life and their chosen professional field, enrich themselves both culturally and personally, develop skills of self-study and life-long learning, and acquire better opportunities for internship placement and employment in companies and organizations, where the English language competence is a requirement for career success.

In 2012 the KBTU English language department team won the Republic of Kazakhstan Ministry of Education and Science grant for applied research on the "Implementing European Standards in Teaching Foreign Languages in Technical Universities of the Republic of Kazakhstan" project. This provides better opportunities for analyzing and evaluating the KBTU English language program outcomes and researching the needs of other universities in the country in the area of foreign language teaching.

As the KBTU English language program corresponds with the state policy on foreign language education, it is highly evaluated by the Republic of Kazakhstan Ministry of Education and Science

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and is recommended for dissemination throughout the country. The first training workshop on English language teaching was conducted in August 2012 to rectors and key decision-makers of all Kazakhstan universities.

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Introducing Environmental Concepts through Metaphors to Adult Learners

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Abstract: The paper focuses on introducing environmental concepts like Cradle-to-Grave, Cradle-to-Cradle through metaphors during the English classes, in order to provide an effective communication about environmental issues during the teaching process, with the purpose of optimizing it to the 2nd year students in Environmental Engineering.

Key words: cognitive metaphor, cradle-to-grave, cradle-to-cradle, linear and circular economic systems

1. INTRODUCTION

This article explores how, through metaphor, students can acquire specialized vocabulary in a foreign language (English) and also knowledge in the field of environmental related issues. My attention is focused in particular on some metaphors that help people shift from a mindset that is linear, mechanistic, reductionist, expansionist, and consumerist (Cradle-to-Grave) to one that is cyclic, organic, complex, constrained, productive and self-generating (Cradle-to-Cradle).

Over the years, the metaphor approach has encountered several stages from a traditional approach that considers metaphor “as a matter of mere language” to a cognitive one that views metaphor “as a means of structuring our conceptual system and the kinds of everyday activities we perform” (Lakoff and Johnson, 111). This latter type of approach rejects the idea that metaphor is just a poetic device and states that it is part of our daily language that takes into account the society we live in, feel and interpret messages that originate in our inner and outer world. The central role that metaphor plays in our lives and way of thinking was identified and shown by George Lakoff and Mark Johnson through the cognitive approach.

For this reason, the present paper points out the key aspects of this new approach to metaphor and assesses the usage of a set of the most popular and common metaphors in the environmental-related discourse and will take into account the way they can be introduced during technical English lessons not forgetting about their interpretation in the social, economic and cultural context of the moment.

2. ENVIRONMENTAL COGNITIVE METAPHORS

This study is grounded in cognitive linguistics. The great advantage of this approach, when analyzing the environmental discourse, is that metaphor is regarded as a conceptual and linguistic phenomenon which has a great capacity of expression. (Hulban 2001, 137)

The main assumption of this paper is that metaphors pervade the environmental scientific texts that were always considered to be lacking of emotional characteristics and should have used a precise language that was consistent with reality.

The general attitude regarding metaphors changed drastically after being recognized their ability to introduce creative and didactic elements in scientific language. Effective communication, when it

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comes to science, requires a kind of translation, and the scientific community acknowledged that one of the best way to perform this translation is through metaphor. By using a word instead of another, metaphor allows us to interpret and understand abstract scientific ideas (concepts) through comparison. Metaphor allows a better comprehension of the theoretical concept through semantic transfer, and the presence of the image and relational analogy.

Metaphor can be used as an effective tool in educational practice to assist students in grasping complex concepts, to make correlations between information and the existent knowledge, to deepen conceptualizations of our social and environmental relations for a better encoding of the information into memory. Draaisma (2000) made some statements on the importance of metaphor in education considering that the combination of image and language, of graphic and abstract are ideally suited to explaining and teaching theories (Walker 2005, 76).

A special attention given to the use of metaphors in adult environmental education was also paid by Lillian Hall and Julie Johnston who stated that: "As educators, we have responsibilities for forging a broad educational belief system that involves the cultivation of awe and wonder of the earth, assisting students in their process of meaning making, creation of metaphors and worldviews that nourish our capacity to live with and in the world..." (Hall and Johnston 2003, 23).

The transformative potential of the metaphor was noticed by Barrett & Cooperrider who considered that with "an almost unconscious flash of insight" (Barrett and Cooperrider 2001, 4) it can spontaneously merge two separate worlds/realms of experience. The metaphor not only helps us understand something new, it helps to refine and adapt what we already know through a set of categories that we use when interpreting the world. Metaphoric thinking is a creative process that can help individuals in relating to the world differently. If we change the metaphors by which we see the world, we can quite literally change the way we relate to and effect change in the world.

A relevant example is that until recently the dominant metaphor in industrialized societies was a mechanistic one, the universe being seen as machine (17th century). Descartes proposed that God was a great engineer and his creation were mechanisms. Therefore, nature was seen as a set of mechanisms created by God, the engineer, who then put a piece of his God-mind into his favourite robot – man, so that he could also create machinery (Sahtouris 1996, 4).

The most commonly used concept to characterize the mechanistic system is *Cradle-to-Grave* – in fact a metaphor that speaks about a linear economic system based on the model: TAKE-MAKE-WASTE.

In the case of mechanistic system, Earth/nature was always seen as an inexhaustible source of natural resources (*nature as resource* or as a *natural capital*) that could be exploited endlessly by human beings without thinking in perspective and be considerate for the future of the next generations. It is a well known fact that with metaphors we compare the image of something (the linear model) that we know with the image of something else that we are seeking to understand (the lifecycle of products expressed by the metaphor *Cradle-to-Grave*). As we try to match the shape of one image (the mathematical representation of a line embodied by TAKE-MAKE-WASTE) we transfer our understanding of one to the other- in our case the stages passed by a finite product from its *taking the raw materials/ birth to its disposal/death*.

The Earth was always seen as the cradle of humanity where human beings altogether with other living organisms have been nurtured by Mother Earth. Mother Earth nurtured its children (living organisms), the cradle being thus a symbol of birth. On the other hand, Grave represents Death, the end of any living organism. Extrapolating this metaphor of Earth seen as a cradle for living organisms into the world of non-living ones, we may state that Cradle-to-Grave metaphor may refer on one hand to the life cycle of materials from the moment they are taken from the ground (Earth seen as a Cradle), they are transformed into finite products, used by beneficiaries and at the end of its lifecycle they are disposed in the ground as wastes (Earth seen as a grave). Therefore, there is an obvious analogy

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between the concept of creation-to-destruction in the case of non-living products and the biological process birth-to-death in case of living organisms.

This attitude continued till the 20th century when a new metaphor (that of the earth seen as a living organism) was introduced altogether with Gaia hypothesis by James Lovelock in 1972: "I see the world as a living organism of which we are part a part; not the owner, nor the tenant, not even a passenger. To exploit such as a world on the scale we do is as foolish as it would be to consider our brains supreme and the cells of other organism expendable. Would we mine our livers for nutrients for some short-term benefit?" (Lovelock 1986, 489).

McDonough and Braungart, two pioneers in ecological thinking show how conceptual metaphors can play an important part in the shift of people's mindset to an ecologically sustainable society by encouraging the approach of the circular economy instead of the linear one. In their revolutionary book *Cradle to Cradle: Remaking the way we make things* they are challenging the linear metaphors of the mechanistic mindset by advocating the implementation of new conceptual metaphors based on ecological systems thinking. Thus, McDonough and Braungart emphasize metaphors modeled on nature such as *Waste = Food/Nutrient* to encourage innovation and redesigning industry with closed loops or 'cradle-to-cradle' rather than linear *Cradle-to-Grave* characteristics.

The switch from the concept *Cradle-to-Grave* to *Cradle-to-Cradle* or from the linear economic system to a circular system consisted basically in the fact that materials are taken (TAKE), transformed into products (MAKE) and then they are reused (REUSE) in such a manner that they can be included either in a biological cycle or a technical one in order to close the loop. Thus, the new metaphor *Cradle-to-Cradle* promotes zero wastes and tries to replace an old linear approach of the economic system (linear) that is mechanistic, resource-consumer into a self-regenerating, and self-renewable circular system.

One of the most beautiful metaphors proposed by the authors to illustrate a regenerating and symbiotic self-sustainable system is that of *the cherry tree*. It seems that little or nothing is wasted in nature. What is surplus or bad for one organism often becomes another's food directly or indirectly. Every spring, a cherry tree offers a habitat and produces thousands of blossoms which provide food to humans, birds, insects and other animals in an effort to grow one tree. The blossoms and fruits that reach the ground aren't wasted because they can be nutrients for other systems and processes that nourish the tree and soil,

The authors introduce the term "nutrient" in the metaphor *Waste=Food/Nutrient* to draw an analogy between ecosystems and industrial systems and to prove how deficient is the present economic system that is non-cyclic and single-use. Our industrial systems should mimic the ecosystems considering the raw materials as nutrients that need to be efficiently cycled. There are two types of nutrients: technical nutrients that describe the inorganic or synthetic materials used to produce goods and they will serve the purpose of the technical cycle/loop within which they can be reclaimed, reused or recycled and biological nutrients that describe the organic nature of a product serving the purpose of the biological cycle/loop wherein they can be consumed or composted.

Thus, any industry's waste product can be turned into a different product or into energy, the cleaning function being one of the most promising ways to achieve and promote long-term sustainability.

3. INTRODUCTION OF ENVIRONMENTAL METAPHORS TO ADULT STUDENTS

The introduction of environmental metaphors during the English classes can be accomplished through a hands-on, multi-sensory, multi-media approach. *Each lesson should have a language as well as an environmental objective.* It also provides background on the environmental objective, a list of materials needed, a glossary of terms used in that lesson and a worksheet. Lessons should be introduced when the adult learner is already familiar with the grammatical construction emphasized in the materials. Flash cards and picture files are also included. Activating knowledge can be accomplished by presenting two or more photos. The students need to present the connections between the photos following the model of a brainstorming session. The expansion of vocabulary can be achieved by looking at different images and their equivalent words (e.g. society, environment, economy, sustainability, wastes) Students can be asked to guess what each word means based on the given image.

A good exercise to using words in context can be the explanation of a concept map/ graph/ diagramme/table or making lists (e.g. global issues). They can also develop categories according to the factors that influence these issues (e.g. local or global). The usage of sample impact diagrams determines students to choose one product (organic or inorganic) and try to disassemble it according to its ingredients/materials that are used to make the respective product (e.g. hamburger, T-shirt, computer). Students may discuss about the resources and processes required to produce each part of the good and all the impacts (social, economic and environmental) that might be related to producing and using it. Alternatively, tables can be used instead of diagrams that should include information, such as: components, ingredients, needed resources, social/economic/environmental impacts.

Group work is also a favourite activity in the classroom: one bag with trash items is distributed to each group. Discussions should be directed to its content. Alternative situation: students make a list with all the trash items they have discarded in the past 3 days. What is the common characteristic of all items. Discussions are on the content of the trash in order to define *luxury* and *necessity* for themselves, how these artifacts reflect the lifestyle of those who used and disposed the items; critical analysis of consumption; examine trends of modern disposal of material goods. Differences of opinions are encouraged.

Watching movies (e.g. The story of stuff) can lead to discussion on what factors drive consumption (cultural, social, economic, historical) but also to inquiry/critical thinking questions of the type: what are the hidden impacts of the materials or how we can start to shift our worldview and underlying assumptions around consumption.

4. CONCLUSION

Because each lesson is supposed to have a language as well as an environmental objective, the use of metaphors in educational practice is to assist students in grasping complex concepts and make correlations between information and existent knowledge share ecological knowledge on one hand and to establish cultural values for relating to the environment being focused on community priorities within a local context on other hand.

During the analysis of metaphors, it was also mentioned their transformative power. If metaphors are changed, thinking will change and if thinking is changed, actions will change (Lakoff and Johnson 1980, 145). Students, thus, are invited during the English class not only to acquire

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terminology in the field of environmental sciences or to assimilate English grammar notions but also to change their worldview on sustainability by discovering their own relation with the environment within which they are living. One means to relate to the environment is metaphor. As we previously showed, different societies can be characterized by the predominant metaphors that they use.

The new metaphors help education for sustainability to determine the reconceptualization of the relationships between the economy, society and environment – encourage transformation towards sustainability. Our economic and political systems must be redesigned using the paradigm of self-renewing, regenerative, living systems. It is a switch that requires a fundamental change in thinking because our systems don't work for the benefit of today's society and certainly for the good of the future generations.

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Texts with Known and Unknown Subjects and Related Exercises – A Case of Textbooks for English in Graphic Engineering

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Abstract: English teachers usually have a choice between a textbook from prominent publishers or a personal selection of classroom materials, with each alternative having numerous advantages and drawbacks for both the teacher and their students. The choice directly influences the quality of the learnt knowledge. However, ESP teachers usually have only the latter option. Even though there are published textbooks for major scientific areas such as Business or Electrical and Mechanical Engineering, for most ESP classes a teacher needs to find and prepare classroom material. Issues in this instance include material source identification, material authenticity, text length, material linguistic level, exercise selection, translation, etc. This paper will try to present the process of selecting an ESP classroom material and presenting it as a textbook for English in Graphic Engineering. The topics in the process relate to the question of finding material for a relatively new science and presenting it in a textbook. A particular dilemma is whether to select texts and material that students have already been acquainted for during their course of studies or to select rather unknown graphic engineering topics. The former choice brings a hint of boredom into the classroom since students are already familiar with the topic, demanding linguistic exercises to be really interesting and useful, while the latter brings unknown topics, disabling students to fully focus on linguistic matter. Two textbooks for English in Graphic Engineering written by the authors of this paper present the possible outcome of this process.

Key words: text, textbook, known text subject, unknown text subject, English for Graphic Engineering

Designing a course material for an ESP course is never an easy task. Many prominent publishers offer a range of ESP course books which stress the use of authentic texts and communicative approach with a variety of lexical and grammatical exercises designed to provide continuous progress in students' knowledge. However, on selecting a textbook, a teacher soon realizes that it does not offer everything they require for the particular course, so they turn to selecting own material from diverse sources, only to find out that choosing a text from a source is much easier than preparing the accompanying exercises and structuring this in a coherent unit. Teachers encounter many diverse problems while preparing an ESP course (see Bogdanović, Mirović and Ličen 2009; Allright 1981, etc.). These revolve around the basic postulates of teaching language for specific purposes: the focus on the learners, the needs of particular learners and the specific reasons why these learners study the language. After we define this principal reason for learning the language, this, as Hutchinson and Waters (Hutchinson and Waters 1987, 19) emphasize, determines all decisions related to the content and method of teaching.

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This paper will focus on one criterion in selecting a textbook or teaching/learning material, namely whether to provide texts with a known or an unknown subject matter. The decision made by a teacher and/or textbook author has an impact on every aspect of an ESP class, from communication and comprehension check following the reading to linguistic and grammar practice taken during the class. Consequently, it affects the measure of teacher's success in creating the course and students' participation and learning outcomes.

A student's book can be defined as "a textbook which is meant to provide the core materials for a course. It aims to provide as much as possible in one book and is designed so that it could serve as the only book learners necessarily use during a course." (Tomlinson 1998, ix). This is certainly something that every foreign language teacher, including an ESP teacher, aims at when preparing an ESP course. Core material, one book, everything already packed and served for teaching. However, not many ESP teachers have the experience with this kind of material and, in practice, they more often work with books that can be defined as "an organized and pre-packaged set of teaching / learning materials" (Hutchinson and Torres 1994, 328) that took years to collect, select and present to students. When considering ESP teaching, Harding (Harding 2007, 7) in his book entitled *English for Specific Purposes. Resource Books for Teachers* argues that every ESP teacher has five key roles: they have to teach a foreign language, they have to design the course and prepare the course material, they have to research the course material within the special field of ESP, they have to coordinate their course with the specific field subject and the subject teacher, and they have to constantly evaluate course curricula and evaluation tests (i.e. their roles include: a teacher, a course designer and materials provider, a collaborator, a researcher, and an evaluator). It is by no means an easy task, and it is much more than just finding a textbook and entering the class of students.

Many authors have addressed the issue of whether to use a ready-made textbook in ESP teaching or to develop one's own material and present it to students. In his often cited paper entitled "What do we want teaching material for?" R. L. Allright (Allright 1981) suggests selecting the learning material, providing it for students and then, during its implementation, monitoring and evaluating its use and effectiveness for subsequent decisions made along the course. Allright argues that there are two possible approaches regarding the role of teaching materials. One is the deficiency view, which would imply selecting the teaching material which can compensate any deficiencies on the part of the teacher. The other is the difference view, where the teaching material is to be organized by an expert and the teacher's job is only to present it. Both views have their merits, especially since they emphasize the role of the author of the ESP material over that of its presenter/teacher. Swan (Swan 1992, 33, in: Hutchinson and Torres 1994, 315), on the other hand, believes that textbooks have the disadvantage of relieving teacher from the responsibility for creating each course individually. Many teachers contradict this point of view arguing that creating each course individually is extremely time-consuming and thus emphasize the value of adopting published textbooks in saving time. The abundance of new textbooks which are published regularly by renowned publishing houses such as Longman, Oxford and Cambridge suggests that textbooks with global topics can be used globally. This opinion is shared by Swales (Swales 1980, 14) who justifies the use of textbooks but warns that they should not be the only teaching material in a classroom. His opinion is shared by Hutchinson and Waters (Hutchinson and Waters 1987, 96) who believe that textbooks should be chosen carefully and then adapted according to the needs analysis. The same opinion is presented by O'Neill (O'Neill 1982) stating that, regardless of the needs analysis of a specific group, there are always two or three textbooks which provide "us with a grammatical and functional framework within which we could work" (O'Neill 1982, 106). For example, no matter what the special demands or even students' knowledge levels may be, each ESP textbook provides explanations regarding cause and effect, questions and propositions, technical vocabulary, modal verbs, etc. "Almost always a textbook can be found which will provide the core language which is necessary and useful for a group whose needs

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may at first sight seem unique.“ (O’Neill 1982, 106). In a situation when one textbook will not suffice, two or three can be used simultaneously in the class, or, after spending a lot of time researching, a teacher may eventually gather the teaching material and publish it as a textbook.

One of the important elements to be considered while selecting material for an ESP textbook is its content. ESP textbooks should provide the content which is interesting to students, which engages their minds and makes them eager to learn the language. Furthermore, the learnt content should provide students with the knowledge necessary for finding an employment and participating in all English spoken and written communication related to their job (Harding 2007, 3). Another issue in the choice of texts for ESP course book relates to the level of complexity of these texts. There are two approaches regarding this matter (Khoshima and Abusaeedi 2009, 118). According to one, restricted specialist context that is too elementary and familiar actually de-motivates the learners. Even if they are interested in the content, the proponents of this view argue, the learners are not interested in the language presented; hence they do not make any progress here. The opposite opinion emphasises the relevance of the content which should be simple and understandable, since then students focus on how the message is conveyed and acquire the language in the process. Learners become more interested in a language and classes when they realise how easily they learn and how interesting the classes have been. This is known as the content-based approach, and it has proven itself to be rather efficient. In content-based teaching, a real situation which the learners are interested in is created, and the language then accompanies the situation. There is no special time attributed to language itself. The real situation, i.e. the content provides a motivational and cognitive basis for learning since it is of interest and of some value for the learners.

This has also been the starting point of our research when gathering material for English courses for Graphic Engineering. In 1999, at the Faculty of Technical Sciences, University of Novi Sad, a new department, Department for Graphic Engineering and Design, was established. It was the first department for this engineering field in Serbia, and, like many other teachers at the Department, the English teachers were faced with the task of providing suitable course material. They considered the fact that, by the time graphic engineering students enter ESP classes at the third and fourth year of studies, they have acquired considerable knowledge in the area of graphic engineering and design and have also completed two years of general English university instructions (in addition to the language classes they may or may not have had during previous schooling). So, the challenge was to find the course material (due to the lack of student’s books by prominent publishers) adequate for both their language and engineering knowledge.

In 2007, after years of preparing the course material, the student’s book *Engleski jezik 1 za grafičko inženjerstvo i dizajn* was published. The textbook has 13 Modules, each comprising the introduction exercises, texts for reading, comprehension check exercises and language study exercises. The skeleton of each Module is intentionally uniform for better organization and better comprehension by students. Since they are engineering students, they find structure and organization to be very important for their learning process. There are 24 texts for reading, from one to three per Module.

The first task in creating the course was to find the material. At that time, apart from the Internet that presents, in Stern’s words, “a supportive language environment” (Stern 1983, 211) the only two books providing material for both English and all the other graphic engineering and design classes were Kipphan’s *Handbook of Print Media* (Kipphan 2001) and Romano and Romano’s *The GATF Encyclopedia of Graphic Communications* (Romano and Romano 1998). Hence, the sources for the texts were these two books, the Internet and newspapers. In the end, the textbook contains 5 texts from the *Handbook of Print Media*, 4 texts from *The GATF Encyclopedia of Graphic Communications*, 3 texts from newspapers (*The Economist* and *Financial Times*) and 12 texts from the Internet (websites related to graphic engineering and publishing). There were more texts during the

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process of creating the course, but they were discarded mostly due to bad comprehension by students and their inadequacy to present an interesting reading in the class.

The initial standpoint taken by the textbook authors was the content-based approach. Thus, in the selection of material care was taken to ensure that the texts be easily understood by students of graphic engineering, simple in terms of content, and short. The idea was that when students are presented with tasks that are not too demanding they will be willing to speak more freely and to communicate more, especially if they are familiar with both the subject matter and the language. For that reason, the majority of the texts were taken from the Internet, covering the topics like types of printing, types of printing products (basic topics in the area of graphic engineering), as well as some interesting data on printing and publishing. The texts from the two books on graphic engineering were also rather general and came from the introductory chapters to different graphic engineering topics.

The texts were closely related to the students' field of studies as the authors agreed to cover only the topics students are familiar with. This was ensured through the inspection of students curricula related to other subjects and in conversation with teachers of other graphic engineering subjects. In fact, many of the English texts were used by the teachers in their own classes, and some were even given to students as source material for seminar papers (which usually meant that they were simply translated by students). The students were thus familiar with the subject matter to be spoken about in English classes, so they could devote more time to acquire and learn ESP.

Following the approach based on easiness and simplicity, all the texts in the textbook were adapted from the original source. Over the years, it has become clear that authentic texts present a better material for learning (Lee 1995; Martinez 2002; Baird 2004, in: Radenković Šošić and Božović 2011) since they present the real language designed for native speakers and not for language learners. However, there is still certain dilemma whether to adapt these original texts or not (see Bogdanović, Mirović and Ličen 2009). The authors evaluated the knowledge of several generations of graphic engineering students and decided that adapted texts would better suit their knowledge, concerning both English and subject matter.

Certain grammatical structures were also adapted, and some texts were even modified to provide better examples for the language study of the Module. Following the needs analysis the authors identified the major linguistic items to be covered during the class, and in some cases, replaced the original grammar content. It was also decided that text length should not exceed two pages (29 lines per B4 page, spacing 1.5), so the texts were shortened or divided in half accordingly.

The English classes over the past years proved the authors to have made a good choice. The students like coming to classes. They participate in the conversation since they are always familiar with the subject. They read the text easily and in their comprehension process use good strategies like guessing the unknown words from the context and making use of the background knowledge. They remember what they had learnt on the topic from other classes and they try to present that in the class. Classes have proven themselves to be very productive. Students always point out that they like the fact of reading about a known subject and understanding it in English. "Content knowledge or background knowledge (...) helps readers to make predictions about the meaning of the words, make logical connections within a text, infer things or engage in comprehension monitoring. That is why we can present our students with subject specific texts and authentic material related to their area of study." (Mirović, Gak and Bogdanović 2012, 198). Also, they like providing explanations in English whenever the teacher is not familiar with the subject matter, or asks for additional explanation on certain points from the text, which is an excellent exercise for their self-confidence (see Šain 2009 for more details). Therefore, when reading and comprehension are considered, simple texts with known subject suit the ESP classes.

However, the potential problems occur with the comprehension check exercises. They are all based on the idea of repeating the information again, and even though exercises are rather diverse,

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they are not very appealing to students. The exercises include true or false sentences, answering the questions, explaining the terminology, finishing definitions, rephrasing and summarizing. Although they like reading and discussing, once they finish the topic, students are reluctant to rehearse it through exercises. Boredom is evident in their faces whenever Comprehension check is mentioned. It seems that the prevailing attitude is that, after the subject matter has been discussed in other classes and has been read and discussed in English, there is no need to go over it again.

On the other hand, the so-called language study exercises have proven to be more interesting and appealing to students. They find learning new linguistic elements easy. They like the fact that they can do the exercises quickly and with ease, and they like boosting with their knowledge of the language. Even when they do not know something, due to the familiarity with the text, they can scan the text easily and find the answer quickly.

During the years of teaching with the textbook, the authors have also become aware of one more disadvantage of texts with the known subject. The problem is students' evaluation at the end of the course, particularly the oral examination where they are expected to talk about the topics discussed during the classes. Unlike the grammar aspects of the course, which are evaluated via written tests and which the students feel they have to prepare for, they are not adequately prepared for the oral part of the examination. The familiarity with the subject matter sometimes gives students a false sense of confidence in being prepared to talk about it in English and the results are not always at the appropriate level. Another potential problem at the oral examination is related to students who draw on the knowledge they have acquired at other courses during their studies. Even though their answers are correct, when the knowledge presented comes from other classes, and not from the ESP class, it presents a problem in grading (especially if certain linguistic aspects are missing).

Being aware of all these facts, the authors of this paper (and the textbook for graphic engineering and design) decided to adopt a different approach while preparing the second textbook, *Engleski jezik 2 za grafičko inženjerstvo i dizajn*, which was published in 2011. The approach was again content-based, but this time the content was more complex. Namely, the level of text complexity was raised, and the level of difficulty of the accompanying exercises increased accordingly. This second textbook has more texts (30 texts spread over 13 Modules). The Internet was used less, while the graphic engineering books were used more. Even though the Department of Graphic Engineering acquired some new books in their library, the selection was again on the two previously used books due to the familiarity with terminology and style. In total, 8 texts in the second textbook come from the *Handbook of Print Media* and 7 from *The GATF Encyclopedia of Graphic Communications*. In addition, 6 texts were taken from new sources: 2 from a Research Report and 4 from diverse prospects. The second textbook has only 1 text from a newspaper (*The Economist*) and 8 texts from the Internet. Texts were intentionally longer, from 2 to 4 pages (again, B4 page with 1.5 spacing). Students claim these texts to be more difficult and more demanding, hence more challenging. Even though the students are familiar with the topics in general, the actual subject matter is unknown to them. Either it is something that they will learn in their Master studies, or the subjects cover particular aspects, printing items and terminology not discussed by their teachers in engineering classes. Of course, this choice of material had to be done in cooperation with other teachers from the Department. Furthermore, one third of the texts deal with the topics related to the fields of environmental protection, management and procurement that students have not yet encountered in their course of studies.

The results were really unexpected. Many authors (Grabe and Stoller 1997; Krapp, Hidi and Renninger 1992; Savignon 1991; Marsh and Lange 1999) argue that texts with unknown subjects would motivate students to work more. Our experience proved students to be repelled by unknown subjects. On reading the text, they claim not to understand anything. They were not eager to discuss the topic, and every communication about the subject failed. Far from being motivated to learning

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something new, they began avoiding participation in the class. Even if the teacher tried to spend more time with the Introduction, asking questions they are familiar with and introducing the topic bit by bit, the students' participation failed. Hence, one can say that texts with unknown subjects present a difficulty in ESP classes.

On the other hand, the same students were more eager to do exercises, especially those related to comprehension check. In addition to the types of exercises used in the first textbook, the second textbook provided more multiple choice exercises and gap filling exercises, which the students preferred and were very interested in doing. They found comprehension check to be a useful step-by-step method of understanding the text and the subject matter. However, on completing these exercises, they were still not confident enough to communicate about the subject. Also, they were more willing to do language study. Grammar elements in the second textbook are at a higher level, covering discussions (agreeing/disagreeing), word formation, linking expressions, reduced relative clauses, etc. Even though these were aspects of grammar students were not familiar with, they encountered few problems in practicing and learning them. Hence, the linguistic part of the class proved to be much more successful.

Oral examinations following this textbook differ as well, and from the teachers' standpoint they are more successful. Due to the unfamiliarity with the subject matter students have a stronger feeling of lacking certain knowledge and skills and spend more time at home preparing for the examination. They reread the texts with unknown subjects and try to interpret them well. Majority pays more attention to grammar, especially those elements learnt during the classes, which they try to incorporate in their communication in English. In addition, in a situation when a student tries to improvise the answer relying on the memory from other courses, the results are unsatisfactory. There is no other way of passing the examination than learning new topics and new terminology, so in the end, the teachers have the sense of achievement, and so probably do the students.

Our findings altogether support the claim by Morrow and Shocker that students are more motivated and therefore more successful if the ESP course is based on the material closer and more relevant to them. "[T]he focus is not on process or model in terms of student use of pre-identified areas of language, but rather it is on the content of the text itself. The rationale for the choice of text has to do not with uses to which it can be put, but with the subject matter involved." (Morrow and Shocker 1978, 249, in: Khoshsim and Abusaedi 2009, 118).

Finally, one cannot argue definitely which texts, with or without known subjects, are better in ESP classes. Both should be incorporated in a textbook or teaching material, though a teacher should be aware of their advantages and drawbacks. Our experience seems to suggest that texts with familiar subject matter would be more appropriate in the initial phase of an ESP course primarily because they create positive reaction with the students. However, in order to master the complexities of ESP material students also need to be exposed to texts with unfamiliar topics which then can be integrated in the second half of the course. Of course, it is with each teacher to make this kind of decision based on the mentioned findings as well as all other relevant aspects of their course and their students' needs. One can only follow Cunningsworth's claim that "there is no perfect textbook which meets all the requirements of teachers and students. Instead, it is the responsibility of the teacher to explore his own way of using or adapting the course book." (Cunningsworth 1984, 4).

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English for Land Surveying

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Abstract: Language for Specific Purposes (LSP) focuses on teaching a foreign language to learners who have specific needs: they either need to learn a language for their occupation (Language for Occupational Purposes) or for their studies (Language for Academic Purposes). This paper focuses on teaching Land Surveying (Geodetic) English to the native speakers of Polish. First, it investigates which Polish universities offer Land Surveying courses and whether they have English for Land Surveying in their curriculum. Then, it tries to establish what units are responsible for teaching LSP and how English for Land Surveying modules are structured and organized. It also analyses materials that have been developed for teaching English for Land Surveying. The second part of the paper presents my own approach to teaching this type of English which combines the expertise in Land Surveying field with translation and didactics experience. It discusses a 10-week course I designed and run for students of Land Surveying. The paper concludes by providing the students' evaluation of the content of the course, its usefulness for current studies and future careers and indications of aspects that could be improved to make the course more interesting.

Key words: Land Surveying, Geodesy, English for Academic Purposes (EAP), English for Occupational Purposes (EOP), Language for Specific Purposes (LSP)

1. INTRODUCTION

Land surveying is the scientific discipline concerned with the precise figure of the Earth and its mathematical description. The name of the field is used interchangeably with *geodesy*, especially in the continental Europe (Hycner & Dobrowolska-Wesołowska 2008, 16). Originally, land surveys depended on measuring boundaries but as the field evolved they also incorporated other types of measurements such as setting out buildings, measuring axes and coordinates of roads, tunnels and bridges, angular and distance measurements, levelling, etc. The field is named *surveying* in the Anglo-Saxon tradition (Ghilani & Wolf 2008, 1) but many European researchers oppose this name claiming it is not distinctive enough as anything can be surveyed, e.g. literature survey.

In Poland there are currently thirteen state universities that offer Land Surveying (Geodetic) courses at both undergraduate and postgraduate level. This group may be enhanced by Akademia Pomorska w Słupsku 'Pomeranian University in Słupsk' (marked with an asterisk in Table 1) that is planning to start teaching Land Surveying in the academic year 2013/2014. There are also 11 non-public universities, most of which offer Land Surveying courses at undergraduate level, while some also have MSc studies in the studies programmes (Kierunki Studiów 2013). Table 1 presents public and non-public universities offering Land Surveying courses in Poland.

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Table 1 Breakdown of universities offering Land Surveying courses into public and non-public ones

Public universities	Non-public universities
*Akademia Pomorska w Słupsku 'Pomeranian University in Słupsk'	Dolnośląska Szkoła Wyższa we Wrocławiu 'University of Lower Silesia in Wrocław'
Akademia Górniczo-Hutnicza w Krakowie 'AGH University of Science and Technology in Krakow'	Kujawsko-Pomorska Szkoła Wyższa w Bydgoszczy 'Kujawy and Pomorze University in Bydgoszcz'
Akademia Morska w Szczecinie 'Maritime University in Szczecin'	Radomska Szkoła Wyższa 'Radom Higher School'
Państwowa Wyższa Szkoła Techniczno-Ekonomiczna w Jarosławiu 'State School of Higher Vocational Education in Jarosław'	Spoleczna Akademia Nauk w Łodzi 'Social Academy of Sciences in Łódź'
Politechnika Gdańska 'Gdansk University of Technology'	Uczelnia Warszawska im. Marii Curie-Skłodowskiej 'Maria Skłodowska-Curie Warsaw Higher School'
Politechnika Koszalińska 'Koszalin University of Technology'	Wyższa Szkoła Biznesu i Przedsiębiorczości w Ostrowcu Świętokrzyskim 'University of Business and Enterprise in Ostrowiec Swietokrzyski'
Politechnika Świętokrzyska w Kielcach 'Kielce University of Technology'	Wyższa Szkoła Gospodarki Krajowej w Kutnie 'Academy of National Economy in Kutno'
Politechnika Warszawska 'Warsaw University of Technology'	Wyższa Szkoła Humanistyczna we Wrocławiu 'Wrocław College of Humanities'
Politechnika Wroclawska 'Wrocław University of Technology'	Wyższa Szkoła Inżynierii Gospodarki w Słupsku 'Higher School of Economy Engineering in Słupsk'
Uniwersytet Przyrodniczy w Lublinie 'University of Life Sciences in Lublin'	Wyższa Szkoła Inżynieryjno-Ekonomiczna w Rzeszowie 'Rzeszow School of Engineering and Economics'
Uniwersytet Przyrodniczy we Wrocławiu 'Wrocław University of Environmental and Life Sciences'	Wyższa Szkoła Przedsiębiorczości w Nowym Sączu 'Higher Education Professional College of Nowy Sącz'
Uniwersytet Rolniczy w Krakowie 'Agricultural	

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University of Krakow'	
Uniwersytet Warmińsko-Mazurski w Olsztynie 'University of Warmia and Mazury in Olsztyn'	
Wojskowa Akademia Techniczna w Warszawie 'Military University of Technology in Warsaw'	

Although there are certain restrictions regarding the number of students who can be accepted by a given university to undertake Land Surveying studies every year, the number of students who start Geodetic studies and consequently, the number of Geodesy graduates are constantly increasing. Universities get funding for each student; therefore more students the university can accept, more funding it can get. For example, AGH University of Science and Technology can offer places to as many as 210 undergraduate full-time students in Krakow and 210 postgraduate full-time students. The number of students who commence part-time (extramural) studies on both undergraduate and postgraduate levels is 180 in Krakow only. These figures need to be enhanced by adding 50 undergraduate students in Nowy Sącz and 60 students in Ruda Śląska (both being AGH University branches) who start their part-time, undergraduate studies every year (Wydział Geodezji Górniczej i Inżynierii Środowiska AGH 2012). The numbers of students commencing Land Surveying education at other public universities typically correspond to the university reputation. The most prestigious public universities have the highest numbers of students, while those less known or situated in less popular academic cities, e.g. in Kielce have fewer students.

Whereas the range of modules students of Land Surveying are taught and their content is similar at most universities and typically depend on specialisation they choose (e.g. Engineering Geodesy, Real Estate Management, Photogrammetry) or the profile of university (e.g. Agricultural Universities typically specialise in Agricultural Geodesy while Universities of Technology have a more mathematical focus and specialise in Geomatics), the quality of language education differs significantly between universities, particularly with respect to teaching LSP.

2. TEACHING LSP AT POLISH UNIVERSITIES

As a Geodesy graduate (2005), I had no LSP classes during my undergraduate and postgraduate studies at Wrocław University of Environmental and Life Sciences. My husband, who completed MSc studies in Photogrammetry at AGH University of Science and Technology had a one-term Geodetic English course organised by the Geodesy Department at his University. It was quite an exception as language courses at Polish universities are typically run by Institutes for Foreign Languages, which are University units. Students in the past could only select general language courses taught by language tutors at such institutes. These courses typically did not have a very good reputation due to large groups (10-15 people) and low standards of teaching.

I decided to examine whether after nearly a decade standards for teaching LSP have changed at Polish universities and what has been done in this direction. In order to narrow the research sample,

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I focused on language courses offered by public universities. I consulted websites of their Institutes for Foreign Languages in order to find information on language courses they offer. My research revealed that students of these universities are expected to attend the first foreign language course for 4 semesters (30 hours/ term, classes are held once a week) which equals 120 hours during their undergraduate studies. The target is to learn the first foreign language on B2 (intermediate or upper-intermediate) level. Postgraduate students need to select a second foreign language and attend 60-hour course (2 semesters), while they may learn it on a basic level, especially if they start from the scratch. The most popular foreign language is English, while German is in the second place.

The analysis of LSP teaching revealed that some universities are quite advanced in teaching LSP, whereas others do not seem to offer any LSP training or their website do not include any information about it.

English courses offered by 'Maritime University in Szczecin' are the most advanced English for Land Surveying courses which are taught at Polish Universities. English course for students of Land Surveying is run for 4 semesters (30 hours/term). It starts as a general language course. In the second semester students are introduced to technical English: Basic mathematical terms, Geometry and logic, Branches of technology and Vocabulary used to talk about studies. Semesters 3 and 4 are devoted to Geodetic English only. Classes are organised according to the book *Geo-English* by Czerw et al. (2010). The other book used in the course is *Oxford English for Careers: Technology 1* by Eric H. Glendinning (2009).

Students of 'Warsaw University of Technology' learn technical English during their general language course. They are introduced to numbers, shapes, fractions, mathematical symbols and formulas, equations, Greek alphabet, Latin abbreviations and vocabulary related to their course structure and studies. After mastering English at B2 level they can take a thematic course for Land Surveyors that lasts for 30 hours (1 term). In this course they learn geodetic, cartographic, photogrammetric and GPS terminology and they practice all language skills. If students want to learn thematic language for more than one term, they can do so, but they have to pay the fee for the course.

A few universities seem to be teaching LSP but they provide quite limited information about it. Students of the 'Military University of Technology in Warsaw', after mastering the English language on B2 level, can take thematic English courses or attend other language courses. Courses for students teach them how to work with specialised literature in English. The website does not include information whether students can learn English for Land Surveying.

'Gdansk University of Technology' offers LSP courses to a number of specialisations: architecture, mechanics, electronics, but excluding geodesy. An interesting feature of general language courses at this university is the fact that students are taught how to write CVs, cover letters, notes, reviews and reports.

'University of Life Sciences in Lublin' offers LSP components in general language courses. Students who take English courses on B2 level for 2 terms have around 20 hours of technical English in 30-hour course. Technical English is designed for students of the Faculty of Production Engineering where the Geodesy course belongs to. In the first semester students learn technical English from the text book. In the second semester students work on individual projects related to their specialisations and prepare presentations. Theory and practice of formulating the topics of the theses is also discussed in the course.

According to the website of 'Koszalin University of Technology' students may take LSP courses if their level of language is good enough. However, no data is provided on the character and content of these courses.

'Wroclaw University of Environmental and Life Sciences' offers no LSP courses to its students but it made use of E-learning platform (Moodle) where materials related to five thematic areas: Natural Disasters, Food, Biodiversity, Pollution and Climate have been published. Each module

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includes 10-11 specialised texts and a few 5 to 10-min movies that refer to these texts. In 2011/2012 E-learning was combined with blended learning. They can do some exercises themselves at home whereas these that require the supervision of the teacher are done in the class.

‘Wroclaw University of Technology’ also benefits from e-learning projects: ‘Virtual Learning Environment: Specialised Language in the engineer workplace’ and ‘Scientific and technical language’. Didactic materials are available to students and academic staff but no information is provided on whether/how they are used in the class and whether LSP courses are offered by the University.

3. MATERIALS AVAILABLE FOR TEACHING GEODETIC ENGLISH

Although ‘AGH University of Science and Technology’ does not excel in teaching LSP, it certainly plays the leading role in the development of materials for teaching LSP in Poland, in particular in the context of geodesy, geology and environmental studies. It has published a number of textbooks used for teaching LSP: *Technical English in Petroleum Engineering* by Broniowska and Skrynicka-Knapczyk (2011), *English for Mathematics* by Krukiewicz-Gacek and Trzaska (2009), *Geological English* by Pasierbiewicz (2009), *English for Students of Geology* by Kowalczyk (2013) and *Geo-English* by Czerw et al (2011). The last book is particularly relevant for teaching Geodetic English and is used as a course book by a few Polish universities.

The book consists of thirty sections which familiarise the learner with topics of environmental engineering and protection, geodesy, cartography and related fields such as civil engineering. The book includes basic mathematical terminology which is crucial for students of Faculties of Surveying and Environmental Engineering as well as vocabulary related to studies, university, its departments and schools. The book includes a range of materials that develop various language skills. Each unit typically starts from a text to read, followed by reading comprehension exercises and vocabulary and listening exercises. Some sections also include tasks for practising speaking and word formation skills. Two CDs with listening exercises are attached to the book. The book also includes a glossary of terms and expressions that appear in it and key to exercises. Therefore, it may also be used as a self-study material.

The other book which may be used for teaching Geodetic English, although not being a textbook in a strict sense, is *Geodesy, Surveying and Professional Ethics* by Hycner and Dobrowolska-Wesołowska (2008). The book provides a selection of source texts with their translations. It includes sections on Survey Measurements and Adjustment, Field and Office Work, Basic Survey Measurement, Levelling, Angle and Direction Measurement. Combined Distance and Angular Measurement Systems, Survey Operations, Modern Surveying and Mapping, Type of Surveys, Evidence for Boundary Locations and Professionalism and Ethics in Surveying. The final pages of the book comprise the English-Polish mini-dictionary of key-words and questions and answers section. The book does not focus on developing language skills but constitutes a reference material and may be a good basis for creating language materials and exercises. The advantage of the book is certainly the fact that it was written by a team consisting of an academic specialising in the field of geodesy and cadastre (prof. Hycner) and a teacher of English (Dobrowolska-Wesołowska, MA).

Apart from these two books, I have not identified any other publications on the Polish market which could be implemented for teaching Geodetic English. I found a text/work book *Technical English for Geosciences* by Brigitte Markner-Jäger (2008). The book discusses subjects from the following branches; Applied Geology, Geotechnology/ Geoengineering, Mine-ralogy, Hydrology,

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Mining and Rehabilitation, Meteorology and Water and Waste Management. Thus, it covers fields that are related to Land Surveying and may be used to enhance the content of the Geodetic English course. Texts in the book come from various authentic materials including advertisement brochures, scientific monographs and internet sources. Learning terminology is the main focus of the book and it is practiced through various exercises.

The Oxford series, *Oxford English for Careers* includes positions on technology and on oil and gas, whose components may be used in teaching Geodetic English. For example, *Technology 1* has sections *Studying technology* and *Careers in technology*, whereas *Oil and gas 1* has a section *Finding oil and gas* and *Oil and gas 2 – Careers in oil and gas*. The series includes exercises to practice grammar, vocabulary and listening.

4. ENGLISH COURSE FOR STUDENTS OF GEODESY AND CARTOGRAPHY OF THE AGRICULTURAL UNIVERSITY OF KRAKOW

I decided to combine my technical background (MSc in Geodesy and Cartography) with linguistic education and experience (PhD in translation, specialisation: land surveying terminology) to organise a course for students of Geodesy and Cartography. I used this course as a kind of pilot study into LSP teaching in Poland as it allowed me to familiarise myself with sources that are available for teaching Geodetic English (apart from the ones that have already been mentioned), to build a course syllabus, to design my own materials for teaching Geodetic English and to examine which teaching methods are the most efficient and enable students to acquire the knowledge.

I advertised the Geodetic English course at the Agricultural University of Krakow and after a few informational meetings; two students from the third year of BSc studies have decided to take the course. In order to determine how to design the Geodetic English course, the need analysis was carried out (Hutchinson & Waters 1987, 53). Students stated that they wanted to learn the technical language in order to work abroad in the future. As they have to write their BSc thesis in a year, they were also interested in learning how to write abstracts and summaries, identifying the most suitable lexicographic resources that could help them with this task and finding out where to find English literature referring to various geodetic topics. The level of general English the two students had was varied: one student had a pre-intermediate level of English which was reflected particularly in grammar and speaking skills, while the other student's level of English could be described as upper-intermediate as the student was very good at speaking and writing.

5. SYLLABUS DESIGN

When developing the course syllabus, the fact that students need to learn English both for their occupation (English for Occupational Purposes) and for their studies (English for Academic Purposes) was taken into account (Verguts & Weylandt 2011).

As it has been agreed with students that the course will last for 10 weeks and classes will take place once a week (2 teaching hours – 90 minutes), I decided to divide the content of the course into the following topics:

1. University education in the UK, Land Surveying courses – marking schemes and degrees
2. Careers in Land Surveying, finding job offers and applying for jobs; writing CVs and cover letters.
3. Land Surveying: definition, types of Land Surveying, errors in land surveys, maps and plans.

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4. Levelling: levelling instruments, levelling staves, general procedure of levelling.
5. The theodolite and its use: old vs. modern instruments for angle measurements; optical distance measurements.
6. Land surveyor's equipment; naming different parts of instruments in the pictures; as land surveying devices. Application of land surveying measurements – open pit mines. Mathematical terminology – numbers and fractions.
7. GPS – structure and operation of Global Positioning System. Applications of GPS. Mathematical terminology: ordinal numbers, mathematical operations.
8. Cartography: types of thematic maps, symbols used on maps.
9. Eco-tourism. Writing a summary of a text on tourism. Benchmark hunting as a kind of hobby.
10. Revision of vocabulary studied in the course. Job interview. Discussion on land surveying careers on the basis of pictures.

The course syllabus was organised on the basis of the need analysis and the content of existing materials for teaching English as well as the textbook for Surveying by Bannister et al. (1998).

6. MATERIALS DESIGN

When looking for course materials, I found out that I can use some sections from the book *Geo-English*. but I will also need to design lots of materials myself in order to cover my syllabus. The task-based teaching materials were developed taking into account the learners' needs (Verguts & Weylandt 2011). The input for most of the topics comprises a text which students need to read in order to familiarise themselves with the topic in English. Sometimes the input may be a table, as in case of different types of thematic maps or a picture as for land surveying equipment. The text is followed by reading comprehension exercises that develop text understanding such as answering questions related to the text, matching designations with their definitions or writing up definitions for items included in the text. The lexical exercises include word formation, finding synonyms and antonyms, completing phrases with prepositions, deciphering abbreviations, finding collocations, matching English terms with their Polish equivalents, naming instruments and their parts in English. There were also some listening components which depended on listening to the recordings from the book *Geo-English* and completing relevant exercises from the book or watching short movies about surveying profession on YouTube and discussing them in the class. The speaking component was a natural element of every class as the input and students' task were discussed in English only. Writing skills were practised by preparing CVs and cover letters in response to job offers students could select and by writing technical text summaries. In order to work on their writing students were also given small tasks which depended on translating sentences from Polish into English.

7. LEARNER ASSESSMENT

As the course was not a part of the academic curriculum but was taken by students as an optional course, they sometimes lacked motivation for revising materials. Providing them with homework which included less time-consuming exercises such as filling the gaps in the text or translating sentences was an efficient method of encouraging them to work. However, when students were asked to write a summary, CV or a cover letter, it turned out to be quite demanding for them and they usually needed a couple of weeks to complete such tasks. The quality of their outputs was not always to the expected standards which confirmed that they lacked writing skills and experience.

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In order to test students' progress, short tests were organised at the beginning of the classes. They typically depended on translating words or sentences into English, finding synonyms/ antonyms for the items provided or naming various items in English. Sometimes students were given pictures and had to describe them or were provided with flashcards with terms they came across in their classes. One person had to provide a definition/description of the item in English and the other one had to guess the name of this item. Students found this technique of revising vocabulary very efficient and used it eagerly.

8. COURSE EVALUATION

The general feedback on the course content, materials and quality of delivery was positive although there are some areas that could be improved. I noticed that the input for the class needs to be really varied. Students seemed to be quite discouraged when they had to read long texts from the textbook by Bannister et al. (1998) for three classes in a row. It is also important to give students a variety of tasks to do and introduce them to the innovative tasks such as flashcards, quizzes and visual materials. What is more, the topic related to thematic cartography was new to students as they had not had a thematic cartography course yet. Therefore, certain concepts were not easy to follow.

It also turned out that the level of general English students had before the course was significant. If students could be divided into groups with the same level of English, working with them would be more efficient. It would allow the teacher to spend more time working on the gaps in their knowledge which was necessary to improve other skills (e.g. writing skills could not be significantly improved without eliminating deficiencies in grammar).

Developing the course materials is certainly a challenge and more research could be done on this aspect of LSP teaching. It would be very interesting to examine how bilingual corpora may be used in teaching LSP, how corpus analysis tools such as concordancers can help in preparing course materials and how to design E-learning course for Geodetic English.

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Development of Professionally Relevant Skills (interdisciplinary approach)

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Abstract: The paper deals with the issues related to the new content of instruction and multimedia materials for engineering students. It is devoted to the design and development of learning materials using IT tools. The ESP English courses in the field of Mechanical Engineering are based on the power of interdisciplinary relations: the English language, IT tools, core subjects and majors. The gained teaching experience is shared and the results obtained are discussed. Fusion and stirring up of the interdisciplinary mechanisms contribute to better language acquisition and communication. Interactive exercises and assignments considerably reduce the classroom time and the students are given better opportunities for autonomous activities. The new content of instruction meets the state standards and contributes to the development of professionally relevant student skills and competences.

Key words: multimedia ESP materials, multidisciplinary approach, professionally relevant skills, technical university

1. INTRODUCTION

The trends in the development of modern education are: introduction of information technologies, content renewal, interdisciplinary approach and others. The goal is to make engineering education effective, to show means and ways to create the integral world picture and to meet the modern challenges. One can't but notice the discrepancy between high standards put forward by the society for the graduates in engineering and means to achieve them. To enhance a foreign language teaching at technical university and to update the content in ESP it is necessary to address to the powers of information technologies and interdisciplinary relations.

Interdisciplinary approach is considered to be the basis for the new content development. The idea is to involve and make active mutual links of the subjects accumulated in the ESP course. The phenomenon of interdisciplinary relations was the subject of investigation, concerning the developments in the English for Specific Purposes (Dudley-Evans, Tony, 1998), methodological foundations (Гурьева. И., 2002), integrated model for teaching informatics and English (Лукьяненко Н.Г., 2007), integration of vocational and language instruction (Айнутдинова И.Н., 2012) and others. But this issue has never been focused on engineering students mastering ESP course at technical university. The interdisciplinary impact on the development of professionally relevant skills in ESP has not been the matter of analyses.

The aim of this paper is to present some ideas on interdisciplinary application in LSP teaching and research. The paper is devoted to the issues of pedagogical ways and means to cultivate the system of interdisciplinary powers within the university specially organized information environment. The idea is to design and create the ESP courses for engineering students on the basis of interdisciplinary approach and thus to contribute to the development of professionally relevant skills.

To be successful in life and to meet engineering challenges students should acquire “*fusion skills*” flourishing from several subjects including a foreign language, informatics, core subjects and majors. One may also distinguish ‘the key competences’ which allow people to deal with different circumstances in everyday and professional activities. These competences do not belong to any particular subject as they are interdisciplinary.

According to the State Standards of High Vocational Education, bachelors-engineers in the field of Mechanical Engineering should possess communicative skills sufficient to comprehend advances and technologies in their area of interest and to deal with technical drawings, manuals, guidelines and others. The required professionally relevant skills are: to be good at IT tools (both as a user and an expert), to have oral and written communicative skills and to have a good foreign language command, to be able to make quest for scientific and engineering information in electronic resources. Besides, we can’t but mention the intellectual skills that are also cultivated and acquired in the designed ESP course. Such exercises as guessing of unknown words through logical prompts in the context turned to be fruitful. These skills are based on insight and there is no use to consult a dictionary. As for the category of academic skills they are universal and are attributed to all the subjects. They are transferred on the language acquisition and could be developed in the ESP course as well. For example, skills to analyze, evaluate and compare information, to find the leading idea and the key words, to give reasoning, to compress the facts and others are common to the most of the subjects.

2. CONTENT ARRANGEMENT

Electronic authentic engineering discourse has been borrowed from the Internet guidelines and manuals to lay the foundation of ESP course. The topics for reading and discussion are fresh and deal with the technological trends and advances in the field of space vehicles both domestic and foreign. Vocational terms are thoroughly selected in the text corpus and are given visual support (if necessary). The electronic course is designed and manufactured in the shape of a mini site using IT tools and free soft. Essentially the general layout of the course is based on three multimedia units containing a set of interactive assignments. Due to the hyperlinks the text space is expanded and new issues for discussion appear. The texts are integrated topically. To give evidence and to support the ideas students consult the Internet resources. They get acquainted and enriched with the international engineering discourse. Such a content is a contribution to the development of vocational competence by linguistic means.

3. PRINCIPLES OF DIDACTICS

In our research we follow the heuristic principles of didactics (A.B. Хургорской, 2003; Н.В. Матецкий 2003 и др.). It is stated that a student by herself or himself designs and constructs educational background in the target field. Essentially a personal educational product is created. It accumulates skills, emotions, abilities, new experience and others that result in fruitful achievements in learning and development of competences. The principles demonstrate dependence between goals, teaching and learning regularities.

It should be noted that the system of classical principles of didactics has evolved as the result of changes in goals, syllabus and IT integration. Some regularities in teaching and education have been revealed under new ESP courses teaching. It is reasonable to speak about certain didactic principles that correspond to the contemporary IT environment and should be implemented in the content of education. The following principles have been applied in our work and their educational significance has been proved and evaluated.

The principle of student personal educational product. Student progress and achievements gained in the course of ESP learning matter much. For example, creative work under the project assignments is evaluated and estimated both from the point of view of linguistics and vocational development.

The principle of demonstrativeness. It has been changed. People could not any more apply live images and rely on emotions and perception. To explain and visualize complex phenomena additional sign-oriented frames have been developed and multimedia technology has been involved. For example, in our research two modes of reading comprehension have been tested and compared. Electronic text containing visualization of the complex phenomenon described (animation and a short movie) turned to be better (by 34% better student comprehension).

Principle of professional appeal. It goes without saying that this principle has been implemented in the content of multimedia ESP courses. Such topics as ‘space transportation systems’, ‘rocket-launchers and satellites’, ‘mobile launch platforms’ and others are within the student vocational interests and contribute to the development of professional competence and general engineering view. As the size of this paper is limited the following principles: principle of student autonomy, principle of interactive mode, principle of multimedia mode, principle of novelty, situational approach and others are not given commentary, except but interdisciplinary principle.

4. INTERDISCIPLINARY PRINCIPLE

This principle was investigated as a relationship of inter-subject and scientific links. Separate subjects were in the center of attention. But the focus should be shifted on the integrated world picture. This principle is considered to be the means to increase the standards of education and student learning autonomy. Different trends in interdisciplinary approach have been investigated, for example there are studies based on informatics and a foreign language(И.И.Короткова, 2010), a review of a multidisciplinary approach for ESP (Dudley-Evans, Tony, 1998), the ways of creating interdisciplinarity (Lattuca, L. R., 2001) and others. But it has never been investigated on the basis of ICT, vocation and a foreign language simultaneously. And the urgent issue –the appeal for stronger interdisciplinary integration was expressed by Ignatieva (Е.Ю. Игнатъева, 2009). It is desirable that it should influence the process of education. The capacities of interdisciplinary relationships were described as: methodological learning methods (summarizing ,analogy, abstracting etc.); development of fusion skills; promotion of polytechnic trend; expanding influence on autonomy (А. И. Гуръев, 2002). But the issue “the way interdisciplinary relationships should be activated to impact ESP education” is open. Little research has been carried out in this area. We would like to make an attempt to single out *mechanisms* promoting interdisciplinary powers in ESP teaching and learning:

- to involve tangible and objective information;
- to increase considerably the informative capacity of the subjects discussed;
- to percept the significance of the subject under study;

- to distinguish the means of deriving new knowledge (epagoge and deduction, contrast, generalization, specification, analogy etc.);
- to apply hunting methods of learning ;
- to cultivate fusion skills;
- to adapt (apply) skills assumed in allied subjects;
- to design and develop multimedia ESP materials with fresh content;
- to create favorable positive psychological medium (background);
- to define factors of motivation;
- to develop sense of achievement and success and etc.

5. DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

The background instruction and the results obtained speak about a certain effectiveness of the designed ESP courses. Within the terms of one subject it becomes possible to execute education through a strong promotion of interdisciplinary relations. The English language is able to possess and integrate information and experience from different subjects and areas of interest.

In general the level of student achievements and the resultant skills are evaluated beginning with the coefficient of 70%. But it demonstrates only the quantitative characteristics. It does not describe the dynamics of the skills development in the course of ESP instruction. At the very beginning of the course our students were interrogated about their awareness of the issues discussed in the multimedia ESP course. Their awareness was rather low. But the awareness has increased greatly by the end of the course and demonstrated positive dynamics.

It becomes evident that simultaneous development of linguistic and vocationally relevant skills take place under the new ESP course. Our theoretical considerations concerning the principles of didactics, the multimedia materials were based on, proved to be true. Besides, a great number of factors have influenced on and contributed to the course classroom efficiency. For example, the content selected and the course structure allowed students to go beyond the electronic book frames and create personal more detailed creative product based on the engineering topic of interest. The students were taught to make information quest in the Internet, to adapt the new information linguistically, to give reasoning, to work with electronic dictionaries and reference books, they were also shown the ways to acquire the word meaning by themselves without consulting a dictionary and others. Their cognitive activity has increased. The mechanisms of speech production have been activated and intellectual skills have been further developed. The students applied skills of IT tools and made oral reports supported by slides (as their creative product). They rushed to share their engineering composition and became reasoned in their work. The student autonomy has also increased. The time required to undertake interactive assignments has reduced approximately by 30 %. For example, certain interactive language assignments are completed five times faster than in ordinary mode. Thus, more classroom time could be devoted to the development of speaking activities.

We may speak about a three subject blending as the basis of the ESP course. This phenomenon cannot be derived logically from the individual characteristics of separate parts. The power of three subjects results in aggregation of several elements and the appearance of a new status, a new quality. The result of integration is a qualitatively new phenomenon. This principle was put forward by Aristotle in his “Metaphysics”. The idea is that the whole is usually more than the sum of the parts it consists of. And the new properties that appear are not equal to the totalproperties of the

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parts. And a new status occur. Now this phenomenon is described as synergy and is used to characterize and explain the transition on qualitatively new level (В.М. Курейчик, В.И. Писаренко, 2007) as the modern system of education faces evolutionary changes as non-linear system.

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Lexical Approach as a Method of ESP Vocabulary Enlargement for Students of Environmental Engineering at the Faculty of Technical Sciences

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Abstract: Nowadays there is a growing demand for design of new ESP courses, being essential for professional development. This is especially true with respect to ESP for environmental engineering due to lack of textbooks in this area. Since complicated environmental systems cannot be clarified by easy-to-understand words, students are faced with abundance of complex newly-formed specialized terms and phrases, usually unexplained through word formation processes. Such problem creates additional confusion in their minds. This paper deals with the design of English for Environmental Engineering Course at the University of Novi Sad, Faculty of Technical Sciences, which due to its complexity requires lexical approach based on the idea that language is made up of lexical items or 'chunks'. In this regard, the main focus is on new words creation with explanation of word formation processes for the purpose of easier vocabulary acquisition and enlargement.

Key words: ESP, lexical approach, 'chunks', vocabulary enlargement

1. INTRODUCTION

The early decades of the 21st century are marked not only by the information technology advancements but also by a big concern for the environment. Advertisements, public service announcements, as well as *go green gift packaging products* are reminding us these days to "Save the Planet" or "Be environmentally friendly". Only a few people haven't heard the aforesaid phrases, announcing the new era of earth protection.

Some blogs emphasize that "Seemingly innocent and responsible things such as "hybrid" vehicles, cloth shopping bags (rather than plastic), and heavy taxes on businesses and industries are all just the tip of the iceberg in the changes that the "Going Green" religion is striving for." ¹. In this respect, Environmental Engineering as an incredibly broad field, focused on using scientific principles to improve environmental conditions, appeared as a necessity at many faculties and universities. As the field of this technical discipline continues to develop, the volume of vocabulary growth becomes more important. People need to understand the environment, striving for a healthier contact with nature. Thus, the care for vocabulary enlargement with new words in this field is expected and relevant.

2. NEW WORDS AND WORD FORMATION PROCESSES IN ENVIRONMENTAL ENGINEERING VOCABULARY FIELD

The vocabulary of environmental engineering field is becoming increasingly specialized due to specific terminology of environmental subjects. Topics covered include water treatment and distribution; air pollution; solid waste disposal; and hazardous waste remediation, biodiversity, use of

¹ (Habithus 2011)

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natural resources, sustainable development, and more. Since this area is steadily developing and changing, the creation of new words becomes inevitable, because new things need new words.

In general, there are many ways in which new words are created. Some of these word formation processes are below presented and illustrated by examples from environmental engineering vocabulary field.

2.1 Derivation

Derivation, as a main word formation process builds new words by adding morphemes to stems. Zeki Hamawand stresses that “Derivation includes both prefixation, the morphological process of forming a new word by means of a prefix; and suffixation, the morphological process of forming a new word by means of a suffix”². While prefixes like *un-* or *dis-* usually do not change the lexical category of a word, suffixes, such as *-ness* or *-ation*, usually do. Considering the examples *healthy* → *unhealthy* and *healthy* → *healthiness*, it is obvious that because of the suffix *-ness* the lexical category of *healthy* has changed. Similar situation is in case of the adjective *wild* (desolate, rugged, inhospitable or uninhabitable), which with prefix *un* does not change the lexical category (unwild, more unwild, the most unwild) but turns into noun with suffix *ness* - *wildness* (lonely, sparsely inhabited regions away from the city). The meaning is always slightly changed, but in a way that the final word is still closely related to the former word.

In times of rapid changes, new prefixes for environmental purposes such as “*bio-*, *enviro-*, *eco-*, *hydra-*, and *hydro-*”³ are additionally used to describe new words in this area, as shown in the Table 1.

Table 1 – Prefixes used for environmental purposes

Prefix	Meaning	Example
un	opposite of; contrary to	unsafe unhealthy
de	used to indicate removal, separation and negation	deforestation deformation
dis	prefix meaning “apart,” or having a negative, or reversing force	discharge disability
bio	connected with life and living things	bioethics biodiversity
enviro	relating to the natural world and the impact of human activity on its conditions	environment environ
hydra	connected with or using the power of water	hydrant hydration
hydro	connected with or using the power of water	hydrolysis, hydrocarbons
co	together; with	co-fire, cogeneration
eco	connected with the environment	ecosystem, ecotone

Unlike prefixes in environmental engineering vocabulary field, suffixes are mostly familiar and common as shown in the Table 2. Nonetheless, the words are brand new and almost “green”, as if used to implement the “going green” initiative, aren’t they?

Knowledge of prefixes and suffixes can not only help students of environmental engineering decode the meanings of words in contexts, but also enable them construct new vocabulary using roots and stems of already familiar words.

² (Hamawand 2011, 14)

³ (Pankratz 2001)

2.2 Compounding

English speakers have constructed hundreds of complex words from elements already available. Being aware of that phenomenon, Hamawand adds that “Compounding also called composition is the morphological process of forming a complex structure by combining two, or more, free morphemes of same or different word classes.”⁴

Table 2 – Suffixes used for environmental purposes

Suffix	Meaning	Example
-ability	used to form nouns from adjectives ending in '-able' or '-ible', to mean the quality of being the stated adjective	sustainability recyclability
-ness, -ation, -ment	verb-to-noun derivation added to verbs to form nouns showing action or condition	hardness combustion refreshment
-less	lack of	ageless airless
-ize, -nate	creates verbs	Amortize, contaminate
-al, -able, -ary, -ful	creates adjectives	substantial exploitable stationary harmful
-ist	creates an agent noun	environmentalist preservationist

In English, compounds are not only written as single words but combined by a hyphen (e.g. small-scale). While noun + noun compounds are the most frequent, other combinations are also ample and the result must not be a noun as shown in the below presented Table 3.

Table 3 – Combinations in compounding

NOUN + NOUN = NOUN	ADJECTIVE + NOUN = NOUN	NOUN + VERB = NOUN	PREPOSITION + NOUN = VERB
pipeline feedstock photovoltaics wavelength firewood	long-haul prototype semiconductor safeguard greenhouse	landfill eyewear	overflow intake downpour overwhelm

In the field of environmental engineering vocabulary, compounds mostly exhibit a so-called **modifier-head structure** (also called **endocentric** compounds: A (modifier) + B (head) = a special kind of B, with one part specifying the other in terms of meaning).

The trend over the years has been for the English compound to begin as two separate words, which have become unified in both meaning and form, if frequently used together. The below presented examples in the Table 4 show different types of two words compounds: N+N and A+N.

Table 4 – Different types of two words compounds

Noun +Noun	Adjective +Noun
1.pum sump	1.diurnal cycle
2.trash rack	2.brackish water
3.grease trap	
4.grit classifier	
5.settlement tank	

⁴ (Hamawand 2011, 11)

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Moreover, Task defines compounding as “the process of forming a word by combining two or more existing words”⁵. The Table 5 presents the examples of three and four words compounds from the area of environmental engineering terminology:

Table 5 –The examples of three and four words compounds

Three words compounds	Four words compounds
aerated grit trap	water purification demonstration project
water management system	single-axis solar tracking system
low- carbon power sources	fixed-tilt solar ground system
planetary gear unit	
rated power output	
small wind turbine	
tidal energy generation	

The above examples indicate that compounding is a highly productive way of coining new terms, particularly in technical language.

2.3 Initialism and Acronyms

Initialisms and acronyms, usually described as morphological process for coining new words reduce each component word to its initial letter. The difference between them lies in pronunciation; an acronym is pronounced as a word, while initialism (sometimes called alphabetism) is pronounced as a sequence of letters. Both types are used in the vocabulary of environmental engineering as shown in the below presented Table 6.

Table 6 –The examples of initialisms & acronyms

Initialisms	Acronyms
EMS - Environmental Management System	RAN- Rainforest Action Network
MTR - Mountaintop Removal	EWEA-European Wind Energy Association
WFD –Waste Framework Directive	EPA-Environmental Protection Agency
DCS- Distributed Control System	

2.4 Blending

Blends are combinations of two or more words in which the sound patterns overlap. While parts of either or both words are reduced or lost in the blend, the initial components are still recognizable, as presented in the following examples:

smog = smoke + fog

mishap = misfortune + happened

2.5 Summary

As evident from the above stated examples, many new words are generated in the field of environmental engineering through word formation processes, which obviously show a lot of regularity and productivity.

2.6 What’s the point?

As a serious technical discipline, this field is largely dependent upon prompt and reliable communication which cannot be achieved without appropriate lexical knowledge. Therefore, it is necessary to find the way of explaining the evolution of new words, especially collections of words

⁵ (Task 1992)

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which occur together. In that way, the mechanism used in forming complex specialized words will be revealed. This implies that the field of environmental engineering needs an ESP approach in which lexis plays a central role.

3. THE DESIGN OF ESP FOR ENVIRONMENTAL ENGINEERING

Before focusing on ESP for Environmental Engineering it is necessary to explain in general what ESP actually represents. It is usually defined as the teaching of English for academic or professional purposes, designed to meet the specified needs of the learner. In that sense it should be regarded as an “approach” to teaching.

When thinking how to organize ESP for environmental engineering, the author had in mind two quite different, but equally important things. First, it was the presence of word formation processes and their relation with lexical items or ‘chunks’, particularly in case of new words and phrases creation. Secondly, it was unpredictable working environment of future engineers who have to adapt to various lexical circumstances. In this respect, the design of English for Environmental Engineering Course at the University of Novi Sad, Faculty of Technical Sciences, requires the right approach due to its complexity. Accordingly, student's vocabulary enlargement is a primary goal of ESP. The problem lies in the fact that “Most learners equate ‘vocabulary’ with ‘words’, and there is a tendency among learners to translate any professional text word-for-word”⁶, trying to decompose complex lexical items into their constituents. In addition, they are not introduced to the combinatory possibilities of a word. Thus, the aim of this paper is to raise students' awareness of the existence of lexical items. Some linguists call them ‘lexical phrases’ or ‘multi-word chunks’ or just ‘chunks’ of language. This revolutionary lexical approach firstly introduced by Michael Lewis in 1993 turned to be very inspiring for this purpose⁷.

3.1 The Relationship between Word Formation Processes and Lexical Items

It is not a secret that the meaning and use of unfamiliar lexical items can be disclosed through understanding word formation processes. Many findings showed that knowledge of word-formation processes proved to be effective in developing students' skills in understanding and translating lexical items accurately. This is especially true in case of endocentric (headed) compounding where one of the constituents acts as the head, or core of the phrase, and the other constituents as dependents on it, or modifiers of it. “The ‘head’ of a *compound* is the component that *determines* the grammatical category, the *syntactic* (e.g., the gender) and the *semantic properties* of the *compound as a whole*.”⁸. Besides, one formal property associated with *heads in English compounds* is also emphasized “Their position is consistent: they always appear at the right edge of the construction.”⁹

This rule, usually called *head-modifier principle* is also encountered in the specialized vocabulary of environmental engineering. Thus, a greenhouse (one word compound) is a building with a roof and sides made of glass, used for growing plants that need warmth and protection (not a colour for painting houses *green*). In that sense, a greenhouse effect (two words compound) is the natural process by which the atmosphere traps some of the Sun's energy, warming the Earth enough to support life.

Apart from providing semantic explanation relevant for actual meaning of lexical item, word formation processes uncover how new complex words are created. Accordingly, it is noticed that “A

⁶ (Kavaliauskienė 1997)

⁷ (Lewis 1993)

⁸ (Semenza 2011, 3117)

⁹ (Hippisley 2005, 133)

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number of authors, including Rogers (1997) and Heid (1999), have remarked on the productive use made by special languages of word formation operations available in the target language to derive new terms from existing lexical items.”¹⁰.

3.2 Lexical Approach as a Choice

Throughout language teaching history, various ideas of language teaching have been reflected in different choices of teaching approaches, including opposite attitudes towards each element of teaching system. Having acquired a deep knowledge of the nature of language, many famous applied linguists realized that lexis (i.e. words and word combinations) is one of the most important linguistic elements as, as well as one of the most important criteria for language proficiency.

For the purpose of placing greater emphasis on vocabulary in modern foreign language teaching, a new language teaching theory was proposed by Michael Lewis, in his writing *The Lexical Approach*, claiming that the basis of language learning and communication is not grammar, function, notion or other factors in language teaching and learning but lexis. Thus, learning lexical chunks is the core of lexical approach and the key element of fluent language.

Due to abundance of newly created words and phrases in the field of environmental engineering which are mostly multiword units i.e. chunks, lexical approach as a modern language teaching theory, providing increased understanding of the nature of lexis in naturally occurring language seemed to be the best choice for ESP design in this field. This belief is additionally supported by the results of the below presented analyses of lexical items.

3.3 The Types of Chunks

The Lexical Approach which claims that language consists of multi-word prefabricated chunks raised a lot of debate when started by Lewis. In this respect it is necessary to explain the following terms: “***Chunk**. A general term to include all kinds of strong collocations, fixed phrases and semi-fixed phrases.

***Lexical item**. This term includes both single words and multi-word items.”¹¹.

Therefore, our students are not just learning “words”, but also multi-word items, i.e. “chunks”.

Many famous linguists from Lewis through Nattinger to Moon have been involved in the development of lexical approach.

Lewis recognized four fundamental types of lexical items¹²:

1. Words (e.g. book)
2. Polywords (e.g. by the way)
3. Collocations or word partnership (e.g. commit suicide)
4. Institutionalized utterances (e.g. if I were you, I would wait.)
5. Sentence frames and heads (e.g. on the one hand; on the other hand; the fact /suggestion/problem/danger was;

However, he stated that such an analysis is not unique due to some overlap between categories, indicating that sometimes it is useful to consider a particular item as belonging to different classes for different analytical purposes.

Nattinger has written extensively about the value of lexical phrases, providing the following taxonomy¹³:

¹⁰ (Hippisley 2005, 131)

¹¹ (Hugh 2006, 5)

¹² (Lewis 1993)

¹³ (Nattinger 1992)

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1. Polywords: short, fixed phrases whose meaning is often not analyzable from the regular rules of syntax. They include idioms, euphemism, slang, two- and three- part verbs.
2. Phrasal constraints: short relatively fixed phrases with slots that permit some variation.
3. Institutional utterances: lexical phrases of medium length of relatively low variability usually functioning as separate utterances, they are proverbs, aphorism, formulas for social interaction, and all of those chunks that a speaker has found efficient to store as units.
4. Sentence builders: phrases up to sentence length, highly variable containing slots for parameters or arguments

On the other hand, according to another analysis, (Moon, 1997) these items are divided into ¹⁴:

- *compounds* - words which combine two or sometimes more different words.
- *fixed phrases* - expressions which cannot be changed or can only be changed minimally.
- *phrasal verbs* -“a phrase which consists of a verb in combination with a preposition or adverb or both, the meaning of which is different from the meaning of its separate parts”. (Gillard et al. 2003, cited in Koprowski, 2005:332)¹⁵
- *idioms of language* - defined as “*phrases that are wholly or partly fixed and cannot be understood from the usual meaning of the individual words they contain.*”¹⁶
- *other prefabricated chunks*—some other ready-made multi-word combinations in the language.

In this paper, the author will focus on the categorization by Moon, because it seems to be the most appropriate for the field of environmental engineering.

4. THE ANALYSES OF LEXICAL ITEMS:

4.1 Quantitative and Qualitative Analysis

The analysis has been conducted on the selected texts taken from various Magazines of Environmental Engineering available on Internet in order to examine the frequency at which lexical items occur. The data of this study cover the terminology of water treatment and distribution; wastewater treatment and collection; air pollution and treatment; solid waste disposal; and hazardous waste remediation, biodiversity, soil contamination, renewables, use of natural resources, sustainable development, occupational safety, including legal and ethical issues. The chosen corpus contains altogether 243.090 words, out of which 180 are lexical items of different types, all of which are relating to the field of environmental engineering. Data were collected from January 12 to 22, 2013. The most relevant categorization of lexical items for the purpose of this study is the categorization of lexical items according to type. As stated above, Moon distinguishes between five categories.

4.2 Numerical Results

The results of the analysis presented in the Figure 1 show that the **compounds** are the most frequently used category in the corpus of this study. However, the achieved results are quite different from those obtained by Mark Koprowski who investigated lexical chunks in General English course-books ¹⁷. His analyses indicate that **collocations** are the most frequent category.

¹⁴ (Moon 1997)

¹⁵ (Koprowski 2005, 332)

¹⁶ (Hugh 2006, 6)

¹⁷ (Koprowski 2005, 327)

5. PROPOSED METHOD FOR ACHIVING GOAL

The nature of approaches and methods in language teaching has been explored by many famous applied linguists, but the most cited definition reads “approach is the level at which assumptions and beliefs about language and language learning are specified, method is the level at which theory is put into practice and at which choices are made about the particular skills to be taught, the content to be taught and the order in which the content will be presented; It is agreed among linguists that it should be based upon a selected approach.” (Anthony 1963, cited in Richards and Rodgers 2001:19) ¹⁸

In that sense, in order to apply lexical approach to ESP for environmental engineering it is necessary to design a method containing a certain instructional system, elaborated in relation to the objectives of teaching. This practically means that the focus will be on vocabulary exercises intended for acquisition of specific lexis, i.e. lexical chunks relating to environmental issues, in combination with communicative language teaching.

Briefly, students have to focus their attention on this newly encountered terminology, developing an ability to notice various lexical items, distinguishing between different categories. If they understand the patterns on which the language forms new specialized terms, they will be able to analyze them both formally and semantically, finding the equivalent in their mother tongue.

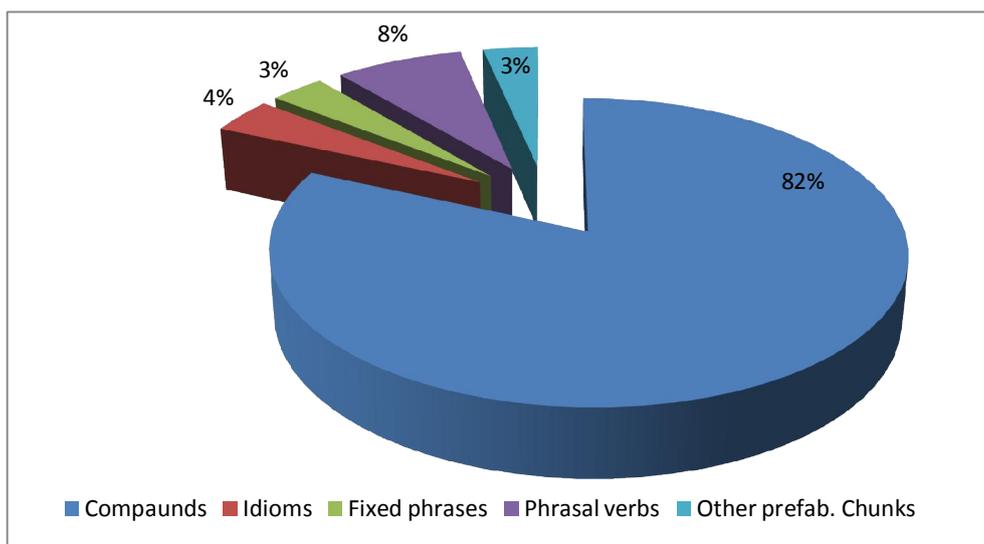


Fig.1 –Categorization of lexical items according to type.

Since playing with words is in the essence of this approach, numerous word activities of different levels of difficulty are prepared in order to provide vocabulary enlargement in the field of environmental engineering.

This paper offers a traditional 'match the items' and 'underline the rest of the *chunk*' as well as 'insert hyphens as needed' types of exercises as a productive way for checking comprehension of the words in context. Students observe other words that can accompany the target word including discourse and grammar. The author suggests the following activities:

¹⁸ (Richards 2001, 19)

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Exercise No. 1

Prefixation and Suffixation as word-formation processes.

Choose the correct prefix or suffix + stem to build new words. Retain the hyphen if needed to avoid ambiguity or awkward spelling.

Prefixes and Suffixes : off, on	
Stems: trade, cut, site, shore,	
1)
2)
3)
4)
5)
6)

Understanding the relationship between derivation, as one of the most productive word formation processes and creation of lexical chunks will provide better translation skills.

Exercise No.2

Compound nouns

Some compound nouns do not use hyphens and some do. Unfortunately, there is no definite rule to follow when it comes to hyphenating compound nouns. The best way to decide when to use a hyphen in compound nouns is to look up the word in the dictionary.

Insert hyphens as needed in the following compound nouns.

excoordinator-
eyewear-
safeguard-
feedstock-

In addition, this exercise related to compounds is elaborated on the *head-modifier principle* (where the head determines the syntactic category of the entire construction) in order to emphasize the relationship between compounding and lexical chunks.

Exercise No. 3

Collocations (words that sound ‘good’ together) related to the environment.

How many phrases that collocate with the word “pollution” can be created? Come up with ‘*company*’ **words** that can be either nouns or verbs: e.g. air pollution, prevent pollution.

Noun + pollution	Verb + pollution
-	-
-	-
-	-
-	-
-	-
-	-

Exercise No.4

Each of the items in bold in the text below is part of a larger lexical item – a fixed phrase, an idiom, a multi-word item, or a strong collocation.

For each item, underline the rest of the “**chunk**”. The first three items have been done as an example.

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“**Once upon a time**, pollution was something the Left almost **approved of**. New dams and factories and mines **gave more power** to the **organised** working class, and had to be **rushed** forward to replace the **feudal** societies, which socialism overthrew. Worker **control** of the **means** of production was good; therefore production itself was good, and pollution was ignored **on** the you-can’t-make-an-omelette-without-breaking-eggs principle.

In the Eighties, it was Margaret Thatcher, of all people, who **was** attracted to the **theory** of global warming. She saw it as a **justification** for the development of **nuclear** power.”¹⁹.

Exercise No.5

Match the items in column 1 with the “colloquial responses” in column 2, by drawing a line.

Column 1	Column 2
You mustn't tell a soul regarding contamination after sewage leak.	Flattery will get you nowhere.
Do you know what an apparatus that is used for removing impurities from a gas is called?	A little bird told me.
I've got some air pollution news.	I'm all ears.
How did you know I was going out with an attractive environmental engineer?	Oh, it is on the tip of my tongue.
People say you are very generous to families affected by earthquake.	Mind your own business.
Where were you during a snow storm?	My lips are sealed.

Exercises No. 6,7,8 are typical tasks for idioms, collocations, fixed expressions. If we compare Serbian words for these expressions with English meanings we will discover that there is seldom a word-for-word correspondence between them.

Briefly, the above mentioned teaching methods are closely linked with teaching approach which favours the development of students' ability to use chunks i.e. inevitable building blocks.

6. CONCLUSION

The Lexical Approach as a method for vocabulary enlargement in the field of environmental engineering indicates that learners need to be actively involved in the learning of complex specialized terms. In that sense, various tasks in the form of exercises are elaborated for the purpose of mastering lexical chunks, which cover items from compound nouns to longer lexicalised sentence stems. Besides, in order to understand meaning of newly created words it is necessary to refer to word formation processes which can provide answers to many unavoidable lexical questions regarding syntactic and semantic properties of the complex words.

The anticipated outcome is that students will have the language skills necessary to enable their own successful participation in working activities. They will be able to use authentic, practical and proper lexis that sounds natural and genuine. Learning language in chunks not only makes the speaker more accepted by the native community, but also helps the learners adopt and understand unfamiliar complicated structures and widespread popular phrases. In this respect, proper using of chunks like “single-axis solar tracking system” or “going green” will be no longer a secret.

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¹⁹ (Stix 2006)

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Professional English Priorities and Focus

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Abstract: Professional English is part of the English Language Program at the Kazakh-British Technical University. The course is designed to build upon skills developed in the preceding courses, i.e. General, Academic and Business English, and to prepare students for their future professional careers. The article deals with the Professional English course and sets out its priorities and focus. There are three priorities that shape the focus of the Professional English course: dialogue, students' self-study and creation of new relevant knowledge. The course focus is to master language, communicative and social skills, and develop general professional skills. These priorities and focus of the Professional English course determine the structure, content, assessment materials and evaluation criteria for the course.

Key words: English for specific purposes, Professional English, language and professional skills, dialogue, self-study, relevant knowledge

1. INTRODUCTION

Professional English is a tool for international communication among specialists in social and technical areas to share ideas and promote new technologies that may be applicable all over the world. Technical university graduates should possess good competence of the professional language at a level necessary to become useful members of the world community. That is why the goal of English language teachers is to create and implement a program that facilitates the acquisition of English for these specific purposes (ESP).

ESP, on the one hand, satisfies student academic needs to understand lecturers of core-disciplines in English, to comprehend authentic professional texts and to write papers related to the specialization; and, on the other hand, it is a tool for university graduates to adapt to business environment and to communicate in their professional field. This triple goal (academic, business and professional) cannot be achieved within the frame of one course only. The English language department of our university has been experimenting for two years with a new scheme that splits these tasks between such courses as Academic English, Business English and Professional English. The Academic English course is aimed to meet students' specific academic needs in understanding lectures, comprehending academic texts, taking effective notes, clearly expressing and supporting opinions in speech and essay writing. The Business English course teaches students to explore and examine the business world environment, develops their planning skills and business communication competence; the project-based approach of the course is used for developing mutual understanding and ethical sensitivity, and encouraging team building and group work. Both courses are skill-based and build a platform for the Professional English course (PE) that is the final part in the frame of

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English for special/specific purposes core program. It is designed to raise the students' language competence in their respective professional fields of study.

2. PROFESSIONAL ENGLISH SYLLABUS PRIORITIES

An umbrella syllabus of the Professional English course with unified aims, objectives, learning outcomes, language skills development approach, assessment system and evaluation criteria is compiled for such faculties of our university as: Faculty of Oil and Gas Industry (FOGI), Faculty of Information Technologies (FIT), School of Finance and Economics (SFE). The content and authentic language material for study is selected and adjusted specifically to the needs of students of different majors. Thus, there is one syllabus, three course calendars and three methodological packages of the academic material.

The Professional English course is mainly focused on building student professionally-oriented vocabulary, practicing general professional skills and developing social skills that are taught through specially designed tasks and situations. The course focuses on developing advanced reading, writing, listening and speaking skills. Students learn a variety of patterns for communicating in professional settings and develop appropriate communication skills.

In order to cover the whole spectrum of these academic and professional tasks and create an effective program of the course that meets the expectations of students, core-discipline teachers and industry employers, a set of priorities that will be discussed further have been identified: dialogue, self-study and creation of new relevant knowledge.

2.1. Priority 1: Dialogue

In order to develop an effective course program the compilers of the syllabus take several steps. First the university curricula are thoroughly studied and core-disciplines conducted in English are selected to identify the range of professional studies area. Then a set of dialogues is held to outline the course program for PE teachers and students to follow.

Compilers of the syllabus have dialogues with the teachers of core-disciplines to determine a list of basic professional topics for the students to better understand the material of their current or future professional disciplines. The teachers of specialized departments are asked to outline possible difficulties students usually face in acquiring professional terms or notions while listening to lectures, reading authentic texts and writing their papers in English.

Then the compilers of the PE syllabus have a dialogue to adjust the PE program to specific core-discipline requirements; to select appropriate language material on professional topics from the text books, periodicals, internet sources and to compile appropriate course calendars. That is why, the course calendar offered to SFE students, for example, covers language material related to such topics as: basics of economics, financial performance, international marketing and so on. The course calendar designed for FOGI students covers language material related to such topics as: oil and gas and petrochemical industries' current issues; basics of upstream and downstream operations; the future of the petroleum and petrochemical industries, and so on. When the syllabus is compiled and appropriate course calendars are drawn up, the program is implemented.

The students enter into dialogue with PE teachers to reveal weak and strong points of the program, and to express their satisfaction or dissatisfaction. There are different forms of getting the information on how successful the course is: questionnaires, reflection papers, lesson feedback, etc.

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Students of different faculties responded to questionnaires in March 2011 (81 students), in May 2012 (80 students) and in February 2013 (162 students). As a result of the questionnaires' analyses it was revealed that:

- the pre-requisites for Professional English should be Academic and Business English;
- the course better suits the second-year students with Upper-Intermediate language level;
- professional topics need constant re-adjustment to students' specialization and needs;
- professional vocabulary should be practiced in context.

To sum up, to design an effective course program compilers should hold several rounds of dialogues to specify the priorities and focus of the course, to compile a program, to do a pilot-run, then to get student and teacher feedback, to revise the program and to start again.

2.2. Priority 2: Students' Self-study

The second priority of modern education is students' self-study. Practice shows that students study lexical and grammar material of languages for specific purposes better independently at their own personal speed.

Languages for specific purposes are used "for particular and restricted types of communication (e.g. for medical reports, scientific writing, air-traffic communication) and contain lexical, grammatical, and other linguistic features which are different from ordinary language"¹. More than that, students have to learn a lot of terms within the frame of PE program. A technical term or a word is determined as "a common word that has a specialized meaning in a particular field, such as *significance* in statistics"². The main focus of the course is to enrich students' professional vocabulary and to practice it in professional contexts. Professional vocabulary, in our opinion, should consist of general words used in their specific meaning, technical terminology, and a target vocabulary limited to the professional field. We compile a target professional vocabulary in the following way:

- select the basic professional notions for each professional course topic,
- thoroughly study the reading/listening material and select the key professional words and terms according to the principle of frequency and relevance to a definite topic,
- compile a target vocabulary,
- if necessary, consult the core-discipline teachers on the selected terms.

The target vocabulary includes no more than twenty items. PE teachers give priority to creative home assignments that motivate students to use the vocabulary in context. Popular tasks are to find information on a definite topic, to compare several points of view, to break out the news and to comment on it, to read or listen to a text and write a summary on it, to watch a video film and take notes, etc. These tasks presuppose internet search, visits to a library or/and a reading hall, reading newspapers and watching TV broadcasting. For example, students make presentations on such topics as Great economists, Investment policy, etc.

Participation in project work is the most effective way for the students to expand professional vocabulary and better understand what each term means. Individual research project work develops students' logical and critical thinking skills.

Diverse types of study projects have been done by PE students in the last 5 recent years such as essay writing on professional topics, creating professional newsletters, and doing a glossary-summary project. The latter is the most recent one.

¹ *Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics*. 3rd ed., Comp. by J. Richards and R. Schmidt (Harlow: Pearson Education Limited, 2002), 295

² *Longman Dictionary*, 544

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The aim of glossary-summary project is to explore and examine the language of a professional field (e.g. oil and gas, economics, etc.), to foster interest in reading and extending vocabulary, to learn how to use diverse background resources (special dictionaries, encyclopedia, Internet, etc.), and to develop summary writing skills. Summary is “a process where, rather than choose one or more examples from a longer body of data, you opt to produce a reduced version, précis or synopsis of the whole data set”³. Students are supposed to compile a glossary of professional terms containing fifty entries, by finding definitions from different sources and using examples from a magazine article has chosen. To define the terms students have to use dictionaries, encyclopedias and on-line resources. They can find examples in the textbooks and materials they use for studies in other professional courses. Students are taught to follow APA style for compiling glossaries while citing definitions and examples and properly compiling references. Then they have to write a 300-400 word summary, the length being dependent on the text. Then students are supposed to discuss the problem in class.

Such assignments widen students’ professional vocabulary, foster their critical thinking skills, and make student practice in analytical writing. Self-study provides independence and freedom in comprehending and gathering information on professional topics.

2.3. Priority 3: Creation of new relevant knowledge

The PE program creates an academic and professional environment for students to acquire professional, communicative and social skills. Upon the course completion students demonstrate such professional skills as: prognostic, systematizing, organizational, managerial and projective. Prognostic skills are acquired when students become aware of what they will need for their future profession, or what will happen in their professional field in five-to-fifteen years. Students harness systematizing skills by systematically doing home assignments, meeting deadlines, and reporting on the results of their progress on the projects.

Students exercise organizational skills while planning their essays, summaries, and class presentations. They practice managerial and projective skills working as team members in projects, solving professional problems all together during class discussion and coming to mutual understanding.

Cognitive skills, connected with “mental process of understanding”⁴, are developed through students’ cognition of the professional world. Moreover, current news broadcasts provide students with information about world events and the target culture and thus “put them in touch with the world outside the confines of the classroom”⁵.

Students use discursive skills by freely expressing their points of view on professional topics, after gathering and analyzing information presented by professionals in diverse research mass media. Socio-linguistic and intercultural skills are sharpened while students read and listen to texts created by people of different nationalities from different countries, when they express their points of view dictated by the situation existing in their country. In such a way an interesting comparative analysis may be done during in-class discussions when a world-wide problem arises for dispute.

Analytical skills are exercised in integration of extensive reading with writing tasks.

Interpersonal skills are utilized by playing games that creates a natural communication situation and motivates students to study.

In such a way, equipped with relevant knowledge and all the above mentioned skills, students are prepared to communicate freely in their professional field.

³ Loraine Blaxter et al. *How to research*. 3rd ed. (Berkshire: Open University Press, 2006), 203

⁴ *Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary*. 7th ed. Comp. by A.S. Hornby, chief ed. S., Wehmeier (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2005), 288

⁵ Goodith White, Listening. *Resource books for teachers*, ed. by Alan Malley (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1998), 88

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3. CONCLUSION

Creating an effective program is a complex process. The main task in this process is to state the priorities and then focus on the immediate everyday tasks. Such an approach helps to reach the goal by the end of the course and makes students able to use terms and concepts relevant to their specialization in professional contexts, to discuss professional issues, to reach a higher level of language skills necessary to comprehend professionally-oriented texts and to show reviewing, summarizing and critical writing skills.

With the help of joint efforts of PE teachers, core-discipline teachers and students we try to solve this problem by being sensitive to student needs, using new technologies and methods of teaching, splitting the big tasks into smaller portions and focusing on definite problem-solving aspects. Such an approach, even if it doesn't solve all the problems, gives a direct, convenient and accessible route and constructs a comprehensive, coherent and flexible system.

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English language training courses for pilots and air traffic controllers: a project based on innovative approaches

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Abstract: As testified by several English has gained the role of *lingua franca* throughout the second part of the XIX century, so that it is now considered the preferred language of communication both among speakers from different countries and between individuals living in the same country. English, in fact, has become the most used linguistic means for communicative exchanges both in a global and on the local sense.

The gradual growth of worldwide socio-economic relationships and the technological progress in multifarious fields such as transport, telecommunication and computer science, indeed, have fostered the removal of national barriers, promoting people's exigency to learn English. In the light of this change, the pedagogical activity has evolved rapidly with the aim of meeting learners' specific needs. As a matter of fact, although it maintains its status of "language for identification" English has become the language for communication *par excellence*. For this reason, Italian schools, from primary to upper secondary institutions, offer innovative methodological approaches, whose aim is to teach non-linguistic contents via English.

This presentation illustrates an upper secondary school project addressed to future pilots and air traffic controllers: English language training courses for them focuses almost exclusively on improving listening and speaking skills, in that they are both essential to ensuring safety in civil aviation. In reference to these skills, according to the International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO) language proficiency scale, the communicative aspects to develop for professional purposes are comprehension, fluency, interaction, vocabulary, grammar structures and pronunciation. To this extent, texts and manuals used for aviation courses have essentially a dual function: on the one hand, to provide background information and explanation notes on aviation contexts and, on the other hand, give some suggestions on how to teach topics most effectively.

Key words: English for Aviation, ICAO, Upper Secondary School, project.

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1. INTRODUCTION

As testified by several linguists (Crystal 2003; House 2002) English has gained the role of *global language* throughout the second part of the XIX century, being even more frequently “associated with the leading edge of global scientific, technological, economic and cultural developments” (Graddol 1997, 4). The English language, in fact, has spread worldwide among non-native speakers becoming the linguistic medium of communication *par excellence* in both international and intranational settings. As Crystal (2003) points out, indeed, the language spoken in the Anglophone areas has developed a special role in most part of countries all over the world and it is now used in many heterogeneous spheres, such as in the case of international conventions dealing with political and socio-economic issues, academic and business meetings and world’s daily communications.

Therefore, the gradual growth of worldwide socio-economic relationships and the technological progress in multifarious fields have fostered the removal of national barriers, promoting individuals’ exigency to learn English: in fact, the undisputed role that the English language played throughout the second part of the XX century, and is still playing, have forced people to get closer to the language.

Due to different educational or working reasons, students and workers have been involved in many projects of international activities, whose one of the main pillars has always been the presence of the English language. Thus, the even more centrifugal process of globalization and interculturality has fostered the need of a plurilinguistic education, which could take into account the knowledge of areas and regions different from the native place, a greater awareness of international and global issues, a growing interest in other countries and cultures and a more conscious will to study or work in an environment whose architecture is based on the idea of an inter-connective world, where mobility, multilingualism and *glocalization* are the main principles to follow. In regard to this aspect, Mazur (2009, 169), explains that “the concept of *localization* should always be discussed in the context of *globalization*”: whether the latter definition means “(cultural) homogeneity and impose[s] sameness” (ibid.), the former one focuses more on target audiences’ cultural and linguistic background. However, thanks to the twentieth-century innovations and trends, the two tendencies, which seemed to be antithetical, can co-exist, giving birth to what the sociologist Robertson defines *glocalization*, meaning the fall of the strict boundaries between the global and the local. As an inevitable consequence to this process of mobilization and cross-cultural networks, people all over the world have learnt to act locally with a global perspective. As a matter of fact, the linguistic code used in the case of international communicative exchanges is not seen in terms of territorial identity anymore, but it becomes a useful means to interact by individuals not sharing the same socio-cultural background. In regard to this aspect, the English language has been “accepted from outside the community” (Crystal 1997, 11), becoming what scholars define a *lingua franca*, that is to say, a linguistic code systematically used to make communication possible between interlocutors not sharing the same linguistic background. Taking into consideration its tentacular development, Seidlhofer (2005, 339), citing Firth (1996, 240), clarifies the fact that English “in most cases, is “a contact language” between persons who share neither a common native tongue nor a common (national) culture, and for whom English is the chosen foreign language for communication”. According to Crystal (2003), in fact, roughly only one out of every four users of English is a native speaker, therefore, most part of individuals all over the world use the English language as the only medium of communication which allows them to interact with their interlocutors.

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2. PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

As a inevitable consequence to the spread of the English language and its undisputed status of *lingua franca*, several changes in the field of education have been developed too. In fact, the even growing interest in using and learning English in the countries of the Expanding Circle have brought scholars and teachers at all levels to discuss and re-take into consideration the traditional assumptions related to the teaching and the learning of the English language. Along with the linguistic features of the language, for instance, the pre-set didactic methods involved the acquisition of the cultural traits of the Anglophone areas, because understanding and being familiar with these aspects was considered an indispensable characteristic to be “a good speaker of English”. However, taking for granted the new role that the language has gained, House (2002) and McKay (2002) point out that native speakers and their socio-cultural background have not to be seen as a perfect pattern to follow anymore. In regard to this aspect, Graddol (1997, 8) states that “EFL [English as a Foreign Language] approaches, like all foreign language teaching, positions the learners as an outsider, as a foreigner; one who struggles to attain acceptance by target community”. Recent pedagogical research explain that English has become a language aiming at understandability rather than of accuracy; and, according to this perspective, intelligibility is the key word. The English language becomes functional to all those users who need to interact with other people not sharing the same mother tongue. The “de-territorialization of speech events, as Seidlhofer defines it, seems to be the best solution to promote the right acquisition of the linguistic code. In this case, in fact, a useful didactic solution should “foster an understanding of the processes of language variation and change, the relation between language and identity, the importance of socio-psychological factors in intercultural communication” (Seidlhofer 2002, 271).

So, the didactic approach has to be based on a tailor-made set of pedagogical principles, which aims at taking into consideration any specific need shown by the users of English: any intranational and international situation has to be analysed and incorporated in the didactic path, and any learner’s exigency has to be included in the language course. In this respect, McKay (2003) highlights the fact that the need to understand and define the areas in which students use English is directly proportional to the full satisfaction of their requirements.

3. ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES: A TAYLOR MADE APPROACH

One of the most exhaustive definitions of the acronym ESP is given by Robinson (1980, 5), who states that it “focuses attention on the purposes of the learner and refers to the whole range of language resource”. As explained in the previous paragraph, indeed, any speaker of English must be able to use the language for his/her own specific needs. Therefore, Robinson (1980) also clarifies that the teaching and the learning of ESP involves other three criteria which always have to be taken into consideration:

- Time factor: for those who study ESP learning the language is something subsidiary to another interest (e.g. mobility or occupation), therefore, the required level of competence has to be achieved in the shortest possible time;
- Age factor: for the same reasons already explained above, learners of ESP are generally adults;

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- Purpose factor: as clarified by the author (Robinson, 1980, 10), “the fact that the students of ESP can express his or her purpose in learning is this very purposefulness itself”. Both teachers and learners are always aware of the goal they have to achieve, that is to say, they can always examine their path modifying it every time it is needed.

• As Hutchinson and Waters (1987) write, ESP can be seen as an approach rather than as a end-product, because it forces teachers and learners to focus on the specific need they have to follow getting rid of the pre-set models which conceived the study of the foreign language as something just related to the native speakers’ cultures and habits. The recent idea according to which individuals’ occupations and activities are of central concern to centre the course and to avoid to teach “general English” seems to be successful and to foster people’s learning skills. Students, indeed, are asked to focus on what they really need to succeed in their activity without forcing them to become native speakers’ emulators.

Throughout the last few decades, this approach has allowed learners to declare their purposes, so that, many are the different branches developed to follow people’s desires: in the academic dimension as well as in the school curricula new courses have been activated: among them some of the most popular are Business English, English for Social Sciences, English for Art, Legal English, English for Medical Purposes and English for Aviation.

The project analysed in this article has been conceived for future pilots and air traffic controllers of an upper secondary school. English training courses for them focus almost exclusively on improving listening and speaking skills, in that they are both essential to ensuring safety in civil aviation.

4. THE PROJECT: MULTI-LEVEL APPROACHES

Up to now, school texts and manuals used for aviation training courses have basically had a dual function: on the one hand, to provide background information and explanations on aviation contexts and, on the other hand, to give practical suggestions on how to teach topics in English most effectively.

On these premises, the first step taken into account in planning the project concerns our students’ specific needs, their different levels of English, as well as lessons contents. Indeed, this study is based on a multi-level structure that mainly includes and applies two different approaches, that are the Content-Based Aviation English and the Blended Approach.

The inclusion of the Content-Based Aviation English has been adapted as a consequence of the recommendations of the ICAO Document 9835¹ according to which this approach has a twofold function, that is either “to economize and to maximize the effectiveness of an aviation English syllabus”. In 2008, the ICAO language testing Standards and Recommended Practises have brought about meaningful transformations and changes in the way English language training operates within the aviation field.

Due to these new requirements, the ICAO Language Proficiency Rating Scale establishes clear training targets for both, speaking and listening proficiency skills. The process aims at assessing the student’s communicative competence through direct proficiency tests; this is one of the main features of

¹ICAO Document 9835: *Manual on Implementation of ICAO Language Proficiency Requirements*, caa.gateway.bg/upload/docs/9835_1_ed.pdf, (accessed March 3rd, 2013).

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the Content-Based approach in that test method normally affects training planning as a consequence of the phenomenon known as *test washback*. This definition refers to the effect that a test has on training; indeed, in a typical school context, students usually establish a direct correlation between the topics they learn and the procedures used to test their knowledge and competence.

Notwithstanding the primary role of knowledge, language proficiency also implies an intertwined relation amongst competence, skills and abilities. This complex interaction mirrors the complexity of finding a definition for the concept of “knowledge of a language”. Whilst not exhaustive, a possible explanation for communicative competence can be found in, at least, three main skills:

- *Grammatical competence*: The student knows how the language is structured and how the grammar works;
- *Pragmatic competence*: The student knows how the context contributes to meaning in the language he studies;
- *Cohesion competence*: The student knows how sentences can be combined to make texts coherent.

Measurable improvement and positive results can be achieved if the above mentioned skills integrate the Content-Based approach; indeed, the planning of our project has outlined the possibility of developing high-interest and valuable aviation-specific English language syllabuses addressed to pilots and air traffic controllers.

In these terms, if the teacher establishes a clear relationship between content-based lessons, competences and skills that the student has to develop, the efficiency of lessons will be enhanced in respect to both, learning sessions and students' expectations. As suggested by the ICAO Guidance Manual (Document 9835, Chapter 4.4.11), the Content-Based approach is particularly useful to fulfil aviation English training, in that

- it pairs language learning with safety content lessons;
- it enhances the students' safety awareness;
- and, as a consequence, it increases their motivation.

These fundamental characteristics represent the core of the on-going process at which every student aims. As a matter of fact, avoiding the artificial distinction between language and communication, the Content-Based Approach offers its learners the possibility of coping with, and effectively use, the English language in specific contexts. That is to say that content and grammar share equal importance. After having planned the first part of the syllabus, it is important to revise it with the help of a checklist that provides a series of questions, through which the teacher can evaluate the efficiency of the English training course. The following examples represent useful suggestions to follow:

Context/Content revision: Does the content of each lesson “reproduce” real situations that both, pilots and air traffic controllers are likely to face? Is the content relevant to them? Is it possible to distinguish the specific content of each lesson from the more general use of grammar rules?

Cohesion revision: Is there a thematic order to follow in the way lessons are presented and/or a cohesion of topics? What is the criterion that ties a lesson to another and the method used to plan them?

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The next phase of our project analyzes the Blended Learning. This approach has become one of the primary supports in English language training in the last decades and can be defined as a combination of “face-to face instruction with computer-mediated instruction”².

In terms of English language training solutions, this approach provides a fundamental methodology to define the teaching process to be adopted to design a syllabus. As specified in the above definition, the Blended Approach includes a percentage ratio of Computer Assisted Language Learning (also known as CALL). To understand how the CALL method works, it is necessary to make some preliminary observations on its evolution in time; indeed, the first attempts of this approach date back to the 1960s, mainly concerning second language teaching and pedagogic methods. In this light, the CALL approach entails three principal phases, that are:

- *Behaviouristic CALL*
- *Communicative CALL*
- *Integrative CALL*

As Mark Warschauer points out, “[t]he first phase of CALL, conceived in the 1950s and implemented in the 1960s and '70s, was based on the then-dominant behaviorist theories of learning. Programs of this phase entailed repetitive language drills and can be referred to as "drill and practice" (or, more pejoratively, as "drill and kill").”³

According to this definition, “drill and kill” courses were based on a model that used computers as “trainers” that mediated instructional materials to their students. Its main characteristics, as Warschauer adds, provided a series of benefits, in that:

- repeated exposure to the same material is beneficial or even essential to learning;
- a computer is ideal for carrying out repeated drills, since the machine does not get bored with presenting the same material and since it can provide immediate non-judgmental feedback;
- a computer can present such material on an individualized basis, allowing students to proceed at their own pace and freeing up class time for other activities.⁴

Unfortunately, this first CALL system was affected by some limitations such as,

- high cost for using computers;
- inability of the early computers to allow CALL to work without the mediation of audiolingualism;
- access limitations.

² Charles R. Graham, *Blended Learning Systems: Definition, Current Trends and Future Directions*, USA, Birmingham Young University, 2007, <http://www.ict4lt.org/en/warschauer.htm>, (accessed March 3, 2013).

³ Mark Warschauer, “Computer Assisted Language Learning: an Introduction”, in *Multimedia Language Teaching*, Fotos S. Ed., Tokyo: Logos International: 3-20, 1996, <http://www.ict4lt.org/en/warschauer.htm>, (accessed March 3, 2013).

⁴ Mark Warschauer, “Computer Assisted Language Learning: an Introduction”.

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In the 1970s, with the first attempts to consider the student as the starting point and the final “target” of learning, the Behaviouristic CALL underwent some changes due to the fact that “[f]irst, behavioristic approaches to language learning had been rejected at both the theoretical and the pedagogical level. Secondly, the introduction of the microcomputer allowed a whole new range of possibilities. The stage was set for a new phase of CALL.”⁵

On these premises, the Behaviouristic CALL was replaced by the Communicative CALL that as John Underwood, one of its main theorists, proposed in his “Premises for Communicative CALL” (Underwood 1984:52) brought about the following innovations:

- focused more on using forms rather than on the forms themselves;
- taught grammar implicitly rather than explicitly;
- allowed and encourages students to generate original utterances rather than just manipulate prefabricated language;
- did not judge and evaluate everything the students nor reward them with congratulatory messages, lights, or bells;
- avoided telling students they are wrong and is flexible to a variety of student responses;
- used the target language exclusively and creates an environment in which using the target language feels natural, both on and off the screen;
- would never try to do anything that a book can do just as well.

Even though the Communicative CALL provided students with opportunities to speak focusing on both, fluency and accuracy, critics highlighted the fact that the use of computers was limited to specific situations so that it “[found] itself making a greater contribution to marginal rather than to central elements” (Warschauer 1996) of the language teaching process. Consequently, the new target that theorists tried to define was the identification of an integrative approach that could bring together various aspects of the language learning process. Needless to say, the new model to develop had been conceived thanks to recent technological innovations: multimedia/hypermedia technology and the Internet. Notwithstanding its intrinsic value, as Warschauer argues,

[m]ultimedia technology as it currently exists [...] only partially contributes to integrative CALL. Using multimedia may involve an integration of skills (e.g. listening with reading), but it too seldom involves a more important type of integration - integrating meaningful and authentic communication into all aspects of the language learning curriculum. Fortunately, though, another technological breakthrough is helping make that possible - electronic communication and the Internet.⁶

The electronic communication or, more specifically, Computer Mediated Communication (CMC) started out in the 1960s, but has reached its peak in the last years. Thanks to this breakthrough,

[f]or the first time, language learners can communicate directly, inexpensively, and conveniently with other learners or speakers of the target language 24 hours a day, from school, work, or home. This communication can be asynchronous (not simultaneous) through tools such as electronic mail (email), which allows each participant to compose messages at their time and pace, or in can be synchronous (synchronous, "real time") [...] [i]t also

⁵ Mark Warschauer, “Computer Assisted Language Learning: an Introduction”.

⁶ Mark Warschauer, “Computer Assisted Language Learning: an Introduction”.

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allows not only one-to-one communication, but also one-to-many, allowing a teacher or student to share a message with a small group, the whole class, a partner class, or an international discussion list of hundreds or thousands of people.⁷

This approach can also allow

users to share not only brief messages, but also lengthy (formatted or unformatted) documents - thus facilitating collaborative writing - and also graphics, sounds, and video. Using the World Wide Web (WWW), students can search through millions of files around the world within minutes to locate and access authentic materials (e.g. newspaper and magazine articles, radio broadcasts, short videos, movie reviews, book excerpts) exactly tailored to their own personal interests. They can also use the Web to publish their texts or multimedia materials to share with partner classes or with the general public.⁸

This brief overview was necessary to better understand the approaches taken into account in the development of our project. Thus, after having defined them, it would be worth introducing in detail the different steps and levels that we have analyzed and tailored for the students of our school. Our attempt basically aimed at combining the above mentioned approaches, following a multi-level organization of the syllabus.

More specifically, as regards the content-based approach, we have identified the following areas:

- authentic texts based on specific lexical fields and/or aviation topics, such as security, air traffic control, weather, health;
- emergency situations;
- operational procedures;
- application of the ICAO recommendations ;
- key issues in everyday situations.

The further point to ponder over was the interaction of the Content-Based method with the Blended Approach; as a matter of fact, the former completes and enhances the efficacy of the latter also thanks to the use of the multimedia technology. Indeed, the student has the chance to listen to multifarious recordings which may include everyday and/or unfamiliar situations, noises, unclear messages and statements and different accents.

The last consideration that we have included in this analysis concerns the different aspects of communication, according to the parameters of the ICAO language assessment methodology:

- fluency;
- interaction;
- comprehension;
- pronunciation;
- structure and vocabulary

⁷ Mark Warschauer, "Computer Assisted Language Learning: an Introduction".

⁸ Mark Warschauer, "Computer Assisted Language Learning: an Introduction".

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Students are asked to interact both, with the teacher and with multimedia activities, so that the topic of the lesson is “contextualized” and paralleled with the linguistic and communicative targets. Whilst neither definitive nor exhaustive, our project aims at fostering new didactic and pedagogic approaches to ESP, also offering an innovative perspective through which teachers can make alternative choices, enriching their hard work with meaningful and challenging experiences.

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Application of CLIL based on the example of the Estonian Academy of Security Sciences

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Abstract: Teaching languages for specific purposes (English, Estonian and Russian) is one of the most important objectives of the Language Centre of the Estonian Academy of Security Sciences. Through teaching languages we provide our state with competent public servants and therewith contribute to the security of the entire EU. The reason for implementing CLIL (content and language integrated learning) in subjects taught at the academy is derived from the extremely poor feedback by our alumni in the last two surveys, where the dissatisfaction with the acquired language skills was worrying. Though, at the same time, we have been facing a dilemma - from one hand the volume of language courses is decreasing but on the other side, the employers' expectations are still high and have remained the same. Thus, one possible solution to improve the language learning process and outcomes was to implement CLIL. For us, CLIL is interpreted as a means of cooperation between three counterparts: the employer (ministries under the government of the Interior, e.g., boards, etc), the language teacher and the specialty teacher. Thus, in autumn 2012 the Language Centre officially commenced with the pilot project of integrating languages into specialty subjects. Furthermore, the Academy administration has supported the whole CLIL implementation process from the very beginning. During the current academic year 2012/2013 the Centre is teaching integrated language and specialty subjects in three colleges out of four, but the whole process is constantly demanding promotional work on the essence and advantages of applying CLIL.

Key words: CLIL, language for specific purposes, integrated learning, employer, specialty teacher, language teacher

1. INTRODUCTION

The Estonian Academy of Security Sciences is a state institution, providing professional higher education for civil servants under the Ministry of the Interior. It conducts training in the specialties of the fields of internal security (police and border guard, rescue, correction, taxation and customs). It comprises training and teaching on the level of vocational education, higher education and Master's studies.

The mission is to train honest and competent civil servants to ensure and contribute to the enhancement of the stability and security of the country. It requires highly qualified civil servants with good educational backgrounds including excellent professional language skills. The significance of language skills was already presented in 1995, when the European Commission issued the white paper *Teaching & Learning: Towards a Learning Society* stating that "proficiency in several Community languages has become a precondition if citizens of the European Union are to benefit from the occupational and personal opportunities open to them in the border-free Single Market;" and they then advocate proficiency in three Union languages (EUR-Lex 1998).

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Furthermore, in the Academy's context, it emphasises the necessity for professional language skills among civil servants who are responsible for the country's internal and external security. Moreover, after receiving international accreditation as the first institution out of all the institutions of higher professional education in Estonia, the Centre was advised to develop and draw more attention towards more effective language learning/teaching processes, especially in teaching the Russian and Estonian languages, due to the poor feedback by our alumni in the last two surveys. It was obvious the employers of our graduates were not satisfied. At the same time, they need to face the fact of reduced volume of language classes but high expectations from the employers was apparent ('employer' refers to the employer of our graduates, i.e., Ministry of the Interior, Police and Border Guard Board, Tax and Customs Board, Rescue Board).

Regarding our language law, which was adopted in 1995 for regulating the use of language in the public and private sector, it requires that any person working with the public is required to have a prescribed degree of proficiency in the state language (Maljers et al. 2007; Mehisto et al. 2010, 11-15).

Thus, the Centre urgently needed to implement some innovative changes; an improvement in the language teaching process and the implementation of CLIL was basically derived from this direct need. CLIL in general is expected to provide learners with the possibility to achieve the language either more quickly or more efficiently (van Els 2005, 971 – 993).

In this article I focus on our Centre's experience of applying CLIL. We have defined it as our Centre's pilot project for the 2012/2013 academic year.

2. PREPARATORY PROCESS FOR THE PILOT PROJECT

The concept of CLIL was first employed in Europe in 1994 and Estonia agreed upon the concept in the year 2007 (*lõimitud aine- ja keeleõpe: LAK-õpe*) (Mehisto et al, 2010, 10-11).

What is CLIL? It is a dual focussed educational approach which involves competence building in language knowledge and skills, whereas it is not specifically "language learning" and not specifically "subject learning", but is a fusion of both (Maljers et al, 2007). "CLIL is the platform for an innovative methodological approach of a far broader scope than language teaching. Accordingly, its advocates stress how it seeks to develop proficiency in both the non-language subject and the language in which this is taught, attaching the same importance to each. Furthermore, achieving this twofold aim calls for the development of a special approach to teaching, which implies a more integrated approach to both teaching and learning that requires that teachers should devote more special thought, not just to how languages should be taught, but to the educational process in general" (Eurodyce, 2005, 7).

Hence we realised that CLIL as content and language integrated learning, could provide some solutions to the situation we were facing. We considered it as an opportunity, instead of increasing the number of language classes, we could combine language learning directly into the specialty subjects.

At our Language Centre, we have always considered the trilateral cooperation for language learning as the lecturer, a subject and the employer (i.e., the ministry, boards, etc.) and all three are very essential for achieving our goals. Now this critical tie had to be strengthened. Regarding the cooperation it is also one of the pillars of applying CLIL. It would be of an important value for the improvement of the quality of the language teaching process.

From the learner's point of view, integrated learning is assumed to contribute to language proficiency as well as to the content knowledge development and it raises the level of motivation (Maljers et al 2007).

2.1 Background Information of the Language Learning Process at the Academy

The aim of learning English or Russian for vocational or professional purposes is for a student to be able to communicate in job-related situations and perform particular job-related functions, read specialist literature, participate in multinational training events, workshops, projects, working groups and in making presentations. Professional language concentrates more on language in context than on teaching grammar and language structures. It is not taught as a subject separated from the students' real world; instead, it is integrated into a subject matter area important to the learners.

Currently, the volume of professional language courses varies from college to college. In the College of Finance we teach the state language (Estonian) in the volume of 3 ECTS, but no other college considers it necessary any more as a compulsory subject in their curricula. The Rescue College has omitted all languages from its curriculum, whilst languages are partitioned off to belong to the group of elective subjects. The College of Justice is focusing on teaching the Russian language (it is derived from our society values and understandings) while it is a major problem among our cadets that they either have no knowledge or very little knowledge of Russian when they enter the academy. Hence Russian is considered a number one language of importance in the field of corrections. Though, learning English is mostly the language of research, international cooperation and further studies. The Police and Border guard College fortunately emphasises the necessity of language proficiency and they teach Russian, English and Estonian (elective) for professional purposes. The Estonian language courses are mostly offered for graduates of Russian gymnasiums for better coping with their studies in general.

As mentioned earlier, the volume of professional language courses has been reduced and the capacity of the specialty related languages is different: in the day studies of professional higher education (degree studies) - 48 hours (4 ECTS) and 36 hours (3 ECTS), in distant studies 18 hours (1,5 ECTS) and 24 hours (3 ECTS; individual work 56 hours); in vocational education 72 hours (3 ECTS; individual work 8 hours). In the degree studies, a big emphasis lies on individual work.

2.2 Introducing a New Approach to Teaching

A new approach to thinking was the first factor to be considered, in all areas of our academy, starting from the administration to specialty lecturers, including cadets who seemed first to be in fear of the change. We started to promote the way of thinking that every teacher is a language teacher, actually it has always been in our minds but now it was perfect timing for laying emphasis on it.

It all of the process we constituted a systematic approach for change management. First, we set specific questions: Who? What? When? Why? How? It was followed by mapping the needs and our vision of applying CLIL. Furthermore, we had to consider which speciality subjects, which areas, which focus points we could set. Subsequently we, the language lecturers tried to visualise and conciliate our vision and realistic possibilities into the teaching context and see the specialty subjects and language combined together. We had to analyse the possibilities and the common point for languages and specialty subjects. To be more exact, CLIL was needed to be applied because the huge gap between the employers' expectations and needs and our actual possibilities were far apart. It was considered as a bridge between the two parts. Thus, we were compelled to face all specialty lecturers and discuss the possible actions and make our proposals and listen to their visions and ideas about integrating language learning into speciality a subject teaching/learning process.

To be able to deliver our message of our expectations and beliefs and act more precisely, we had to create a systematic approach ourselves and prepare ourselves to the problems of dealing with change

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management. Subsequently we figured out clear goals, what should be taught, why it should be taught and how it should be taught (methodology) and who it should be taught to (the target group).

During the meetings with the representatives of our academic staff in colleges and centres, as expected, it was, or to be more precise, it is still even now not an easy task to accomplish. People, especially academic staff are not easily changed; they are quite reluctant to adopt any changes. Thus we considered it to be wise to take the whole idea to the target group step by step. The largest scope of our mental activity was occupied by finding the right key persons (i.e., key colleagues), the ones who could be prone to changes and development, the way of thinking and the learning/teaching process. To be utterly honest, we had implemented a bit of CLIL a long time ago, but not under the right concept or term.

Two months into the spring of 2012, our language lecturers visited all of our colleges (Rescue, Finance, Justice, Police and Border guard) and the satellite schools (in Paikuse and Väike-Maarja) as well as the Centre of Law and Social Sciences. During our visits we encountered different opinions, cynical looks and ignorant, unemotional, dismissive and pessimistic people, but luckily also some few ready-to-cooperate, optimistic, understanding and amused colleagues. It is worth noting that some specialty lecturers and one director of one of our colleges had already some fruitful ideas themselves for integrating language and specialty subjects. All in all, our tour around the colleges finished positively and we received a lot of complementary approvals and ideas as well as proposals. During our round table discussions we realised that we were actually facing similar problems, both by the speciality lecturers and our language lecturers – our cadets had problems with expressing themselves both in writing and orally in our state language, not mentioning foreign languages. The next step was then to frame and formalise it to improve the language levels among our academy cadets altogether.

Ultimately we had a discussion meeting with the representatives of our cadets (each college was represented) on how to improve the quality of our language teaching/learning process.

After the meetings with the lecturers from the colleges and centres, we made a summary of the meetings, concluded all the proposals and ideas and compiled a draft to be presented to our top management. We succeeded in delivering our message to our administration and currently we have our top management's support, which was and still acts as an incentive to what we are doing.

3. PILOT PROJECT FOR APPLYING CLIL

As a result of all the above described activities in the academic year of 2012/2013 we have applied CLIL in the following specialty subjects:

In the English language in:

- Prevention in Rescue Work
- Solving Cases of Domestic Violence
- Introduction to offence procedure and proof in offence procedure
- Correctional Psychology
- Research Methodology
- Document examination and different information systems
- Lectures for MA students in the English Language

In the Russian language:

- Surveillance activities and tactics in prison
- Emergency despatcher's proceeding of emergency calls

In the Estonian language: - mostly projects

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- During one week “The Week of the Estonian Language” cadets’ tests, essays and other written assignments are checked and the writings undergo linguistic analysis, cadets are provided with feedback
- 2012 – 2013 Estonian language course for first year cadets at the level of C1– Introduction to Law, Public Law, Psychology – these subjects are integrated in the language learning process
- 2010 - cooperation project “Rescue Works and the Basic Course of Medicine”
- 2012 - 2013 pretraining of internal security

Work Shadowing in:

- Viru Prison, Tartu Prison, Harku Prison
- North-Estonian Emergency Response Centre,
- Lasnamäe Police Station, Northern Prefecture
- Narva border crossing point and Narva border guard station

Study materials compiled in cooperation with specialty lecturers and specialists:

- Language textbooks for rescuers, „Õiguse jõud“, „Kaitse enda ja aita teisi“ (www.kutsekeel.ee)
- E-learning objects and e-learning courses (www.sisekaitse.ee)
- Professional language dictionaries (<http://dict.sisekaitse.ee>)
- Language Robot (www.keelerobot.eu)

International cooperation projects:

- Quality Assurance in Language for Specific Purposes (<http://www.qalspell.ttu.ee>)
- 2008 – 2009 ITPSSM Integrated Training for Peace Support and Security Management (<http://www.britishcouncil.org/lithuania-english-pep-itpssm.htm>)

CLIL incorporates different methodologies and different approaches to teaching. We also know that there are a number of varieties developed and they are still developing. In some contexts we can apply general CLIL, in others Modular CLIL and also Context-specific CLIL (Maljers et al 2007). As is stated, integrated learning mostly means teaching subjects in a foreign language, but it also comprises facilitating language proficiency. In our context we have adopted CLIL to our context.

Unfortunately we cannot teach specialty subjects fully in a foreign language, only in parts. At the beginning it was the biggest fear for some of our colleagues that to start teaching specialty subjects in a foreign language would set restrictions and lower students’ motivation. CLIL in its content should facilitate the learning process and make it more enhancing for the learners to realise why it is necessary in their future working conditions.

In some countries, i.e., in Germany, Austria, etc, teachers have so called dual-qualifications, i.e., they study two subjects at a University, comprising a language and a content subject (Maljers et al 2007). In Estonia, in most cases, teachers do not have the privilege of having dual qualifications (two languages yes, but not two specialties), but it is remarkable that our lecturers teaching languages for professional purposes do acquire the content by developing and educating themselves along with the process. Our immediate problem is to compile teaching materials and find authentic material, along with correct equivalents and terminology, which we can put into the Estonian language. To master all this, we are expected to cooperate with specialists and experts in different fields of internal security, as well as with our colleagues at the academy. At the same time, the question of how much subject-matter experts the language teachers should become, quickly emerges.

So how have we applied CLIL in our curricula? In some subjects we have integrated English into the specialty subject in different ways, such as teaching one part of theory in English, whereas it is delivered by the English language lecturer assisted by specialty lecturer; we also have common tasks for two subjects, e.g., in Correctional Psychology we cooperate with the specialty lecturer, i.e., cadets

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choose a scientific article from their professional field in English, write a summary in Estonian and prepare a presentation in English. At the end of the course we arrange a student conference (this first took place in 2012) in a big lecture hall which has guests in attendance (i.e., cadets and students from other courses and groups, but also lecturers and other interested people). Thus, we hold a conference with speakers (our cadets) and questions, i.e., discussions.

Teaching border guard students at the vocational level, we have integrated two foreign languages and a specialty subject (Document examination and different information systems), which means we facilitate the learning process with true-to-life situations on the border (English - Estonian – Russian). Students are provided with cases, they prepare and act out real situations at the border crossing point being prepared to respond both in English and in Russian. Three lecturers (English, Russian and a specialty lecturer) are teaching at the same time, analysing, giving feedback, giving advice and helping the cadets with any necessary language and professional expertise at the same time.

When teaching distant police students we have an integrated element in integrating Professional English into Police Sociology. We organized seminars where students presented articles they have read in English (approved by the specialty lecturer). They are obliged to submit written summaries of the article (in Estonian) and present 5 necessary words from the article. They make the presentation in Estonian (specialty lecturer and the lecturers of English are present). Afterwards they need to present the article in English according to the certain presentation structure they are presented beforehand. The presentations are followed by discussions, but then in English. It is a challenging task for the especially weaker students whose language level is A2.

As to Russian language integration into a specialty subject, the methods are more practical, i.e., hands-on-trainings, true-to-life situations (role-playing), two lecturers are involved in the same classroom, analysing students activities both from the Professional side and language usage, for instance when teaching the proceeding of emergency calls, the students are provided with feedback both from the vocational teacher and the language lecturer.

When teaching correctional cadets at the vocational level, they are enhancing the language learning process with teaching in the prison environment (a prison cell made for study purposes on the premises of the academy). Sometimes they have two lecturers teaching together, sometimes only the language lecturer or the specialty lecturer alone.

This academic year we are conducting an Estonian language project in our Language centre focusing on teaching the Estonian language to our first year cadets who have finished Russian gymnasiums. It is not only teaching the language but it is a good example of cooperation between specialty lecturers and the Estonian language teacher. The whole project comprises the Estonian Language being integrated into specialty subjects (public law, administrative law, psychology) - an example of applying CLIL. During the project, the students also spend time on visits to our Supreme Court, Parliament house, etc. Thus, integrated learning facilitates the learning process, makes it more challenging and broadens the students' knowledge, not only in the field of language but also in the social context.

Our Language centre has also cooperated with specialists from boards on compiling textbooks, e-learning materials and our good example of CLIL is the Language Robot (www.keelerobot.eu), which is a computer-based voice recognition tool built especially for border guard cadets to enhance the language learning process. It enables them to learn certain set phrases and questions they need on the border. Though we currently have only the demo version of it, it has already received awards and has raised much attention. In the future, more (exotic) languages will be added and there will be more tasks and material to acquire. It helps learners to work on their own and develop their language skills.

4. FEEDBACK ON APPLYING CLIL

To start with, there are still existing barriers to understanding the importance and necessity of integrating curricular subjects and language learning. But honestly, from the other side, as it is in its development phase, we cannot draw conclusions on the expected efficiency of applying integrated learning. It has so far been our own initiative to apply CLIL and we have been lucky enough to have innovative and ready-for-challenges colleagues who have agreed to try and enhance learning and the teaching processes by integrating content and language.

“The powerful metaphors of ‘two for the price of one’ and the ‘added value of CLIL’ seem to have become accepted truths in the general CLIL-discourse rather than hypotheses to be tested through evidence-based research. Still, they create a powerful atmosphere of optimism and almost limitless belief in the potential of CLIL” (Bonnet 2012).

The students’ feedback has been positive in most cases:

- *integrated tasks – presentations based on the article of professional content in the English language (two subjects combined – one source = two outputs). Though it has been time demanding, it has also been challenging and provided us with a lot of new vocabulary we need for our career development)*
- *hard but challenging*
- *demanding extra time and a friend’s assistance, but great!*
- *provides the possibility to read professional literature in a foreign language*
- *provokes discussions on work-related issues*
- *provides the possibility to learn useful phrases*
- *the student conference where we needed to make presentations gave us the opportunity to experience real situations, failure and sense of victory over my own fears, etc.*

Some fruit for thought for us, the lecturers, to be considered in the future:

- *too much workload for students whose language level is very low*
- *if part of the theory in the content subject is taught in English, it is recommended to test the comprehension of it during the exam in English (i.e., a part of the final exam could be in English also)*
- *it is difficult to consider content and language at the same time (it was also brought out as a challenge)*
- *the assessment criteria (to work out assessment criteria if language is integrated in the content subject), etc.*
- *still not enough courage and knowledge to manage in different work-related situations, etc.*

To conclude, we hope that our pilot project is sustainable enough to continue and expand itself to all colleges and various subjects. We will carry on with promoting the application of CLIL as one means for improving our students’ language proficiency through integrating language into specialty subjects, alongside with spreading the message that every teacher is a language teacher.

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English for the Customs officers **The experience of the Russian Customs Academy in ESP teaching**

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Abstract: The Russian Customs Academy is a higher educational institution and one of the Regional Training Centers of the WCO. It provides training in Customs Legislation, Economics and Customs Management. It was established by the Federal Customs Service of the Russian Federation. The Federal Customs Service (FCS) of Russia is a Federal executive authority, performing the functions of control and supervision in the field of customs and the functions of a currency control agent and special functions of contraband control, abatement of other crimes and administrative violations. Russian Customs academy is a unique institution with three branches in St. Petersburg, Rostov-on-Don and Vladivostok. The general purpose of the Academy is to train the specialists able to: identifying people to question, searching baggage and individuals for smuggled items, seizing smuggled goods, checking documentation relating to imported and exported goods, undertaking physical examinations of freight, detecting the drug smugglers, collecting and supplying trade statistics, writing reports, combating the illegal trade in endangered species, dealing with revenue due on imported and exported goods, calculating and collecting customs duties and taxes, using e-customs instruments and IT technologies. Taking into account the facts of Russia's joining the WTO and the creation of the Customs Union between Russia, Kazakhstan and Belarus the demands for perfectly trained staff is the burning issue of today's reality. Among the professional skills the Customs officers should obtain is a very good foreign languages command. All the ESP training activities are fulfilled by the Department of Foreign Languages of RCA. The main problem is the adjustment of the programs and methods of teaching to the very quickly changing political and economic reality. The ESP teaching concept of teaching thinking develops the ability to use the linguistic skills in making prompt decisions in changing situations and apply deductive thinking and evaluation of the situation.

Key words: customs, business, federal, service, duties, revenue, skills

“May you live in interesting times,” says an old Chinese proverb. But it seems to us that we, Russians, are always having interesting times. In order to survive and to make a certain progress, we are to adapt quickly to possible changes and to find out the ways to bring good to our professional sphere.

The main challenge for Russian educationalists today is the reforming and modernizing of higher education under the Bologna Process. Educational institutions of higher learning have been striving to introduce a two-degree (Bachelor and Master) educational system of training since September 1, 2010, in parallel with a well-established Specialist academic degree. The new standards suggest that the essential part of the curricula should be developed by universities. These developments should be carried out by taking into a thorough analysis the experiences of universities, scientific schools and

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demands of the reality. Thus the universities of Russia face an important task of reforming a large number of educational programs.

The development of new educational programs should be based on the achievements of the world academic thought. This work could be successful for Russian higher education institutions, provided they work in multilateral partnership with the EU. The aim of such partnership is the establishment of a common European network of higher education in Russia in order to improve the quality of education, to create more jobs and to upgrade Russian universities.

On the final day of 2012, Russian President Vladimir Putin signed the Law on Education in the Russian Federation. The new law stipulates norms for all levels of education, including pre-school, elementary, middle, higher, professional and supplemental education.

Earlier in 2012, the President promised several reforms in the education sector:

- to export Russian education in order to establish internationally a more positive image of Russia;
- to emphasize military education and to stimulate the defense industry research and development;
- to strengthen the quality of education by updating curricula and extracurricular programs, and to provide a monthly financial aid for low-income and high-achieving students;
- to promote civic patriotism in literary education.

It was also proposed to close or to optimize Russia's ineffective higher educational institutions in 2013. There are 256 state-run and private educational institutions whose documents will be checked for the compliance with the license requirements and terms. The Russian Customs Academy (RCA), where the authors are currently working, will undergo the reforming, too.

The Academy was founded on 22 September 1993 by the decision of the Russian Federation Government. It functions under the supervision of two state bodies: the Ministry of Education and Science and the Federal Customs Service of the Russian Federation.

The RCA has three branches located in Vladivostok, Rostov-on-Don and St. Petersburg. Besides, it includes The Institute of E-Learning, Retraining and Qualification Improvement and The Institute of Law Enforcement Activities.

The RCA headquarters is in Lubertsy (Moscow region). The Academy embraces three departments: the Customs Affairs Department, the Law Department and the Economics Department. In addition, there are 24 research departments as well as special programs for postgraduate, doctoral and master's degrees. Today among the employees of the RSA are 50 senior doctors (Doctors of Science) and professors, more than 200 PhDs and associate professors.

The RCA authorities have managed to create a modern informational and educational environment. Its main component is the Situation Analysis Training Centre which helps to connect via the Internet the Federal Customs Service (FCS) with its regional branches. To train FCS employees, an e-learning system is also applied.

According to the "Memorandum of Understanding between the World Customs Organization and the State Customs Committee of the Russian Federation" issued on 25 November 2002, the Academy has won its international recognition as the Regional Training Centre of the World Customs Organization. The Academy will have been reformed into a University by 2013.

An indispensable part of the Academy is the Department of Foreign Languages established in 1992. English, French and German as well as Russian for foreigners are taught at the Department. The courses are arranged for both full-time and part-time students.

The main goal of the Department is the effective language education for customs officers, economists, managers and lawyers. The educational process is based on the integrative and intensive approach to teaching foreign languages.

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The Department comprises 33 members of the teaching staff. Among them are PhDs, associate professors, senior lecturers and lecturers. The Department is aiming at developing professional communicative competence of students to enable them to appropriate their foreign speech activities to a particular situation of professionally oriented cross-cultural communication. Communicative competence sufficient for future professional use presupposes both the knowledge of a foreign language and acquisition of communicative skills.

Headed by Prof. Natalia Kuznetsova (PhD), the Department carries out research on “Communicative strategies in professionally oriented language teaching”. The teaching staff is also engaged in exploring various fields of linguistics, pedagogy and methods of language teaching.

The scientific capacity of our colleagues has resulted in abundant textbooks, manuals, monographs and scientific articles on ESP teaching. The idea of ESP as an independent academic discipline was formed in Russia at the beginning of the 1990-s. It was based on the works of T. Hutchinson and A. Waters (T. Hutchinson and A. Waters (*English for Specific Purposes*, CUP, 1987) and further developed by Russian linguists L.V. Makar (*English for professional purpose in non-linguistic universities*, S.Petersburg, 2000), I. Cheremissina and T.Petrashova (*Current Trends in ESP Teaching in Russia(a View from Tomsk Polytechnic University)* Tomsk, 2002), O.Starikova (*Modern Education Strategies: poly-paradigm approach*. Krasnodar, 2011) and P.Sysoev (*Developing an English for Specific Purposes Course Using a Learner Centered Approach: A Russian Experience*”, *The Internet TESL Journal*, Vol. VI, No. 3, March 2000).

The latter has posed the ESP problem: “Several years ago, ESP teaching in Russia was characterized by the structural approach. From year to year, different students with the same or similar majors had to use exactly the same textbooks and syllabi. Nobody took into account the fact that all students are different and their needs change very quickly altogether with the changing reality.” (P.Sysoev, 2000:10)

Earlier ESP teaching organization was characterized by the following systemic weaknesses: little variety of classroom activity and few opportunities to use language meaningfully; mostly teacher-fronted (not learner-centered) courses; poor supply of modern ESP material; overuse of the grammar-translation method; much classroom work done in Russian, etc. A new learner-centered approach should have been worked out to comply with the learner’s interests and needs.

A very important step was done in defining the goals and objectives of ESP courses. To cope with this task, D.Nunnan’s work (Nunan, D. (1988). *Syllabus Design*. Oxford: Oxford University Press) has been taken into account. It gave a clear description of how the ESP teacher should state the objectives depending on what is desired: “Teachers can focus on developing “basic skills”, communicative competence, intercultural competence, vocabulary awareness, etc. One of the goals of this concept can be the achievement of the intercultural communicative competence. As a result, the students are involved into the real professional communication.” (Nunnan.D.1988: 22).

One of the most important tasks is the choice of teaching materials, i.e. “tools that can be figuratively cut up into component pieces and then rearranged to suit the needs, abilities, and interests of the students in the course” (Graves K., 1996: 27). Nowadays, owing to the Internet and mass media, it is not a problem at all.

In 2002, a new revolutionary project under the title “Russian Education Support Project on Specialist English” (RESPONSE) was launched by the Ministry of Education of the Russian Federation, in partnership with the British Council in Russia. The aim of this project was to raise the standards of teaching and learning of ESP in Russia. As a result, the centers for ESP teacher training were established in each federal region. Special programs and sets of teaching materials were published. This work is still under realization. Best ESP teaching researchers are involved in this project.

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Teaching a foreign language to non-linguistic students means achieving a variety of objectives: acquiring knowledge about the language, developing and practicing all four language skills, getting language and cultural awareness, integrating specialist knowledge and communicative skills, and even enriching overall knowledge. Olga Almabekova, one of the most prominent specialists in ESP teaching in Russia from Krasnoyarsk State Technical University, pointed out that a very important aspect is to teach thinking (O.Almabekova, *Teaching thinking through ESP*, Online journal for teachers *ESP World ISSN 1682-3257*). Developing creative thinking, the RCA teachers help students to explore the depths of the customs officer's profession. This sphere is very specific because usually the customs officer has the following professional responsibilities:

- identifying people to question on the basis of prior offences/likely risk, etc;
- searching baggage and individuals for smuggled items;
- making arrests of people suspected of smuggling;
- seizing smuggled goods;
- checking documentation related to imported goods;
- undertaking physical examinations of freight;
- detecting drug smugglers;
- collecting and supplying trade statistics;
- helping to combat the worldwide illegal trade in endangered species of animals and birds;
- calculating and collecting customs duties and taxes, etc.

There are some problems that we have been facing since the very beginning of the ESP teaching at the RCA, namely:

- lack of teachers' basic awareness in the customs-related spheres;
- discrepancies between the entrants' language competence and the syllabus demands (i.e. lack of practice in speaking, writing and presentation);
- inability to communicate in typical job-related situations;
- insufficient learner motivation;
- inability of creative thinking;
- inefficient students' evaluation and assessment procedure, etc.

Many of our colleagues agree that sometimes we ask ourselves, "What subject do we teach?" Of course we teach our students a foreign language but what kind of?

It happens very often that we inform our students about the matters that they have never encountered before, even while studying special subjects in their native language. It means that we should be well aware of the topic we present to our students. That is one of the most important problems of ESP teaching. Teaching ESP is aimed at developing students' skills of professional communication in English depending on the area of their professional field. This kind of teaching should be connected to students' majors. Therefore, English for specific purposes includes specialized programs which are designed to develop the communicative use of English in a specialized field of science or particular profession.

ESP teaching in the field of Customs business embraces such general topics as:

- Customs Law (International and Customs Union legislation);
- Finance (types of financial documents, types of payments, taxes and duties);
- Business (INCOTERMS, types of contracts, business correspondence, International Trade, Retailing, Manufacturing, Business Law, and Economics);
- Logistics (information flow, material handling, production, packaging, inventory, transportation, warehousing, and often security);

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- International relations (International agreements, conventions, organizations);
- Technology (technical means of customs control);
- E-matters (e-declaration, e-customs, IT- technologies) etc.

Another very important problem arises from the following circumstances:

- students are afraid of speaking English and making mistakes;
- working in pairs (or groups), students often begin to use their native language;
- students do not have enough information on the topics discussed even in their native language;
- students feel a lack of linguistic and verbal resources for solving the given task.

Sometimes we enroll students with no language skills, even basic ones. It means that we have to begin from the very beginning and practice the learner-centered approach and intensive teaching.

What is absolutely necessary is to plan the course. The teachers should be flexible in planning it to be able to modify the syllabus in the process of teaching. It means that the course should fully comply with students' needs and interests.

As for the students' motivation, 80% of ESP teachers complain about its lack. There are several reasons for that: frivolous attitudes on part of the students, inappropriate syllabus design, long classes, daily attendance, misdirected objectives of the students, etc. Various solutions are possible, e.g. good lesson planning, a variety of classroom activities application, negotiating the importance of English language learning and giving individual consultations to the students, etc. Everything depends on the teacher's interest in achieving fruitful results.

No positive result in ESP teaching is possible without evaluation. According to P. Sysoev, evaluation can be done in two different ways: implicitly and explicitly (P.Sysoev, 2000: 12). Implicit evaluation takes place during the semester. Explicit evaluation may take place at the end of the course or after students have experienced it.

All mentioned above shows the main characteristics of the learner-centered approach which is widely used in the RCA. Creative thinking development is of no less importance for successful ESP teaching. The RCA language teachers have been testing Olga Almabekova's hypothesis: an ESP lesson can provide a favorable environment for teaching thinking by applying a learner-centered approach, encouraging the learner's autonomy and taking into account multiple intelligences (O.Almabekova., 2010:3,642).The idea is that an ESP teacher can find appropriate materials and design the tasks that compel students to think rather than to memorize, thus creating an intellectual atmosphere in the classroom. This approach to learning English could help future customs officers to develop creative thinking skills and use them to make prompt decisions in their professional activities.

The learner-centered approach is reflected in General English and Professional English training courses for customs officers developed by the teaching staff of the Department of Foreign Languages. The RCA students are also free to choose some electives (e.g. International Customs Co-operation, Customs Payments, Logistics, Customs Control, Customs Administration, and E-Customs).

In the course of studies, the students use authentic textbooks issued by the leading publishing houses from abroad as well as those issued by the Department of Foreign Languages. The RCA has its own publishing house. Thanks to it, the Department teachers have a good opportunity to provide their students with the textbooks in sufficient amounts. The Academy provides a library, an E-library in particular, to satisfy all the needs of the learner.

The Department also has multimedia language laboratories equipped with modern computers, whiteboards, document cameras, OHPs, printers, DVD-players, etc. Modern and very effective ESP software has been installed (e.g. Helios Linguist, Netop etc.) which allows the teacher to work very effectively with the students of all levels and to control their oral and written activities.

The Department has a large collection of videos released by the National Geographic, BBC, Discovery Channel, PBS Corporation, etc.

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At first sight, there should be no problems in our activities but there *are* some. Every year a new batch of entrants come to the Academy. The first thing we are to do is to evaluate and assess the level of their language competence. As a rule, it is fairly good though some students even cannot read. In this case we work with them individually, providing an intensive training course. Our task is to make our students achieve the average level which will allow them to study ESP.

Apart from regular language training, the department avails many other forms and methods of ESP training. These are additional courses in grammar, spoken communication, interpreting and translation.

Motivation in foreign language studies plays one of the leading roles in having a good command of a foreign language. The best students take part in a yearly foreign language Olympiad, in scientific conferences at the Academy, in its branches and abroad. Our students participate in various webinars organized by the WCO and WTO. All this allows our students to practice and improve their English.

The Academy has established close relations with a number of foreign educational institutions. We practice academic exchange of students with the Indian Customs Academy on a regular basis. Our best students act as professional interpreters and translators providing their aid to numerous foreign Customs Services delegations, coming to the Academy.

Having good opportunities for effective work, however, we face various problems. We try to solve them step by step, having optimism and hope in our hearts and keeping in mind one very good Serbian proverb: "Ono sta se mora nije teško," which means "Nothing is hard when your obligations should be fulfilled in any way."

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Insight into Maritime Vocabulary in Romance Languages from the Intercomprehension Perspective

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Abstract: In 2008, within a new project about intercomprehension (IC) – REDINTER – a thematic network, which federated 28 partner institutions and bodies from 13 European countries and 27 associated institutions - we placed our bets on IC as a process that facilitates understanding of languages that have not been learned yet, based on the fact that languages are interconnected in various ways. Upon its successful completion in 2011, there was no doubt about the IC integration into plurilingual education since it favors contact with languages in a relaxed but effective manner, it helps learning how to learn languages and develops competences in understanding languages that have not been previously studied. The results of our research encouraged us to embark on a new project – INTERMAR – whose ambitious goal is to apply the already existing materials and products on IC to the maritime training context in order to provide seafarers with the necessary tools to overcome language barriers and convey their message regardless of their country or language of origin. Consequently, this paper aims to highlight the degree of transparency of several high-frequency words in the basic maritime vocabulary of several Romance languages from the IC perspective (using English as a bridge language).

Key words: Redinter, Intermar, intercomprehension, maritime vocabulary, Romance languages

1. INTRODUCTION

Is it possible to read Italian, Spanish, French, Romanian or Portuguese newspapers without actually speaking these languages? Yes, it is. It becomes possible by help of inter-comprehension (IC) between related languages.

It is a method for teaching/learning languages where the effort to communicate focuses on receptive competences (reading, listening) and sets aside productive competences (speaking, writing) in that particular language. Therefore, if it were to put it in a nutshell, IC between languages can be summarized as follows: «I can understand other people's languages without being able to speak them. This is why, when I communicate with them, I speak to them in my own language and I understand theirs». (DGLF)

As for IC between related languages, it has been a time-honored practice, with archives registering trade and personal exchanges among Mediterranean countries to prove it. One more example in this respect, the Scandinavian model - based on the relative proximity of Danish, Swedish and Norwegian languages - that was a spur to IC: for almost a century students have been introduced to two other Scandinavian languages during the courses they take in their native language.

Nowadays, teaching methods are introduced with a view to facilitating the acquisition of productive competences in several European languages followed by receptive competences. First,

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reading and listening skills in related languages are targeted. Second, once s/he has acquired the comprehension method in other Romance languages (RL), any Romance language speaker will be able to move to the learning of writing and then listening skills in new language families such as the Germanic ones (German, English, Dutch etc).

Intercomprehension between related languages has been under research studies conducted by universities which devised several learning methods having IC at their core. Among the first ones – the *EuRom4* method, conceived by a research team from the universities of Aix-en-Provence, Rome, Salamanca and Lisbon in the late 1990s, followed by other IC methods that appeared in Grenoble in particular (Galatea, Galanet), *ICE* in Reims, *Euromania* in Toulouse, *EuroCom* in Germany and *Romanicaintercom* – a project on IC in 8 Romance Languages etc.

Thus a speaker of a Romance language will learn to read in other languages of this family by means of a method that is essentially based on contextualisation and positive approximation of the texts that need to be understood.

The various learning/teaching experiences that have been conducted over the years resulted in a series of strategies that proved their effectiveness since learners have become autonomous in using languages. The purpose of these strategies is to allow learners to have easy access to the meaning of messages, and later on to overcome a new obstacle.

IC in Romance Languages aroused such interest as it involves more than one billion speakers (Escudé and Janin 2010), these languages are spoken over the 5 continents: Europe, South America, North America (Canada), Africa, Asia (The Philippines) and Oceania (New Caledonia).

Romance Intercomprehension has a bright future ahead, and if it wins recognition in education systems then the best bet is that one day one billion speakers of Romance languages will be able to mutually understand only by speaking their first language. As a matter of fact, French journalist Bernard Cassen pointed out that the prospective decision of Romance language countries to promote IC learning methods in their respective education systems together would ensure these languages a central status next to English. (Cassen 2005)

In total, more than one billion speakers of Romance languages have been counted. Among these languages there is Spanish – the second most spoken language in the world, with its 465 million speakers (both native and non native), there are also Portuguese (215 million speakers) and French (295 million speakers), which are the most widely spread international languages, according to the consulted sites. (Nationalencyklopedin and La Francophonie)

Only these four Western Romance languages (Spanish, French, Italian, Portuguese) gather 798 million speakers of whom 666 million are native speakers. To them, Romanian – an Eastern Romance language – adds up its 24 million speakers. All these numbers are very telling of the great interest in promoting IC as means of intercommunication. If the concept of IC has existed ever since, its development in the field of didactics has only been round for about 20 years or so. It originated in the turning point that language didactics took with the passage from language-oriented to communication and learner centered perspectives.

Furthermore, plurilingual didactics and IC showcase particular features such as the transfer potential whose success is achieved by language closeness and student's prior language experiences and knowledge. (Meissner et al. 2004)

Although IC in RL was studied in various other projects, the authors of this paper attempt to look for IC strategies in maritime contexts, with a view to demonstrating the aims of INTERMAR project. INTERMAR is a EU Key Activity 2 (KA2) multilateral project that aims to create a community of maritime and naval institutions that share an IC approach to foreign languages, and it involves a consortium of 18 partners, including 8 maritime or naval academies that will create IC and Maritime English modules for formal blended courses.

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2. DESCRIPTION

The general idea was to expose our students to several newspaper articles in RL and then to have them report back on how much information they were able to retrieve from texts and how exactly they achieved it (IC strategies). The targeted teaching objectives were:

- developing reading skills in 5 languages and application of similar approaches to texts in 5 other languages;
- developing writing skills by using cross comprehension of related languages;
- breaking the linguistic deadlock;
- developing linguistic skills by facilitating more autonomous learning.

Since our students are native speakers of Romanian which is among the main Romance languages the texts we chose to work with are in the 5 Romance languages: Portuguese, Italian, Spanish and finally Romanian (to check against), but also in English based on the idea that it can also be considered a Romance Language. (Hemming et al. 2011)

The order that was chosen to distribute the texts is based on the results of a previous experiment where students at the Naval Academy in Constanta (NAC) were exposed to several activities in which they dealt with IC in Romance Languages. At the end of it, their conclusions were summarized as a top 4 Romance Languages and it was agreed that for a Romanian native speaker Spanish is the easiest language to understand, followed by Italian and French, with Portuguese as the most difficult language when spoken.

Although it was expected to begin with the text in “the easiest” language (Spanish) and continue with Italian and French up to “the most difficult” one - Portuguese, according to our students’ ranking, the latter was chosen to go first, with a view to demonstrating that fears related to a language that had not been studied previously were unjustified. Therefore, the Portuguese version of the same newspaper article was first distributed, followed by the Italian, Spanish and French versions. This one was intentionally left behind since our 2nd year students already have a language background in this respect: they studied it during their high school years and are currently studying it at the NAC on a 28-hour basis per academic year.

The text is a selection of the most relevant information in an Wikipedia entry of approximately 250 words on a relatively recent event (the Costa Concordia 2012 grounding and partial sinking) not to mention the publicity and notoriety this event enjoyed at that time, and brought again into the media’s spotlight in 2013, one year later. The other versions have been harmonized following the English version.

The students were given 10 minutes to consider the text after having examined the accompanying picture. The tasks they had to fulfill were as follows:

1. First, they were asked to identify the RL. The purpose of this activity was to see whether language identification obstructs or helps comprehension of the text.
2. Next, they were asked to write down whatever helped them in this language identification process.
3. Then, the students were invited to consider the genre the text belongs to. The aim was to show that the place where and the form it is published in might create certain expectations about the information within and lead to successful understanding of the text.
4. Once this task performed, they were again asked to write down whatever helped them in this identification process. The following questions were devised and intended to prepare Ss for optimised deduction:

Where can you find such a text?

What clues on topic are provided by the accompanying picture?

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Can you identify the time and place of the event presented in the text?

Are there any proper names in the text?

Are there any similar words in your native tongue or other Romance language that you speak?

5. As far as the actual understanding of the information within the text is concerned, the students were encouraged to point out the words/ phrases or even sentences that they were able to understand. In this respect, learners were presented with the most common method of reading a (maritime) text in Romance languages - the Seven Sieves, tributary to the EuroComRom method. (McCann et al. 2002) Thus, it becomes possible to infer meaning from a discourse by „sifting” the information through the following filters or sieves:

- **International Vocabulary (IV).** It includes 5,000 words that have already been acquired and that are Latin – based, proper nouns, international institutions, geographical names etc.
 - **Pan -Romance Vocabulary (PV).** Within the Romance languages vocabulary there are also 500 words altogether that belong to the common Latin fund and are present in the fundamental vocabulary of this family of languages.
 - **Sound Correspondances (SC).** This sieve shows how particular combinations of sounds in one language correspond to sound combinations in another language.
 - **Spelling and Pronunciation (SP).** Since there are sounds that are written differently in different languages it might become difficult to identify its real appearance. This is where this sieve actually steps in and reveals it.
 - **Pan-Romance Syntactic Structures (PS).** This sieve points out the basic structure of Romance sentence patterns featuring 9 core sentence types. Taking this into consideration, identification of parts of speech such as articles, nouns, verbs etc as well as syntactic functions within a sentence is highly facilitated.
 - **Morphosyntactic Elements (ME).** These are in fact ”microsyntactic” structures such as comparison, articles, plural making, verb conjugations, adverb formation that can be presented in tabular and formulaic forms.
 - **Prefixes and Suffixes: ”Eurofixes” (FX).** Although quite limited in number (only about 40 prefixes derived from Latin, and inasmuch from Greek), they are elements of a considerable number of words (3,000 – 5,000 verbs in each RL are produced by use of prefixes).
6. The final task was for students to select maritime-related words from each and every text they had been presented with, in order to draw up a maritime glossary in the 5 Romance languages and English and also to draw conclusions on the similarities but also differences of maritime terms in the above-mentioned languages.

3. INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS

1. As regards the first task, the students were successful in identifying the languages of their respective texts; however, this did not help them too much with the text understanding but did not make it too difficult either.
2. In the second task the students were asked to account for their language choices. Here, their answers varied a lot: some of them “just knew”, others were helped by such linguistic items as accents (for French mostly), prepositions (*por, sin* – for Spanish, *senza* – for Italian), suffixes, articles (*el* – for Spanish, but also *las, il, una* – for Italian, *uma* – for Portuguese) etc.
3. The genre of the text was also identified, and there was a wide range of speculations about the nature of information within texts, from telegraphic-style ones: a ship about to sink, a harbor etc to the most elaborated such as

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4. The picture that accompanied the text proved to be of even greater help. Even if some of the students only described the picture at first, later on they could retrieve information from it while confronted with the texts, whereas most of them started their reading with the purpose of finding confirmation for their assumptions. Therefore, we may conclude that the translanguistic features are important in comprehension based on text genre as it allows speculations about its contents.

5. The meaning of the texts they had worked with was understood by applying the Seven Sieves method although they had been able to identify several words that already facilitated text comprehension on the mere basis of word transparency. So, first of all, transparent words should be taken into consideration. Transparent words are those words that can be recognized in and out of the context. However, in the effervescence of their work, unexperienced readers might find them opaque. Therefore, in the good, established tradition that *forewarned is forearmed* suffice it to draw their attention on the possibility to make use of these words. When faced with a topic already familiar to the readers (since it is either their domain of interest or line of work), the degree of word transparency is increased even more as they are more able to infer and predict the meaning of a particular word. Finally, there are words that become transparent since there is another resembling one but otherwise used in a different manner, normally with a specific purpose or a general one. For instance, it is true that *Janeiro* (Portuguese), [*enero* (Spanish), *gennaio* (Italian)] and *ianuarie* (Romanian) are rather different; however, there is the English word *January* that enables Romanian students to get the right meaning of the Portuguese word. This, in fact, illustrates the importance of making the most of these crossed transparencies to optimize previous knowledge. In fact, approximation is advisable in this approach to languages and one working condition is to accept global comprehension of the text. This technique is not new: we infer what we can, and what we can't is left aside. Here, our students were expected to fill in „their gaps” after each version of the same text with the hope that the new language might be *friendlier* and help them more, although some of them - more conservative – gave only the answers they had been sure of. In fact, they were invited to *transpose* the meaning of sentences and NOT translate them since the purpose of the activity is to check comprehension and therefore, learners' suggested versions might be approximate.

By applying the 1st sieve Ss could retrieve abbreviations for the points of compass (N – North and E – East) in the coordinates of the geographical position emphasizing that *Isola del Giglio* is a location, in fact the place where the incident took place, proper names like the *Costa Concordia* (the ship) and *Isola del Giglio* (the island) as well as internationalisms such as:

- *hora – hour, roca – rock, metros – meters, largo – large, compartimentos – compartments, maquinas – machines, motores – motors (engines), servicios – services, comenzo – commence(d), puerto – port, energia – energy, lateral – lateral, conectado – connected, costa – coast, parcial(mente) – partial(ly), posicion – position, inestable – unstable, submarino – submarine (underwater), complet(amente) – complete(ly), menos – minus, rescatados – rescued, cuerpos – corpses, personas – persons (people), desaparecidos – disappeared, diferentes – different, mencion(ad)os – mentioned, abandonada – abandoned, finales – final (end), investigacion – investigation, centro – center(ed), deficiencias – deficiencies, procedimientos – proceedings (procedures), acciones – actions, capitan – captain (ship's master), pasajeros – passengers, mayor(ia) – major(ity), helicoptero – helicopter, lanchas – launches (boats), zona – zone – in the **Spanish** version;*
- *heure – hour, locale – local, rocher – rock, longue – long, metres – metres, compartiments – compartments, machines – machines, moteurs – motors, services – services, force – force, electricite – electricity, lateralement – lateral, renverse – reversed, partiellement – partially, position – position, sous- marine – submarine, restee – rest (remain), en danger – in danger, completement – completely, passagers – passengers, membres – members, sauves – saved, corps – corpse, disparues – disappeared, presumees – presumed, personnes – persons, liste –*

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- list, abandonnee – abandoned, fin – final, enquete – inquiry, procedures – procedures, actions – actions, capitaine – captain, helicoptere – elicopter, region – region – in the **French** version;*
- *locale – local, roccia – rock, metri – meters, lungo – long, macchine – machine, motori – motors, servizi – services, iniziato – initiated, lateralmente – laterally, parte – part, posizione – position, instabile – unstable, sottomarina – submarine, completamente – completely, passeggeri – passengers, membri – members, corpi – corpse, persone – persons, disperse – disappeared, presumibilmente – presumably/presumed, ricerca – (re)search, abandonado – abandonned, fine – final, concentrata- concentrated/focused, procedure – procedures, capitano – captain, circa – circa/ approximately, maggior – major, parte – part, elicottero – elicopter, zona – zone/area – in the **Italian** version;*
 - *hora – hour, local – local, largo – large, metros – meters, longo – long, compartimentos – compartments, maquinas – machines, eletrica – electric, motores – motors, servicios – services, embarcando – embark, comecou – commence, energia – energy, lateralmente – lateral, costa – coast, parcialmente – partially, posicao – position, instavel – unstable, transportava – transported/carried, submersa – submerged, superestrutura – superstructure, passageiros – passengers, encontrados – encountered, presumidas – presumed, desaparecidas – disappeared, final – final, investigacao – investigation, procedimentos – procedures, abandonados – abandonned, comandante – commandant (master), cerca – circa/ approximately, maioria – majority, helicopteros – helicopters, area – area – in the **Portuguese** version.*

The second sieve revealed both completely Pan – Romance words as well as words from the nucleus of the PR Vocabulary and Pan-Romance elements borrowed from Learned Latin.

					
a	a	a	à	to	a
ações	acciones	azioni	action	actions	actiune
outros	otros	altri	autres	other	alte
haver	haber	avere	avoir	have	a avea
bater	batir	battere	battre	beat	a bate
corpo	cuerpo	corpo	corps	body	corp
costa	costa	costa	côte	coast	coasta
correr	correr	correre	courir	run	a curge
de	de	di	de	of	de
água	agua	acqua	eau	water	apa
e	y	e	et	and	si
ser	ser	essere	être	to be	a fi (este)
fazer	hacer	fare	faire	make	a face
fim	fin	fine	fin	final	final
forte	fuerte	forte	fort(ement)	strong	puternic
largo	largo	largo	large	broad	larg
o/a	el/la	il/la	le, la	the	-(u)l/-a
longo	(longitud)	lungo	long	long	lung
mais	más	ma	mais	but, more	mai, dar
metade	mitad	metà	moitié	half	jumatate

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morrer	morir	morire	mourir	die	a muri
navio	navío	nave	navire	ship	nava
parte	parte	parte	part	part	parte
pé	pié	piede	pied	foot	picior
ponte (pavimento)	punte (conves)	ponte	pont	bridge/deck	punte
posição	posición	posizione	position	position	pozitie
tomar	tomar	prendere	prendre	take	a lua, a prinde
sair	salir	salire	saillir	stick out	sari
serviço	servicio	servizio	service	service	serviciu
seu	su/suyo	suo	son	his	sau
tempo	tiempo	tempo	temps	time	timp
terra	tierra	terra	terre	earth, ground	pamant
três	tre	tres	trois	three	trei
um	uno	uno	un, une	one	un/o
vento	viento	vento	vent	wind	vant

The third sieve deals with sound correspondances. In this respect, Ss pointed out the following typical sound correspondances of:

				
hora	hora	ora	heure	ora
local	local	locale	locale	locala
navio	-	-	navire	nava
-	crucero	crociera	croisière	croaziera
uma	una	una	une	o/una
as	a las	alle	à	la
-	golpeo	colpeo	-	-
longo	-	lungo	long	lung
metros	metros	metri	mètres	metri
sala	sala	sala	salle	sala
máquinas	máquinas	macchine	machines	masini
alimentação	-	-	alimentation	alimentare
eletrica	-	-	électricité	electric
servicos	servicios	servizi	services	servicii
(foi) cortada	(se) cortó	(è stato) tagliata	coupé	taiat(a)
começou	comenzó	(ha) cominciato	(a) commencé	-
mesmo	mismo	-	même	-
sobre	sobre	sopra	sur	-
perto	-	-	près	aproape
costa	costa	costa	côte	coasta
depois	despues	poi	puis	apoi
parcialmente	parcialmente	parzialmente	partiellement	partial
posição	posición	posizione	position	pozitie
instável	inestable	instabile	instable	instabil
água	agua	acqua	eau	apa

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mas	-	ma	mais	-
perigo	peligro	pericolo	péril	pericol
completamente	completamente	completamente	complètement	complet
corpos	cuerpos	corpi	corps	corp(uri)
passageiros	pasajeros	passageri	passagers	pasageri
duas	dos	due	deux	doi
Março	marzo	marzo	mars	martie
pessoa(s)	personas	persone	personne	persoana
outra	-	altra	autre(s)	alta/altele
com	con	con	-	cu
bordo	bordo	bordo	bord	bord
abandonada	abandonado	abbandonato	abandonné(e)	abandonata
final	finales	fine	fin	-
Janeiro	enero	gennaio	janvier	ianuarie
investigação	investigación	-	enquête	investigatie/ ancheta
-	deficiencias	carenze	lacunes	deficiente/ carente/
procedimentos	procedimientos	procedure	procédures	lacune proceduri
ações	acciones	azioni	actions	actiuni
comandante	capitán	capitano	capitaine	comandant/capitan
cerca	-	circa	-	circa/aproximativ
maioria	mayoria	maggior	majorité	majoritatea
resgatada	rescatada	-	-	-
-	-	salvati	sauvé(s)	salvati
helicóptero	helicóptero	elicottero	hélicoptère	elicopter
-	potencia	potenza	-	-
saliência	saliente	sporgenza	saillie	-
rochosa	rocoso	rocciosa	rocheuse	-
submersa	submarino	sottomarina	sous-marine	submarina
não	non	non	non	nu

Somewhat related to the previous sieve, the fourth sieve is used to spotlight the spelling and pronunciation of several words. Also based on the previous sieve, the meaning of words became more obvious. Although as a general rule the Romance languages use the same letters for the same sounds, some sounds may be spelt differently in the different languages, making their recognition difficult at first sight.

The fifth sieve suggests the use of morphological bridges. Indeed, in-depth knowledge of morphology in a language may sound complicated and uninteresting to most people. However, as speakers of Romance languages have a similar morphological system at their disposal, it is but natural (not to mention useful) to provide readers with certain well selected basics that could facilitate their access to the correct use of such morphological bridges that languages offer us.

Getting to a part of the meaning can – most of the times – lead to recreate the whole meaning. For instance, in terms of verbal tenses, recognizing the verb endings is very important. Therefore, it is enough for Ss to be provided with information such as: in Italian – structures including *ha +vb-o/-a* or *è stato + -o/-a* show a past tense or that verbs ending in – *ando* indicate a gerund form; in Spanish: *-ó* is a past tense form, *-ado* is a past participle form that varies in genre and number, while in Portuguese endings such as *-eu* or *-ou* are past tense forms. On the other hand, more often than not it is assumed that Romance languages share the same derivational principle and that words are acquired in

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unseparable chunks. The meaning of the Spanish word *saliente* was deduced by associating it to the French verbe *saillir* (to be prominent, to protude), referring to something that stands out and caused the ship to capsize, also to the English word *salient* which has a similar meaning.

The sixth sieve tackles the syntactic bridges. There are indeed certain features that are specific to a certain language; nevertheless Romance languages share an enormous amount of syntactic structures. Sometimes phenomena that are constantly used in one's language may seem disturbing when facing an apparently new language. Therefore, it might be wise to rank these difficulties. For instance, when facing a long sentence that might instantly become opaque, readers might be helped a lot if they knew how to detect parts of the sentence, to establish *who* does *what*. Then, step by step, other pieces of information could be added. In this respect, meaning can also be retrieved from the context by resorting to what Benveniste coined as *ghost word* (mot-fantôme) (Benveniste 2002) or Castagne's *void word* (mot vide) (Castagne 2004), that is a term whose equivalent in the target language can be easily deduced from the immediate context (right and left). For example, in the following sentence in Spanish the most important **subpieces** of information are *Costa Concordia* (=ship) and *una roca* (=a rock) which are obviously transparent: *Costa Concordia golpeó una roca*

Costa Concordiaa rock (**hit**)

By help of the ghost word technique our Ss bridged the gap. The same procedure was put in practice for the Italian version: *Costa Concordia ha colpito una roccia* as well as for the Portuguese one: *Costa Concordia embateu num rochado*.

All in all, the most frequently used IC strategy appears to be the linguistic transfer from one language to another, but also the use of logic etc since a more "difficult" language activates more IC strategies. Once a language has been *tamed*, it will be used to understand another one which will consequently become a bridge language that facilitates receptive comprehension within a family of related languages and even beyond it. In terms of vocabulary, our Ss mostly relied on French and English as bridge languages.

The seventh sieve pointed out the prefixes and suffixes or the "Eurofixes":

				
embateu, abateu, instavel , permaneceu , desaparecidas , submersa investigaçoã, caimento , completamente etc	inestable , submarino , desaparecidos , investigación, completamente etc	instabile , sottomarina , rocciosa , completamente etc	Instable , rivage , retrovés , recherche , sous-marine , complètement etc	instabila , stancoasa , subacvatica etc

1. Finally, the parallel series of maritime terms our Ss were able to identify is presented in the table below:

					
navio	barco	nave	navire	nava	ship
casco	casco	scafo	coque	coca	hull
-	crucero	crociera	croisière	croaziera	cruise
compartimentos	compartimentos	compartimenti	comparte-	comparti-mente	compart-ments
casa das maquinas	sala de máquinas	sala macchine	salle machines	sala masinilor	engine room
estibordo	puerto	porta	bâbord	babord	port side
deriva	deriva	deriva	a dérivé	a derivat	drifted

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costa	costa	costa	côte	coasta	coast
afundar	hundirse	affondare	sombrier	a se scufunda	sink
pasageiros	pasajeros	passageri	passagers	pasageri	passengers
tripulantes	tripulantes	equipaggio	équipage	echipaj	crew
comandante	capitán	capitano	capitaine	capitan,	captain,
resgatada	rescatados	salvati	sauvés	salvati	saved
embarcações	lanchas	motoscafi	bateaux à moteur	barci cu motor	motor boats

4. CONCLUSIONS

Starting from the very definition of the inter-comprehension within the same family of languages which is speakers' ability to understand their interlocutors speaking/writing in a related language, particularly by resorting to the resemblances in their native language, the purpose of our activity was to highlight the technique of transferring the knowledge already acquired in a foreign language to another related one.

As a result, participants should become more aware of the existence of the strategies used in the IC method which usually involve: (1) establishing connections among languages and (2) finding graphic, morphological, syntactical and phonological similarities and differences among languages within the same language families. With each text in another foreign language their learning rhythm was more rapid and they requested lesser and lesser aids - which led to the conclusion that learners had already acquired multilingual know-how and autonomy. Furthermore, our parallel-newspaper-article-reading sort of activity offers students another perspective on languages aiming at developing their understanding of other Romance languages, and also at developing their lexical, linguistic, metalinguistic and intercultural skills.

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Introducing ESP in GE Classroom: Reasons and Implications

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Abstract: ESP, regarded as a distinct branch of Teaching English as a Foreign language and thus different from General English (GE) taught in secondary schools, is primarily dealt with in vocational secondary schools and tertiary level of education. However, if ESP is seen only as an approach to language learning and considering all teachers' chief task - to prepare students for further education or professions, it is recommendable to integrate it in the teaching process. The aim of this paper is to present reasons for introducing ESP in GE secondary school classrooms and provide some practical guidelines. The first part is concerned with the relationship of GE and ESP, and is followed by the description of needs analysis carried out at the beginning of the final school year among 50 students of Gymnasium – general type. Needs analysis, usually connected with ESP and rarely carried out among secondary school students, was done in the form of questionnaire consisting of 20 questions focusing on students' goals, attitudes, self-assessment and expectations from English language learning. The results of the survey determining students' needs and wants, opinions on strengths and weaknesses, provide teachers useful insights into what fields to focus on using the analysis as a basis for designing teaching aims and materials. Since the survey indicates that students have clear perceptions of their language wants and reveals the need for introducing ESP to some extent in non-vocational secondary schools the paper proves that it is advisable to introduce particular topics, texts and teaching methods to enhance specialist vocabulary as the foundation for further study of ESP thus contributing to learning effectiveness and students' satisfaction. The papers concludes with theoretical and practical implications for EL teachers at both secondary and tertiary level.

Key words: general English, teaching, secondary school

1. INTRODUCTION

One of the major aims of secondary school teachers, primarily in gymnasiums, should be to prepare their students for further studies and careers and with the English language (EL) being a dominant International language necessary for worldwide communication and commercial exchange, this is especially true for EL teachers. EL teaching (ELT) requires constant reevaluation of the proposed curriculum owing to the increasing need for English. For a conscientious EL teacher trying to devise the most efficient and effective ways of teaching there are some questions lingering: a) if we do our jobs according to the proposed curricula and meet the teaching objectives, have our students gained the adequate knowledge regarding their future studies and occupations?; b) if we know that students will continue EL learning primarily focusing on English for Specific Purposes (ESP), can we implement it in the teaching process, and is that necessary? and c) if this being the case, what is there yet to be done? Hence, the study presented in this paper aims to: find out students' real needs in EL learning and determine what should be modified in syllabi accordingly that will altogether lead to improved teaching.

Owing to ever increasing importance of EL at global level it has been taught as a compulsory subject in Serbia from grade 1 since 2003. In Serbian gymnasiums EL is taught as a second language along with other subjects for educational purposes with the teaching aim equally focused on all four language skills (reading, writing, speaking and listening) and is very general. Secondary school

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students usually have a good mark as a main purpose of learning English, whereas in the final year of their schooling when considering their future professions and plans to continue their academic studies, a new kind of purpose and motivation may arise. The students' real-life interests come in the foreground and future in which English is seen as a means to help accomplish goals in life is not so distant anymore. With the motivation, interest and needs having changed, another sort of English can be introduced i.e. English for Specific Purposes usually taught in Serbian vocational secondary schools and universities.

Recognizing that students have a specific purpose for studying English a needs analysis was carried out to determine what is necessary to actually achieve it. This study is based on the students' opinions and expectations and aims to explore the needs of students through questionnaires and interviews based on a needs analysis, using the obtained information as a guide, and to discuss the implications for EL teachers in designing classroom activities. Its main purpose is to point at the importance of introducing ESP to some extent in GE classroom because adapting the teaching process by introducing topics to fulfill the specific students' needs and in accordance with their future goals is the foundation for further ESP studies at tertiary level.

2. ESP AND GE

The focus of the study is the integration of two (questionably) distinct branches of ELT – ESP and GE with the main difference between them being the purpose for learning English. ESP developed as a branch of ELT in 1960's to meet the learners' interests and requirements and three often cited reasons for the emergence of ESP are: the demands of a Brave New World, a revolution in linguistics and focus on the learner (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987). A widely accepted definition of ESP is the one proposed by Dudley-Evans and St. John who presented a broad definition using absolute and variable characteristics (Dudley-Evans and St. John 1998, 4-5). The definition accepted in this paper was given by Hutchinson and Waters who regarded ESP as "an approach to language teaching in which all decisions as to content and method are based on the learner's reason for learning" (Hutchinson and Waters 1987, 19). The authors suggest that the foundation of ESP should be based on the question "Why does this learner need to learn a foreign language?" (ibid.). Accordingly EL teaching is based on the needs of the discourse community which the students are expected to join. The three dominant characteristics of ESP are: 1) it is defined to meet the specific needs of the learners; 2) it makes use of underlying methodology and activities of the disciplines it serves; 3) it is centered on the language appropriateness to these activities in terms of grammar, lexis, register, study skills, discourse and genre (Dudley-Evans 1998). Therefore, ESP is based on specific professional and educational purposes of specialized learners with the main aim to improve communicative competence and is basically about content based instruction in the disciplines of law, economics, physics, medicine, tourism etc. It has long been accepted that the two main strands of ESP are: English for Occupational Purposes (EOP) and English for Academic Purposes (EAP).

It is worth mentioning that the scholars dealing with this topic have not come to the complete agreement regarding the separating line between GE and ESP. Hutchinson and Waters state that the difference between the two in theory is nothing but in practice is a great deal (Hutchinson and Waters 1987, 53). Main differences between ESP and GE can be found in terms of field-specific vocabulary versus vocabulary general and preferences of some grammatical structures and stylistic characteristics. However, ESP relies on lexical and syntactical characteristics of the language in general and principles of effective teaching language for general purpose are the foundation of ESP. Therefore the teaching of ESP is in many ways similar to the teaching of GE but with features that are typical for different specialized subjects. Thus, it may be concluded that the distinction between ESP and GE is not clear-cut and the foundation of ESP teaching lies in GE teaching. According to McDonough

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(1984) ESP should be regarded as an instructional activity containing range of activities and emphases which are not totally different from other areas of language teaching. Since ESP and GE share the same principles of language teaching, both having the same main objective – effective and efficient learning and considering ESP as an approach to teaching it can be concluded that it is possible to introduce ESP in GE classroom.

3. METHOD

To accomplish the goals of the paper two data collection instruments, a needs analysis questionnaire and an oral interview, were used. Questionnaire was chosen to be the means of the survey as it can be used for quantitative presentation of collected data that were manually calculated. In the literature various definitions of *needs* can be found depending on the purpose of analysis, but they all are focused on a learner (eg. Hutchinson and Waters 1987, Tarone and Yule 1989, Seedhouse 1995, Dudley-Evans and St. John 1998, West 1994). The most commonly accepted definition and categorization of *needs* are given by Hutchinson and Waters (1987, 54) making a distinction between *target needs* and *learning needs* further categorized into *necessities*, *lacks*, and *wants*. Although in learner-centered approaches proposed by modern methodology learners' needs are the focal point of teaching, needs analysis still tends to be associated with ESP, as ESP views students' needs as the first priority, and is rarely carried out in GE classroom.

In order to evaluate the proposed curricula and determine students' needs and expectations, opinions on strengths and weaknesses the needs analysis was carried out at the beginning of the final school year among 50 students of Gymnasium – general type who answered 20 questions in the questionnaire. A needs analysis questionnaire was created based on other similar questionnaires (eg. Peterson 2008, Coskun 2009). The questionnaire was drawn up in Serbian to eliminate any misunderstanding that the use of a second language might bring about. The data gathered from the questionnaires were analyzed in terms of percentages and based on the responses provided to open-ended questions. The interviews with some of the students followed in order to gain further insights.

The first part of the questionnaire addressed the students' attitudes towards the importance of the EL for their future studies or occupations and their own evaluation of the language knowledge gained throughout schooling¹. The students were to evaluate their knowledge of different language skills by marking the appropriate fields corresponding to school marks. The second part focused on the perceived future: the students were to provide information regarding their plans for enrollment at universities and future jobs, anticipated possible language problems while English language learning and use in the future as well as to specify expectations from learning EL at universities. The final part had the aim to elicit students' suggestions and ideas for improvement EL learning in the remaining school year by completing open-ended questions. After collecting and analyzing the results of the survey some students were interviewed orally in order to obtain more detailed answers on preferred teaching techniques and methods. This qualitative and quantitative method provided results described and analyzed in the paper.

¹ These students have been learning EL since the third grade of primary school, and in secondary school the New Headway published by OUP has been used as a schoolbook

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4. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

Of 90% of the students who took part in the survey, 45 of them, had been learning EL for 7 years prior to the survey, and 10% had received longer EL education. Results of the present study indicate that English is perceived as important by Serbian secondary school students for the students' academic studies and future work. The results show that students are aware of the status of EL as a global language – choosing from 6 possible answers 68% (34) students stated this to be the main reason for learning it, 9 students chose communication with foreigners, 7 of them saw gaining different knowledge, whereas only 1 student stated that he had been learning it because it is a school subject. When asked to evaluate the importance of EL on the scale from 1 to 5, the average mark given was 4.84 and almost all of them agreed that EL was necessary for continuing education (except from 1 student). The results revealed that 78% of the students were satisfied with the EL knowledge they had gained, although most of them estimated their EL skills to be on the intermediate level, more precisely: 8% of the students marked pre-intermediate level, 50% intermediate, 42% upper-intermediate and 4% advanced level. These results comply with the results gained with the task to evaluate individual language skills. When asked what they had been doing to improve their EL knowledge, the students stated different ways: reading books/newspapers, the Internet, communication with foreigners, and as many as 52% resort to watching films and listening to music. However, 72% of the students regarded their present EL knowledge as sufficient for their general needs in the future.

The next part of the questionnaire focused on students' future prospects. They were to state the faculties they were planning to enroll and preferred professions, and 6 questions focused on EL teaching were regarding their future plans. As many as 89% of students expressed the opinion that EL would be necessary for their future profession. The findings of this study revealed that 68% of students perceived communication to be the most important language skill they would need in the future, whereas 10% of the students responded that all language skills were important. As regards communication, results of the study indicated that the competence of engaging in conversation should be further developed because 34% of the students responded that they anticipated difficulties with that language skill, and quite surprisingly 28% anticipated difficulties with grammar. 30% of the students recognized the lack of knowledge of specialised vocabulary. The most important results for this study were provided by the next question addressing ESP. The students were asked whether they had been learning the vocabulary that would be useful to them at studies. As many as 60% responded negatively whereas 35% responded affirmatively, and 5% did not provide answers. Subsequently the students were to provide suggestions based on their preferences regarding the future school work. The responses proved that students are aware that it is not enough to know GE in order to attend the faculty for 46% stated vocabulary specific for their field of study as a preference. As regards students' expectations from studying EL at the next level of education, 70% of the students expected to develop EL knowledge. The results to the final question turned out to be interesting – when asked what language skills the students expected to improve at faculties all skills were marked in almost equal percentage. The interview that followed focused on answers to the questions regarding suggestions and ideas for school work.

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5. IMPLICATIONS

As may be deduced from the presented results many of the students are not well-prepared for the specific English courses in their field of study and have not yet developed the ability to communicate effectively in English. Students' language proficiency level can determine the ESP teaching and the study proves that students' problems with communication may hinder their further ESP studying. Given that, three approaches to learning can be seen as desirable to be applied. The *communicative* approach to teaching proves to be appropriate method to address learners' wants and future needs. The identification of communication as the main necessity means that syllabus should be focused on everyday life contexts and situations to reinforce communicative competence and improve proficiency. In order to meet students' needs teachers should adopt the *learning centered* approach developed by Hutchinson and Waters (1987). That approach focuses on what students should do in class to develop different skills and learn language items with the emphasis on the appropriate content and communication within the classroom. The survey results impose *learner-centered* approach proposed by Altman (1980) and considered to be a cornerstone of a successful language learning. As students' individual differences and plans have been revealed, those differences should be addressed accordingly through appropriate instructions. ESP instructions, activities and methods should be learner-centered designed in such a way to meet individual needs and allow each student to develop their potentials. Introducing ESP also imposes another advisable approach - *genre* based approach with emphasis on materials and tasks based on authentic linguistic data.

The main contribution of the survey is that the results imply that it is advisable to introduce ESP vocabulary learning since the knowledge of the specific vocabulary/lexis/jargon is of great importance. In Hutchinson and Waters terms the knowledge of the jargon can be regarded as necessity since that is "what the learner needs to know in order to function in the target situation effectively" (Hutchinson and Waters 1987, 55). Therefore, teachers' task is to at least basically acquaint students with the vocabulary specific for the field they will be studying and dealing with. The fact is that teaching ESP at secondary school level is bounded since ESP and the field of study are intertwined because the knowledge of the field is necessary in ESP teaching, and the students have not had experience in the lectures from chosen science or occupation. Therefore the specialized language learning will hardly exceed that basic level and cannot be further deepened and thorough.

The oral interviews aimed to determine what field specific vocabulary should be introduced and by what techniques. The questionnaire and the following interview revealed that students interested in the fields of Economy are satisfied with the knowledge gained at school. All 8 of them regarded as valuable what they had learned on formal letters writing, money and trade vocabulary, tourism vocabulary, telephone conversations. Students whose future area of interest will be Education (3 students), Geography (3 students) and Law (5 students) shared the opinion that they were familiar with basic vocabulary but that they could benefit from additional practice. The familiarity of specialized vocabulary was recognized as a lack by the students planning to continue education in the following fields: Medicine (8), Faculty of Organizational Sciences (5), Political Sciences (4), Pharmacy (5), Electrical Engineering (3) and Natural Sciences (6 students). 9 students had not decided yet what they would study.

Defining the learners' necessities and analysing the curriculum made obvious that the teacher should be willing to make the necessary changes if he wanted to meet the students' needs. Recognizing items or abilities important to students, or which they are not good at, should help the teacher with planning and administrating classes more successfully and effectively. Thus, the teacher is to assume the role of an advisor and provide materials, situations activities and tasks that involve real communication and use of a specific vocabulary. Therefore, the teacher should resort to additional materials that compensate for the lack of texts dealing with the subjects the students had chosen. Since

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secondary school teachers are not ESP experts they may select from already existing materials developed by specialists and combine them according to learners' needs and change them according to target situation. ESP vocabulary can be taught by use of similar techniques used for practising GE vocabulary. Different texts dealing with topics related to the subject area can be found and the teacher should create comprehension activities and exercises on vocabulary to be done with the groups of students formed according to their future field of study. Oral interviews also revealed that when choosing adequate teaching method and techniques even traditional methods could prove to be useful. Students explained that the introduction the *grammar translation* method employed on specific authentic texts can be useful way to present and introduce specific jargon and that the use of mother tongue would facilitate the learning. Specialized terminology is introduced in context, and the terms translated into the native language leave no room for misunderstanding.

The analysis imposed a new role for the students, as well. Being in the centre of the teaching process the students were to choose the teaching techniques and methods to satisfy their interests best. They agreed that the best way to deal with specific vocabulary is by applying various task-based, activity-based and problem solving techniques within their groups. Students suggested they investigate and present an area of future study as a project work. They were encouraged to conduct research using variety of different resources, including the Internet. Reading some books and articles related to the subjects they will be studying in the future proved to be useful as well. As a result students were able to express their creativity and a motivation level rose when they were doing something that was evidently useful and in line with their needs. Completed projects brought a great deal of satisfaction to both a teacher and students who gave their best to contribute to the group. Depending on the field of study projects were of various kinds and focused on different aspects. For instance, a group of students interested in medicine and pharmacy did role plays on the situations they would probably find themselves in while attending universities or after graduating; the group of students interested in Faculty of Organizational Sciences chose to present jobs they hope to be working in the future, and even made a very amazing commercial for the Faculty.

All things considered the best way to deal with ESP at this level is by relying on eclectic approach (Tarone and Yule 1989) that combines exercises, techniques and teaching styles from different methods. It can be noted that while introducing ESP in GE classroom teaching process is shifting from teaching to learning what also improves the key competences proposed by the Ministry of Education².

6. CONCLUDING REMARKS

One contribution of this study is proving needs analysis to be an indispensable step in evaluation of teaching methodology in any language teaching as it contributes to more efficient designing materials and carrying out classes. This method was sufficient in extracting relevant information to achieve the objectives of the study. In this case it proved to be the principal method for redesigning teaching aims, teaching methods and materials in order to provide each student the framework to meet the needs of a future (academic) career. It may be concluded that a thorough analysis of learners' needs leads to effective strategies applied to improve the teaching process and its results.

The paper has proved Dudley-Evans' point that ESP features can be used in senior secondary school classes (Dudley-Evans 1998, 5). The paper has also established that the separating line between ESP and GE is very vague (Anthony 1997), and ESP, as a part of a language system, cannot be taught in isolation and depends on GE knowledge. It can be said that ESP has already entered GE classroom

² Eight key competences include: communication in mother tongue; communication in foreign languages; mathematical competence; digital competence; learning to learn; interpersonal; intercultural and social; entrepreneurship.. CHECK THIS

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by using teachers' own specialist knowledge of using English for real communication and use of "authentic language", the language as it is used by native speakers in real life situations, as often as possible. In the language learning process what is learnt in GE classes is usually continued with ESP and that division can be sad to be rather formal. When secondary school teachers try to meet the needs of their students' future professions they actually build the bridge between GE and ESP. Secondary school teachers are not ESP experts but having in mind the their students' professional development they become creators of that valuable link. The stronger the link is, the greater benefit students will have.

A survey indicates that students have clear perceptions of their language needs for further studies or occupational purposes mostly regarding communication. It also shows that GE taught at secondary schools in Serbia does not satisfy the needs of all students equally considering their plans for the future. Therefore, the integration of ESP of different fields in secondary schools is recommended and ESP can be considered as a valuable complement to GE. Acknowledging that much of what is taught is based on curriculum, and teacher's belief, the paper has proved that English teachers should consider the idea of fulfilling students' goals regarding their future, and not only follow the set curriculum.

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English for Specific Purposes (ESP) and Elements of Culture Theory

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Abstract: ESP as the subject in academic education provides the acquisition of professional register in the English language. It facilitates the orientation of future professionals in their future professional life, but as well in professional literature, which, as a rule, is very present in the English language. ESP classroom should be as interesting as possible while it truly represents the use of English in professional reality. Achieving higher levels of expertise, which to a certain extent means higher levels of education, requires also a more complete shaping of personality. In this process different aspects can be examined, but here the important one is related to the creation of the basis of knowledge about the culture and perception of the guide marks towards cultural awakening. Experts who are going up on their professional paths should be at least to a small extent informed, prepared, and it would be great if they were enabled as well, to know how to ask and find answers about their identity, cultural patterns, social settings, the mechanisms of cultural policy, cultural heritage and so on. We live in the times in which the world appears greatly complicated, and knowledge differentiated. These processes are inevitable and ubiquitous, we should not ignore them, but find ways for them to be properly recognised and understood.

Key words: ESP classroom, framework, culture of ESP, mobility, theory of culture

1. INTRODUCTION

Language, as a special and unique medium, is a remarkable means of interaction and communication between men. Man utilizes it to build and interpret the world he lives in, and which is constantly changing through events that permeate it. The world of today, even though various in many ways, pulses in an elusive but unrelenting rhythm of globalization. This process is complex from many points of view, but it is now only our interest to approach it from the aspect of language. Put picturesquely, the expansion of the English Language throughout the beautiful blue planet can be represented by a circle divided into three concentric belts that show how this language has been adopted and in what way it is used at this moment. The central part comprises countries in which English is the primary language (Great Britain, USA, Australia, etc.), the middle belt covers the areas in which earlier phases of expansion of English took place, countries in which it became a part of state institutions and played a significant role as a second language (over fifty countries, such as India, Singapore, etc.), whereas the outer ring includes those countries in which the importance of the English Language has been recognized as international, even though in the course of history, they have never been colonised by countries from the centre, nor given this language any special administrative status (China, Japan, Greece, Serbia, and many more). In the latter belt, English is taught as a foreign language and according to the estimation of the British Council, in this type of education a billion of people are involved at present, and at least three quarters of this number can be considered speakers of this language as a foreign language (Crystal 2003, 60).

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Among the students of Faculty of Technical Sciences there is an almost uniform belief that English is the most desirable and important foreign language both for private and professional life, and it should be adopted through education. The faculty's subjects English 1 and 2 expand, to an extent, that adoption which was occurring in previous schooling. In fact, they put an accent on the English Language that a completed academic is bound to use primarily in their professional milieu, and that is English for Specific Purposes (ESP).

2. ESP IN THE CLASSROOM

The importance of English for Specific Purposes is indeed great and apparent. This form of expressing English appeared many decades ago, following the changes in the society of that time. The period in question is the period after World War II, when the general scientific, technological and economic expansion occurred, and the English Language crystallized itself as the most appropriate for overcoming language barriers. It has been studied and adopted by ever more people all over the world, in order to achieve a significant practical goal – fast and accurate communication.

The need for people within a specific group (profession, academic surroundings, business, etc.) to understand each other as well as possible, led to English being one of the foreign languages in the program of high school education, after which it was shaped into English language of Expertise and Science, and in the last decade, the foreign language in high schooling turned entirely into English for Specific Purposes. It is not an artificial creation, but the result of sublimation of particular “English languages”, so that it is possible to suggest the following approach. “English for Specific Purposes” (ESP) branches into English for Occupational Purposes (EOP), English for Academic Purposes (EAP), Business English (BE), and English for Science and Technology (EST). It should be mentioned that the basis is always English for General Purposes (EGP) and that mastering any other mode of expressing the language for general purposes is not much different (Dimković-Telebaković 2003, 40). This basic, or better said, general mode of English language is adopted from the beginning of schooling of students, so that they have already been largely acquainted with the general vocabulary, they have analysed general topics, used certain approaches and methods, practiced different skills without forcing some specific ones, while through the study of ESP, they start dealing with specific vocabulary, reviewing specific topics and perhaps forcing one of the skills. All of this takes place in a framework that has been generally laid through the program of the subject, and refined for each generation of students, meeting all their specificity as much as possible, as well as following the changes which are occurring in society and profession.

2.1. Setting the framework

This process begins, certainly, by forming a lecture program for the subject ESP. This is not done arbitrarily, but comes after the analysis of needs – those that the society has for certain experts on one hand, and those of students adopting ESP on the other. This overview largely determines the goals to be achieved, but also the method and the tempo of mastering the road to them. The framework is still being filled by grammatical and lexical traits of the ESP register, the choice of materials for lecturing as well as the methods and techniques for its conducting etc. However, no framework, no matter how carefully created, will be good enough if it is expected to offer a complete quantity of knowledge and skills needed for students to bring along into their professional life. But, every framework that contains space for activities that will attract students, encourage them and strengthen them to be independent in their continued study of English Language for Specific Purposes is more than good enough.

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Language, in general sense, but also its branch for specific purposes, is a part of a culture and its reflection. By getting acquainted with ESP as a new way of expressing English, students enter a new segment of culture. By doing so, they do not leave their particular culture, nor the one that is the characteristic of the group or society they belong to, nor, of course, the general culture. On the contrary, they bring their cultural potential into an interactive relationship with the culture of the area they are beginning to conquer, which is the culture of ESP. They start adding it to their culture, and in time, by advancing in their professions, gain a position to an extent to have an impact by them. This means that with their own results, they can expand and enrich the global orbit of English Language of Profession and Science, and thus ESP (Dimković-Telebaković 2003, 51). It is of substantial importance that the students have this in mind, and as clearly as possible. In order for this to come to life, the culture of the matter they are meeting should be brought closer to them, the culture of ESP, but the general culture should not be left out either. The existing trend of only a few experts dealing with the foundations of culture, or any of its segments is not a good one. The principles of culture should be brought closer, enlightened and explained particularly to young academic world that should be the user but also the creator of the culture.

ESP culture consists of eight components (Dimković-Telebaković 2003, 52):

1. Semantic component – the meaning of the message to be conveyed
2. Conceptual component – concepts, terms
3. Lexical component – tightly connected to the previous one, the basic unit is lexeme
4. Grammar component – from phonology to syntax, the rules of construction
5. Discourse component – discourse rules, creating a meaningful text
6. Genre component – every text type has its rules
7. Component of use – how the language functions in reality
8. Creative component – creation, nomenclature and the use of new

All these components can be understood as levels of mastering ESP, with the first one being the simplest and the last one most complex. Level 1 is within reach of almost everyone who comes in contact with English in their occupation or work, and level 8 is reached by the rare ones who manage to develop their creative predisposition. Are there rules that help in creation, what things and circumstances influence it in the sense of prompting or obstructing – has not in theory yet been cleared enough. However, it is important that students mastering ESP attain a conscience of its culture, of horizons of that culture towards which they can point their eyes. That is only how they can comprehend their position, i.e. the level they are on, or which of the levels they have at least up to a point mastered. The idea of the wholeness of this system should convince them that no level can be neglected or skipped, if they wish to get to the next one. The conscience that there is the furthest and vastest level should create energy to reach for it. Lastly, it should remain stressed that the culture of ESP should certainly be given space within the framework created for it in university lessons.

2.2. Stepping out of the framework

The mobility of students is a very important aspect of university life today. It involves the possibility that a student spends a part of studies in a foreign country, or works abroad as an apprentice or dwells abroad for the purpose of learning a foreign language. Circulation and moving are indispensable for students and have a potential to bring great creative leap in academic work and significantly improve their results. The idea gained through experience that the university they study at is not an isolated

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point, with regard to other universities as well as future professional life, is important from many aspects in personality building.

The described mobility, let us call it macro-mobility, brought the idea of establishing micro-mobility in the classroom, and this will be explained in the following text. Namely, subjects in faculty programs that students think of as merely a separate piece of material that should be dealt with on the road to the diploma are not rare. This is often the case with the English Language, especially because it is in the majority of cases present only in the first year of studies. It is true that this topic is becoming more popular in the scientific-professional public, so programs, manuals, materials, methods and techniques are constantly being improved, and this conference has also been designed with this purpose. Nevertheless, everything still amounts to filling the frameworks in a higher quality way and with more varied materials.

And how do we step out of the framework?

One of the ideas is that, through the place where lectures and adopting of ESP are conducted, occasionally a course of something new is realised, and that can be establishing micro-mobility in an ESP classroom. In this case, students are not the direct participants but the audience which can hear from real actors how ESP lives in the real world, which is somewhat different from “controlled conditions” of the classroom.

Who would be the carrier of this course? The idea is for this to be those who already largely use ESP: teachers and collaborators who teach professional subjects at the faculty/department and those who work in various companies dealing with the field of expertise towards which the specific ESP is oriented. It would be ideal for these teachers and collaborators to be those who already meet the students attending the ESP course in the process of education, and ideally the employed individuals should be former students of the faculty, i.e. the department in which the ESP is taught. In the first group are the people who use ESP and EAP through writing scientific and professional papers, through participation in various scientific projects, through following and researching professional literature etc., so, largely in theoretical domain. In the other group are persons who have recently had the experience of adopting ESP through their professional academic education, and have now the opportunity to use it in practice.

How would this work? The reason for this course to be established in the first place lies in the intention to engage the students in creating and subsequently in strengthening their conviction that the subject of ESP is not merely a brick that should be put into the mosaic called diploma, but that its core has quite direct and constant connections to their future professional life. The teacher conducting the ESP course should make contact with several potential guests from the two above mentioned groups and explain to them the idea concerning their attending. With firm expectation that they would accept, a short conversation with each of them separately should be designed in one of ESP classes in the course of school year. The guest could in their presentation, during the short meeting with the students, for example in the duration of 15 minutes, tell some of the following: their view of how much ESP is needed and important in what they do, what feeling they have considering the possibility of using this form of the English Language, what problems they stumbled upon or what misunderstandings they had due to accidental or unavoidable inadequate use of ESP, whether they had situations in relation to the language for which they believed would be solved easily, but got turned into traps, whether they had opportunities to be in slight advantage because of the knowledge of the language, what experiences they had in using professional (and other) dictionaries, in what way they still improve their ESP, etc. Also, if there are students (and the chances are there are) who have already experienced some way of macro-mobility by taking part in international professional seminars, conferences or projects, they should be included in this micro-mobility. So, the idea is to present real ESP in a classroom, in an interesting and accurate way, with a fun and encouraging atmosphere.

3. CULTURE AND ITS THEORETICAL ELEMENTS

Culture permeates the life of men so through understanding its fundamentals we understand life and man's value in it, which relies on consciousness, freedom of choice and possibility of stepping out. However, today in amazingly large differentiation of knowledge when a professional man is demanded to be very dedicated to the proficiency of his area, so that there is no space left for fundamental knowledge. Specialization is inevitable in scientific and technical progress, but it is just as obvious that preparation for a profession, for occupation, is largely one-sided. Preparing a man for a profession in a great dimension means nothing else but neglecting the entirety of his creative potentials (Božović 2006, 31).

For understanding, research and, in general, dealing with culture, it is not most important to know how long this term exists in the history of civilization. But, one should take into consideration that already Cicero thought about culture, primarily culture of a human soul, that in the beginning of the 18th century it was said that "culture is the world of man", and that today it is discussed about many phenomena related to culture and in opposition of it – such as values, tradition, kitsch, morals etc., as well as about subculture, mass culture, multiculturalism and so on. Culture is indeed a vast topic and demands a huge space for elaboration, but also comprehending how omnipresent and important it is in the life of a man. Here are only some of specific questions that can be answered by exploring its theoretical elements: culture of free time, culture of dialogue, identity, cultural pattern of society, social interaction, gender equality, virtual reality, body culture, cultural heritage, cultural diversity, globalization, etc. Theory of culture is woven from much knowledge found in history, sociology, anthropology, philosophy, theology, history of art, but also in medicine, technology, law, etc. Adopting at least a part of this knowledge, man strives for universal values.

3.1. Elements of theory of culture in ESP classroom

Already three generations of students attending the course of ESP at our faculty fill in a short questionnaire at the beginning of the school year, and after the teacher's short presentation about culture. The questions are few and are the likes of the following:

- Do you know anything about the theory of culture?
- If not, does the term seem intriguing to you?
- If you had the opportunity to have occasional additional lessons on the subject of culture after regular classes of this course, would you attend?
- In these additional lessons, would you accept a certain task on the topic of culture (students get basic information about what type the tasks may be)?
- Would you like to create topics for these additional lessons of theory of culture?

The answers that students have given throughout the years are very uniform. The first question is almost always answered negatively, while in a few cases it was even "this does not exist", while all other questions are answered affirmatively.

The students' wish to attend these additional lessons is more than a positive mark for the endeavour to introduce theory of culture, and thus culture itself into university level education, and especially the large part that does not deal with social sciences. For students of technical, medical and many other profiles, the moment they step into university, program arranged knowledge gaining from this area is completely abolished. In this kind of spiritual growth, they are left to their own devices. It is a big question whether or not, in their rather tiring and demanding professional education, they will come across the idea to take the initiative to experience the sail over the territory of culture, where they will be able to find numerous answers, but also to learn to wonder. "Wondering is awakening"

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says professor and scientist Šušnjić. So, wondering or questioning awakens us, holds us up, and reminds us of seeking, searching. Wondering about small, everyday things, about parts of reality in which we are immersed, about stereotypes and much more, and in the end, about the question of freedom that is in the very foundation of culture. Freedom can be explored on a personal, social or general human level, just like culture can define the whole of human kind, or one specific society, or each one of us separately.

The area of theory of culture is h-u-g-e. There are no illusions that even a bit more substantial part of it can be presented to students through this idea. But that is not the aim anyway. What is expected is for students to get (and even better, retain) knowledge of some questions of culture, as well as information on how, where and in what way they can do further research. How to stay more awake by asking questions, and through finding answers become free.

If theory of culture interests students, it is logical to expect their response, but not of the type that is usually expected on a test or exam. By asking them at the end of the course, to give something of them, they should in fact be rewarded: allowed and encouraged to play with the topic of culture. Playing helps a man come closer to his best creative abilities; it is the basic clause of existence and leads to free motivation and free choice. It is the true essence of life, and activity is its companion. Practically, students should be prompted to engage in play with culture, towards their free motivation that would result in quality activity: they should be offered to do some of the following: their personal cultural portfolio, mini-film with a certain topic, commercial for future students for the classes they are attending at the time, small personal glossary of terms about culture they adopted, preparing and organising a debate with some topic of culture, writing their original essay on some culture phenomenon or question, exploring an element of cultural heritage of their region... or something else that would be their idea, and which would contribute to their sense of accomplishment and improvement. It would be nice that the reward for their effort concerning working on the given task, be also a few ESPB points, but this is, at this point, difficult to be institutionalised.

4. DISCUSSION

The aim of this essay is not to give a complete package with instructions how to introduce culture into university lessons, but to provoke thought: is this a good idea, is there enthusiasm to put it into practice, can it be improved, can be found any negative implications of etc.

Perhaps the idea that is laid out in these pages will be disputed by stressing the lack of time in one precisely designed academic day to realise it. This should not be a serious obstacle. The topic that is the core of what would be done in additional lessons of Theory of culture puts every endeavour to find time and organise students into background. As a significant benefit, there is the possibility of lessons being given online via a program from blended learning methods, which facilitates greatly the problem of time and space.

An ESP teacher is at this moment the most suitable person who would give lessons from Theory of culture. Every one of them who is interested in this can easily gain the needed knowledge and venture into this area together with the students. What is the most important is personal enthusiasm. However, not to keep everything locked up under one overly personal code, developing of this idea goes towards forming an independent subject Theory of culture which would be introduced to all faculties, at least as an optional subject. This is indeed a demanding and serious work, but looking at the future and benefits it would bring, it is worth every effort. For now, the ESP teacher and lessons he/she gives are the only way for culture theory to shine in faculty classrooms at least through some of its elements, and subsequently so in the spirits of the young men that leave those classrooms and into

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their personal and professional lives. In the course of life they will certainly have an impact onto culture, whether they theoretically know little of it, or, unfortunately nothing at all.

5. CONCLUSION

The outline of this essay is the idea that theory of culture should be included in the study program of universities and it is presented by a real lover of culture. The subject ESP at this moment allows for this area to be introduced to students until the time comes to form a separate subject. The goal of all this is to associate professional knowledge with general culture in graduate level education process. This is the road towards versatile development of students who could reach the critical awareness of all that surrounds them, making their overall life.

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Critical Thinking Approach to Teaching English for Engineering

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Abstract: Teaching English for engineering students would not be complete without the strenuous efforts on the part of instructors to activate critical thinking skills among students. The present paper discusses what can be done in terms of English textbooks employed in the teaching of English for engineering students by providing the rationale and some specifics of the textbook we recently published. This paper is intended to serve as a good starting point for fruitful dialogues among those in the profession with a view to fostering critical thinking environments in the English education.

Key words: critical thinking, engineering, ESP, ethics, English textbook

1. INTRODUCTION

The nuclear power plant disaster in Fukushima, Japan 2011 has left the Japanese people skeptical about the professional integrity of engineers and scientists in general, and engineering ethics has come to be taken much more seriously than it had been. Some Japanese universities have started to reorganize their engineering curricula in their effort to implement “Ethics across the Curriculum” project (henceforth EAC), but English education has largely been out of touch with the endeavor.

We have recently begun our efforts to put the idea of EAC into practice in teaching English to engineering students, and have published an English textbook of a new type (*Critical Thinking Skills for Engineering Students*, henceforth CTSES) to foster critical thinking skills among engineering students.

This paper discusses what we have aimed at by preparing a novel English textbook from the viewpoint of engineering ethics and what kind of classroom activities ought to be introduced in teaching English for undergraduate engineering students.

2. REVIEW OF PREVIOUS ENGLISH TEXTBOOKS FOR ENGINEERING STUDENTS

This section offers an overview of English textbooks for engineering students that have been published and currently available in Japan. The Association of English Textbook Publishers, which comprises of 14 major publishing houses of collegiate English textbooks, registers 161 books as English textbooks for engineering students (as of 2012.12). They are categorized as follows:

- (1) science non-fiction—139 books
- (2) technical English—22 books

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English textbooks belonging to the science non-fiction category typically have their tables of contents organized according to scientific topics. To take one of the most recent contribution to that category as an example, *Science Avenue* (by M. Tabuki, M. Long, and M. Eguchi, Seibi-do Publishers, 2013) have topics such as the following:

Slingshot: Water Purification Innovation
Engineering Earth is Possible
Grand Unified Theory of Artificial Intelligence
A Bright Future for LED Lights

Essential Genres in SciTech English (by J. Noguchi and M. Terui, Kinsei-do, 2010) is representative of recent “technical English” textbooks and has its table of contents organized as follows:

Product Specifications
Instruction Manual
Laboratory Manual
Science Feature Article
Meeting Announcement
Company Website
Curriculum Vitae
Call for Papers
Registration Form
Research Paper Abstract

In sum, the above table of contents is organized according to the genres (types) of English students are expected to encounter in their future careers.

Both the topical and genre approach to teaching English for engineering have their merits and demerits. The topical approach has the advantage of being able to offer wide-ranging science topics, but engineering students vary in their interests in specific topics. The genre approach enables instructors to be exhaustive in covering the types of English students have to be familiar with, but makes it rather difficult to keep the interests of students.

3. CONTENTS REQUIRED FOR TEACHING ENGLISH TO ENGINEERING STUDENTS

We must stop to consider the following questions at this point.

- (1) What kind of contents should be dealt with in the teaching of English for engineering? In particular, are scientific topics sufficient as reading materials?

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As noted in the Introduction the nuclear power plant disaster in Fukushima, Japan 2011 has raised serious public concern about the professional integrity of engineers and scientists in general, and engineering ethics has come to be taken much more seriously than it had been. The Japanese people are no longer happy with engineers who merely perform what they are told to do by the companies they work for, disregarding the environmental, economic, and social impacts their works may have on our society.

With this state of affairs in mind some engineering departments of Japanese universities have begun to offer engineering ethics as part of their curricula, but such endeavors, which are often referred to as “Ethics across the Curriculum” (EAC), has been slow in implementation and scarce in number.

We should waste no time in implementing the idea of EAC, and English education can and should be instrumental in the undertaking. As far as we are aware, there have been very few, if any, English textbook for engineering that directly or indirectly address the issue of engineering ethics, and we for one published an English textbook of a new type entitled *Critical Thinking Skills for Engineering Students* (henceforth CTSES). The aim of the textbook is to foster critical thinking attitudes among engineering students.

4. FEATURES OF CTSES

In what follows we give some details of the book.

4.1 Topics

As mentioned above topics dealt with in previous English textbooks for engineering are such subjects as computers, buildings, and energy. CTSES differs from its predecessors in its choice of reading materials. The topics in CTSES are divided into three groups and are categorized as follows:

CATEGORY 1: Accidents Engineers Faced in Organizations

CATEGORY 2: Ethical Questions Concerning Technologies & Science

CATEGORY 3: Engineers and Technologies Operating in Society

Each category includes three topics (chapters):

CATEGORY 1

Chapter 1 Space Shuttle Disaster—What Went Wrong?

Chapter 2 Ford Pinto’s Case—Safety or Cost?

Chapter 3 BP Oil Spill—Learning From Disaster

CATEGORY 2

Chapter 4 Designer Baby—A Dream Come True?

Chapter 5 Controlling Research Into Deadly Virus

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Chapter 6 Experiments Found Impossible To Repeat.

CATEGORY 3

Chapter 7 Challenge To CO₂ Airline Tax

Chapter 8 The World Trade Center Collapse—Was It Defective?

Chapter 9 Cutting Roadside Trees

We now provide brief outlines of each chapter.

<Space Shuttle Disaster>

The Space Shuttle *Columbia* disaster occurred in 2003 during re-entry into the Earth's atmosphere, resulting in the death of all seven crew members. The loss of *Columbia* was a result of damage sustained during launch when a piece of foam insulation broke off from the external tank.

The accident investigation board delved deeply into the underlying organizational and cultural issues that led to the accident. Their report criticized NASA's decision-making and risk-assessment processes. It concluded the organizational structure and processes were sufficiently flawed and that compromise of safety was expected no matter who was in the key decision-making positions. An example was the position of Shuttle Program Manager, where one individual was responsible for achieving safe, timely launches and acceptable costs, which are often conflicting goals. The board made recommendations for significant changes in processes and organizational culture.

< Ford Pinto's Case>

The Ford Pinto, subcompact automobile produced by the Ford Motor Company, is famous for the controversy surrounding the safety of its fuel tank design and Ford's recall of the car. Critics alleged that the vehicle's lack of reinforcing structure between the rear panel and the tank meant the tank would be pushed forward and punctured by the protruding bolts of the differential — making the car less safe than other cars of its class.

Ford allegedly was aware of the design flaw, refused to pay for a redesign, and decided it would be cheaper to pay off possible lawsuits for resulting deaths. Ford used a cost-benefit analysis to compare the cost of an \$11 repair against the monetary value of a human life. Apparently, Ford traded off safety for cost.

<BP Oil Spill>

BP oil spill, the worst man-made environmental disaster in U.S. history, occurred when gas surged upward from the well below the Gulf of Mexico and exploded, killing 11 workers, injuring 17, and polluting the ocean with more than 170 million gallons of oil. From “fail-safe” measures that failed to unheeded warnings, inadequate inspections, and unstable cement, the Gulf oil spill provides a series of teachable moments -technical, theoretical, and professional.

The most important lesson from the calamity is that people can at times be the weakest links in the system. There was increasing sense of false safety, that they have been doing something so long and gotten away with it so many times that what they do is therefore inherently safe.

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<Designer Baby>

Recent advances in genetics has enabled the creation of a designer baby, a baby whose genetic makeup is artificially selected by genetic engineering combined with in vitro fertilization to ensure the presence or absence of particular genes or characteristics.

Opponents of the designer baby argue that genetic enhancements may change our descendents to such an extent that they lose their humanity. They claim that environmental influences operate only within limits set by genes, meaning that even ambitious education programs leave their subjects' humanity intact. Moral and ethical questions about a license to design babies concern the kind of societies it might lead to. Liberal democracy is a cooperative activity in which everyone is seen as having something to offer. Genetic enhancement may bring this social arrangement to an end, creating societies in which unenhanced people are viewed by their genetic superiors as useless.

<Controlling Research Into Deadly Virus>

Two scientific journals have come under pressure from the US government not to publish findings of research on the highly infectious strains (H5N1) of the bird flu virus over fears that terrorists could use the information to create bioweapons. Critics argue that keeping the science secret could hamper efforts to find new vaccines and drugs to combat an infectious form of human H5N1.

Some researchers warn that although they would respect the government's request, it may be too late to stop the spread of the research findings as scientific data has already been shared with hundreds of researchers and governments in open meetings.

<Experiments Found Impossible To Repeat>

The investigating committee at the University of Tokyo announced that one of the experiments performed by a Japanese RNA researcher, whose credibility stands in doubt, has failed a first test to reproduce the results. This was in response to a number of complaints from international researchers that they could not reproduce the experimental results. The investigating committee first asked the researcher to submit raw data, but he could not do so. His assistant admitted that he had not kept his notebooks. It also seems that some data stored in a computer had been deleted.

Although officials from the university did not discuss whether scientific fraud or fabrication were involved, the spokesperson for the committee said "there are many things that look doubtful."

<The World Trade Center Collapse>

The collapse of the World Trade Center (WTC) towers on September 11, 2001, was as sudden as it was dramatic. Immediately afterward and even today, there is widespread speculation that the buildings were structurally deficient, that the fire suppression equipment failed to operate.

The World Trade Center was not defectively designed. No designer of the WTC anticipated, nor should have anticipated, massive aircraft attacks on the building floors. Skyscrapers are designed to support themselves for three hours in a fire even if the sprinkler system fails to operate. This amount of time should be long enough to evacuate the occupants. The WTC towers lasted for one to two hours—less than the design life, but only because the amount of fuel for the fire was so large.

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It would be impractical to design buildings to withstand the fuel load induced by a burning commercial airliner. Instead of saving the building, engineers and officials should focus on saving the lives of those inside by designing better safety and evacuation systems.

<Cutting Roadside Trees>

Verdant, California has seen an increased traffic flow on many secondary roads in the area due to population growth. Some of the trees along the roads are quite close to the pavement, and law suits have been filed against the road commission for not maintaining sufficient road safety. Officials concerned about safety as well as law suits have planned to widen the roads, but this requires cutting down many healthy, longstanding trees along the roads.

A citizen environmental group complains, “Accidents are the fault of careless drivers. Cutting down trees to protect drivers from their own carelessness symbolizes the destruction of our natural environment for the sake of human ‘progress.’ It’s time to turn things around. Sue the drivers if they don’t drive sensibly.” Many letters on both sides of the issue appear in the local newspaper.

4.2 Questions Asked in Each Chapter

To activate open discussions among engineering students each chapter is provided with questions that are both challenging and thought-provoking. Some examples are listed below.

<Space Shuttle Disaster>

The text ends with the sentence “The board made recommendations for significant changes in processes and organizational culture.” What do you think can be done to prevent accidents like the one in the text from happening again in the future?

<Ford Pinto’s Case>

The text mentions “public dissatisfaction with risk-damage assessments where human lives are involved.” What do you think about manufacturers trading off safety for cost? Is it a necessary evil?

<BP Oil Spill>

The text refers to “the worst man-made environmental disaster in U.S. history created by misplaced confidence.” What do you think can be done to prevent accidents like the one in the text from happening again in the future?

<Designer Baby>

Do you favor or disfavor the society in which genetic enhancement is considered as an ideal means to improve humanity? State your reasons.

<The World Trade Center Collapse>

The last sentence of the text suggests that engineers and officials focus on saving the lives of those inside skyscrapers by designing better safety and evacuation systems. What kind of safety and evacuation systems do you think should be introduced to protect the lives of those inside?

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5. CONCLUDING REMARKS

This paper argued for the critical thinking approach in the teaching of English for engineering. We reviewed previous English textbooks used in the Japanese engineering departments and pointed out problems inherent in the traditional textbooks. We went some length of going over the topics that should be introduced in order to strengthen critical thinking environments in classrooms and familiarized the reader with the types of questions that need to be raised in the course of instructions. It is hoped that what we have outlined here will serve to guide the direction of ESP in the field of engineering.

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Constructivism in Developing an ESP Course and Coursebook for Tertiary Students Majoring in Practical Psychology

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Abstract: The paper discusses three principal components of the constructivist approach to teaching English to students majoring in Practical Psychology at tertiary schools: experiential learning, interactive learning and content-based instruction. It is shown that the practical implementation of the approach (in the unity of all its components) in the teaching process requires the introduction of blended learning where traditional students' work with the teacher and with each other is organically combined with on-line work. As a result, a combined constructivist blended learning approach to teaching English to students of Practical Psychology is developed. That approach is defined as the one giving students numerous opportunities of constructing themselves their own knowledge and communication skills in English through experiential and interactive learning activities modeling the extra-linguistic professional reality for functioning in which the target language is being learned. Knowledge and skills constructing is done in such a way that from the very beginning those skills and knowledge serve professional communication in English and improve and expand the information basis of that communication. Besides, successful knowledge and skills constructing is achieved owing to students' regular Internet research on professional sites in English when that research becomes an organic and unalienable part of the learning process no less important than more traditional in-class and out-of-class activities (blended learning). The peculiarities of experiential learning, interactive learning and content-based instruction are analyzed. Specific learning activities characteristic of the constructivist blended learning approach are considered and their advantages over traditional techniques of ESP teaching are demonstrated. The suggested approach is discussed as the basis for the innovative ESP coursebook for students of Psychology "Psychological Matters" developed by the authors and published in Ukraine in 2011. The design and structure of the coursebook are analyzed, as well as the results of using it in ESP teaching practice.

Key words: constructivist approach, experiential learning, interactive learning, content-based instruction, blended learning, course and coursebook for students of psychology

The constructivist approach is well adapted to teaching and learning foreign languages, in particular, to teaching and learning English for specific purposes (ESP), i.e., for professional communication in that language. Its advantages are due to the fact that the constructivist approach allows students themselves to "construct" their knowledge and target language communication skills through learning activities that model the extra-linguistic reality for the sake of which the target language is being learned. "Constructing" one's own knowledge and communication skills is achieved in such a way

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that from the very beginning they are developed as those serving professional communication and expanding the informational basis of that communication. Thereby the improvement of ESP teaching at tertiary schools is attained and the best suitability of the approach for foreign language teaching at non-linguistic tertiary educational institutions is ensured.

The purpose of this paper is discussing the ways and means of best adapting the constructivist approach to the conditions of ESP teaching at Ukrainian non-linguistic tertiary educational institutions with the view of broad introduction of the approach into their teaching/learning practice. As the first attempt of introducing the approach, its adaptation to teaching ESP to Ukrainian tertiary students majoring in Psychology was implemented.

When developing our constructivist approach to teaching English for professional communication to tertiary students majoring in Psychology, we followed the seven fundamental characteristics of the constructivist learning environment most clearly defined in the work by Jonassen (1995). These characteristics presuppose obligatorily making the constructivist learning environment:

1. *Active* – learners are involved in mental processing of the information and are responsible for that processing (and for that the information must be significant for learners and content-based – meaning the professional content in our case, – while the learning activities are supposed to model the experience of professional activities).
2. *Constructive* – learners include the new knowledge and skills into those that they already have.
3. *Cooperative* – learners work not individually but in groups having as their goal constructing the new knowledge and skills of all the group members through using the knowledge and skills of every one of them and providing each of them with support as long as each of the members contributes to the achievement of the common goal.
4. *Intentional* – learners try to achieve the cognitive goal actively and purposefully. At Ukrainian non-linguistic tertiary schools the cognitive goal can be connected with the future profession only, which means that the ESP teaching has to be closely linked to teaching that future profession.
5. *Conversational* – learning is, in its essence, a social dialogic process where those who learn obtain most by being a part of the community commonly creating the system of knowledge and skills both in and out of class.
6. *Contextual* – learning tasks are taken from the real world or model that real world by creating a task-based learning environment. For the conditions of Ukrainian non-linguistic tertiary schools, it means using the context of future specialty for modeling the real world and creating the task-based learning environment.
7. *Reflexive* – learners must clearly articulate what they have learned and reflect on the processes and solutions involved in their own cognition process.

If the seven above characteristics of constructivism may be considered as obligatory, the ways of practically implementing them depends on what is most suitable locally (in a given country or at a given educational institution). We have developed some particular and specific ways of meeting the conditions of ESP teaching at Ukrainian non-linguistic tertiary schools. Those ways are analyzed below (in particular, using as an example ESP teaching to future practical psychologists).

The first of them is *experiential language teaching and learning* (Jerald & Clark, 1994; Kolb, 1984). It is based on students' acquiring the language and communication skills through the experience of practical activities when knowledge, language and communication skills are used as the means of performing those activities and thanks to that are mastered in the best and easiest possible manner. Experiential learning in the framework of the teaching/learning method developed by us

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envisages the organization of the teaching/learning process as *modeling* of the professional activities of future specialists – but such modeling in which professional communication is performed by them not in their L1 but in the target language. It means structuring learning as a series of students' role plays/simulations, learning projects, brainstorming and discussions, presentations, case studies, and such like activities done in English with the subject matter of those activities taken solely from professional content matter materials while the activities themselves model or imitate a number of those professional tasks that specialists really have to solve in their professional work. Experiential learning ensures the implementation of such characteristics of the constructivist approach as making learning active, constructive, conversational, and reflexive.

The second way which is fundamental for our approach is the *interactive nature of all students' learning activities*. Interactivity in this case means not only learning in the framework of constant dialogic interactions between all the participants of the teaching/learning process (the teacher and the students). It also means their interaction with the real-life professional environment and real-life sources of professional information from which the information for learning is obtained. On the one hand, interactivity presupposes *cooperative learning* (Kessler, 1992) when students, constantly working in pairs and small groups, integrate the knowledge and skills every one of them has so that each of them has an opportunity of teaching other students in his/her group and learning from them. On the other hand, interactivity presupposes going beyond the learning environment to find information for doing learning assignments in genuine professional sources in English and, if possible, through direct contacts with English-speaking professionals. This ensures the implementation of such characteristics of the constructivist approach as making learning constructive, cooperative, and conversational.

Experiential learning, by its very nature, can be only interactive because it is impossible to learn a language for professional purposes without interaction in profession-oriented communicative situations and without interaction with professional sources of information in the target language. Therefore, it may be more correct to speak about experiential-interactive learning as the basis of the practical implementation of the constructivist approach rather than about separate experiential learning and interactive learning.

The fact that experiential-interactive ESP learning, as described above, presupposes taking the content matter of learning activities solely from the professional content matter materials makes it necessary to introduce the third basic way of practically implementing the constructivist approach to ESP teaching – *content-based instruction* (Brinton, Snow, & Wesche, 1989; Spanos, 1990). Content-based instruction is a kind of ESP teaching/learning process organization in which the focus of instruction is shifted from pure language instruction to the integration of both language for professional communication and the content matter of professional disciplines. The shift in focus creates a situation where the teacher and students' attention is mostly concentrated on the professional discipline's content matter while the language (ESP) and communicative skills are to a great extent acquired implicitly, i.e., in the process of mastering the content through the medium of English. In the conditions under discussion, content-based instruction means that all the experiential-interactive learning activities performed by students are inextricably linked to their profession through the systematized professional contents of everything that they speak or write about, read or listen to in English. Content-based instruction ensures the implementation of such characteristics of the constructivist approach as making learning constructive, intentional, contextual, and reflexive.

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As can be seen from above, the three fundamental features of the developed constructivist approach (*experiential learning*, *interactive learning*, and *content-based instruction*) cover and ensure the implementation of the seven above-mentioned basic characteristics. They are also well adjusted to the conditions of teaching/learning at Ukrainian non-linguistic tertiary schools in general and to training future psychologists in particular since they transfer into an ESP classroom those approaches that students are used to in their classes on professional subjects. Thus, they only change the language of instruction from L1 to L2, and this cannot be unacceptable to students because it does not make them do something totally strange and unknown to them.

On the other hand, the practical implementation of the three fundamental features discussed above would be impossible without the introduction of the fourth feature – *blended learning*. Both the learning activities that are proper to experiential and interactive learning and to content-based instruction require students' systematic and regular work with a great scope of authentic professional materials in English. Those materials cannot be provided by any textbook because they need to be totally up-to-date and created by native-speaking professionals for other professionals and not for learning purposes only (to ensure the genuine content-based instruction through the interaction with genuine professional sources in English and through getting genuine professional experience in the target language from doing learning activities). Moreover, those materials need to be searched for, found, and processed by students themselves (with the teacher's consultative help) because, otherwise, the knowledge and skills acquisition effect of many creative experiential and interactive learning activities, such as project work, can be much lower than expected.

In the conditions of Ukrainian tertiary schools, the way to solve the problem discussed above is to organize students' regular Internet searches for professional materials in English on professional American or British Internet-sites. The search is to be focused on students' finding (at the teacher's request) those professional materials in English that they require for doing their creative and experiential learning assignments set by the teacher or the textbook (materials for learning projects, case studies, presentations, discussions, etc.). When using the constructivist approach, the Internet-search is supposed to be included as a regular and mandatory learning activity into every ESP course (including the textbooks developed for such courses). But in that case, regular and frequent students' online work, both in and out of class, turns the learning process into a *blended* one (*blended learning*). In blended learning (Barrett & Sharma, 2003; Sharma & Barrett, 2007) the more traditional students' in-class work with the teacher is organically combined with their in-class and out-of-class autonomous online learning activities mostly devoted to searching professional Internet-sites in English for finding information required for doing learners' creative experiential interactive and content-based learning tasks.

In this way, the modification of the constructivist approach developed by us for an ESP course for students majoring in Psychology at Ukrainian non-linguistic tertiary schools may be defined as *the constructivist blended learning approach to ESP teaching and learning*.

The developed constructivist blended learning approach to ESP teaching and learning discussed above has been practically implemented in our coursebook *Psychological Matters. A Coursebook of English for Students of Psychology* successfully used for training students of psychology at Ukrainian universities. Ten units of the coursebook concentrate on modeling future psychologists' professional activities through role plays/simulations, brainstorming, case studies, discussions, presentations, project tasks, and similar activities done in interaction between students and in their interaction with the outside professional environment mostly achieved by way of learners'

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search for professional information through Internet-sites in English for psychologists. The informational basis (contents) for all those activities is purely professional which implements the content-based approach to instruction.

The efficiency of the discussed approach was checked in a specially organized experimental study. For the purposes of such study, at the beginning of 2009/2010 academic year, two academic groups of students majoring in psychology in their second year at Alfred Nobel University, Dnipropetrovsk, Ukraine were selected. 12 students aged 18-19, 7 females, 5 males were in the experimental group; 12 students aged 18-19, 7 females, 5 males were in the control group. Before their ESP course for students of Psychology, which started in that second year of their university studies, students of both groups were learning their General English course. In that course, according to the pre-experimental placement test results, they identically attained the B2 level in their command of General English according to the *Common European Framework of Reference* (Council of Europe, 2001).

The difference between the experimental and control groups was in the use of a standard Ukrainian ESP textbook for students majoring in Psychology with its focus on language learning in the control group and the use of the constructivist coursebook *Psychological Matters* with its focus on learning the professional content through the medium of the target language in the experimental group. Students' speaking listening, reading, and writing skills were checked twice during the academic year – after the first semester and at the end of the academic year (December 2009 and June 2010). The tasks for checking those skills were designed absolutely identically in all respects (including the assessment criteria) to relevant tasks used in Cambridge FCE examination (only the tasks were professionally oriented as to their content matter).

The results of testing demonstrated that in January 2009 the students from the experimental group showed the results in speaking that were 15% better than in the control group. In listening, their results were 23% better, in reading 12% better, and in writing 26% better (20% better in all kinds of tests taken together). In June 2010 testing, the difference to the advantage of the experimental group became even more striking: 20% better in speaking, 44% better in listening, 26% better in reading, and 23% better in writing (almost 23% better in all kinds of tests taken together). That clearly demonstrated the advantages of the suggested constructivist approach to ESP teaching and learning and its great potential for ESP courses.

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How to deliver ESAP *ASAP*

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Abstract: It is now widely accepted that general English courses, however well-written or taught, do not prepare students for English medium academic study at tertiary level. It is necessary for students to take an EAP course to learn the necessary skills and vocabulary. However, given the high career stakes and high costs of university education, in order to meet the expectations of students we need to go one step further; we need ESAP courses – English for *Specific* Academic Purposes. In this presentation, I look at the need for ESAP courses, based on the needs of tertiary level students of different disciplines. Such courses should feature certain key knowledge elements, but should also ensure that students are prepared for the discourse structures of texts in their discipline. From this perspective, we will look at what is required in the syllabus content of ESAP courses.

Key words: schemata, tertiary, academic

Although the obsession continues, even in many English medium universities, with general English - or English for No Obvious Purpose as it has sometimes been called - an increasing number of institutions are now running preessional EAP courses. These courses should cover the *basic* skills required – see Table 1 below. Hopefully, too, basic academic language will be covered, such as that presented in Coxhead's Academic Word List, and the extended noun phrases of academic English, highlighted in corpus research, such as that underlying the work of Biber et al.

But, of course, no individual student goes on to do Academic English as such when they arrive at their faculty. They will study Business Studies (in English), or Tourism and Hospitality Studies (in English), or Law (in English) etc. They certainly need a *general* academic orientation; discourse structures and vocabulary spanning all fields, as well as the general skills which will help them to decode and construct text in the appropriate register. But they need more than that. They need *specific* information from the field they are actually going to study.

There is a case to be made that *all* students at tertiary level, both L1 and L2, need such information before embarking on their faculty work. But research shows a very good reason why non-natives might need it more than natives. It stems from the general consensus that comprehension of spoken and written text is a complex interaction between top down and bottom up processing. Both L1 and L2 speakers need to be able to use top down information, activating schemata and bringing background knowledge to bear in order to make hypotheses. This suggests that *both* L1 and L2 students need a primer in a particular discipline before attending more advanced lectures in the field, or doing reading research. But L1 speakers have a fall back position to use when they do not have the necessary schemata or background knowledge. They bring superb bottom-up processing skills to written or spoken text, so they can deal with incoming data in real time and construct, post hoc, an effective schemata to accommodate this data. We know from research that, when working in their own language, the brain of a native speaker can think four times faster than the mouth can speak and twice as fast as

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the eyes can read. So, for L1 students, there is plenty of spare processing time for constructing schemata while listening and while reading. However, L2 students often do not have such well-developed bottom-up skills and depend, therefore, on being able to construct schemata *before* new data arrives. This is why an ESAP course is an essential precursor to tertiary study. It will enable them to form hypotheses about content which will, in turn, help them to cope with incoming data, even if their bottom up processing is weak.

It is essential to digress for a moment at this point to distinguish between *ESAP* as described here and *ESP* of the sort that commonly appears in courses with this name produced by international ELT publishers. General speaking, these courses are designed for students in or about to enter the world of work in the relevant discipline. They are not designed for students in or about to enter the world of tertiary level study. As a result, the syllabus and the contents are hardly relevant to the needs of the tertiary student. So published ESP courses are not the answer to the ESAP need. What is required, instead, is something which helps the L2 students with both top down and bottom up processing.

Firstly, top down. L2 students need to come to a text with more fully developed schemata and more background knowledge than L1 students, for the reason detailed above. This is especially true during the first year of study. After that, it is to be hoped, both L1 and L2 have the same basic schemata and background knowledge to assist them in decoding incoming information. In addition, the L1 student will have much more experience of listening to and reading formal English and will have developed coping strategies. It is true that some L2 students will come with knowledge of the field but this is likely to be in their own language, and they will benefit from revisiting the important elements of the discipline *in L2*, in order to be well prepared for lectures and reading research in their second language.

The key to activating schemata is background knowledge. But what knowledge would be valuable? Clearly the exact contents of the first year of a tertiary level course will vary from institution to institution but it would appear that it *is* possible to find a commonality of need. Wherever they are taught, courses in, say Business Studies, will contain the same core information, which means that it is possible to devise a content syllabus which meets the basic needs of all, or certainly the vast majority of, students in a particular discipline. As an example, the content syllabus that Garnet has devised can be seen in Table 2 below.

Secondly, bottom up. As stated above, it is likely that L2 students are weaker in bottom up processing than L1 speakers, but we should not simply accept this weakness. Clearly, most students will never achieve L1 competence, because the language was learnt as an L2. But surely some of the weakness comes from the way that language has been taught recently in most institutions, with the emphasis on top down skills at the expense of bottom up, and a move away from focus on form at any stage of a lesson. Where decoding of language at sentence level *is* dealt with, syllabuses and teachers tend to focus on tense morphology at the expense of most other linguistic features, whereas corpus research has shown that, in academic English at least, syntax is far more important than tense morphology.

There may be a very good reason for the focus on tense morphology in general ELT, which has spilt over into the teaching of grammar in EAP. According to Biber et al, the average phrase length in conversation is 1.1 words, and the average phrase length for fiction is 3.0 words. With the focus on classroom communication in most ELT, it is conversation and fiction which forms the basis of most of the language to be analysed and produced. Where ELT sentences become complex, it is generally because of tense complexity. e.g.

I have been living in this house for ages. It must have been inhabited by a very strange person before I came to live here.

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There are difficulties here for the L2 student, but the basic SVO / C is easy to abstract.

However, Academic English is fundamentally different from these varieties in terms of where complexity lies. According to the same research, academic English has an average phrase length of over 8 words. Once the fact is pointed out, the reason is clear. Academic language is rarely of the simple declarative – *He did that, She likes chocolate*. It is full of complex noun phrases with pre- and post-modification, with clause joining and embedding, and long introductory phrases such as *According to recent research conducted by scientists at the University of Hadford...* When the main verb does appear, it is often simple present. Of course, the main verb may be qualified, by certainty markers principally, but it is still unlikely to be morphologically or conceptually complex in itself. A complex academic sentence, therefore, will look very different from a complex general English sentence e.g..

It is, perhaps, surprising that, contrary to the theory of Freud, the well-known psychologist, who believed that children of aggressive parents become non-violent adults, a significant number of children brought up by parents suffering from aggression become violent adults, passing on their violence to their own children.

Note the main verb (underlined) comes 39 words into the sentence.

To sum up this point then, research indicates that complexity in academic English lies in different places from complexity in general English, with the result that many students come to their final course before faculty with very little facility in decoding its unique complexity. ESAP students therefore need to develop the key skill of parsing incoming data to find the subject, verb and object / complement in a complex sentence, active or passive. In addition, they will need to take the basic elements of S V O/C and pre- and post-modify nouns, and add prepositional and adverbial phrases and use the rules of clause joining in order to construct acceptable academic sentences. They will also need to see the effect of stance markers and certainty markers on basic information and become fluent in using them themselves.

As stated above, it is now widely accepted that successful listening and reading is the result of a complex interaction between top down and bottom up skills. We can see this interaction at work with an example from the introduction to an academic lecture. As the lecturer is talking, listeners will be making hypotheses about how he or she will complete each sentence or phrase. L1 students from the field of education would probably be able to do this very well because they can utilise their knowledge of antonyms and collocations. They can use other bottom up parsing to complete other lines. But at times, completion can only come from background knowledge, some of it common core, some of it specialist, and even changing. For example, years ago the only Russian scientist in education most L1 English speakers would know is Pavlov; now perhaps, Vygostky has supplanted him in the minds of most education scholars.

It may be concluded therefore that academic English is necessary but not sufficient to prepare students for tertiary level study in a particular discipline in English. In addition, students need all the elements that will assist in their top down and bottom up processing. They need English for Specific Academic Purposes.

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TABLE 1
 Basic EAP Skills

Listening

- predicting lecture content and organization from the introduction
 - following signposts to lecture organization
 - choosing an appropriate form of lecture notes
- recognizing the lecturer's stance and level of confidence/tentativeness

Reading

- using research questions to focus on relevant information
- using context, cotext and topic sentences to get an overview of the text
- recognizing the writer's stance and level of confidence/tentativeness
 - using the Internet effectively

Speaking

- making effective contributions to a seminar
- asking for clarification – formulating questions
 - speaking from notes
 - summarizing

Writing

- writing notes
- paraphrasing
- reporting findings from other sources, avoiding plagiarism
- recognizing different essay types and structures
 - writing essay plans and essays
 - compiling a bibliography/reference list

TABLE 2
 Basic content syllabus for ESAP courses

What is the discipline?
What are its branches?
What does a practitioner in the discipline do?
The history of the discipline
The great people in the discipline – biography
The great works in the discipline – references
Basic principles / knowledge in the discipline
Current issues in the discipline
Contentious issues in the discipline
Health and safety issues – if relevant
Fact vs opinion in the discipline
The future of the discipline

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Teacher Development in English for Specific Purposes Practice

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Abstract: Although ESP teaching in Serbia is not a new practice, a significant lack of direction in this field of foreign language teaching is noticeable. As a result of this, many teachers are left to their own enthusiasm, skill and will to explore the vast field of ESP, selecting and trying out the best possible ways for developing students' knowledge. Having received an opportunity to be a part of ESP teacher development E-learning course "English for Specific Purposes - Best Practice" organized by The American English Institute, University of Oregon, United States of America, I gained insight into the already attested methods of designing and delivering ESP courses. Moreover, during the course I had a chance to share experience, ideas and knowledge of ESP teaching with more than twenty other ESP teachers worldwide who also participated. Connecting and sharing are important segments of teacher development, even more so in ESP teaching than in other areas of English language teaching because of the very nature of ESP courses - specific contexts expressed in a language that is not a mother tongue. Interacting and contrasting views and opinions with colleagues of the same profession can motivate us and enhance our teaching, consequently helping our students improve.

Key words: English, teaching, development, connecting, interacting

1. INTRODUCTION

There are many definitions of ESP. One of them is offered by Swales: English for Specific Purposes is a subdivision of a wider field, Language for Specific Purposes, which is defined as "...the area of inquiry and practice in the development of language programs for people who need a language to meet a predictable range of communicative needs." (Swales, 1992: 300) By taking this definition as a starting point, what are the expectations of ESP teachers as ESP practitioners, and what do we require of students? The first ability required in order to successfully communicate in an occupational setting is the ability to use the particular jargon characteristic of that specific occupational context. The second is the ability to use a more generalized set of academic skills, such as conducting research or responding to letters, e-mails and memoranda. (It can be related also to understanding another culture or communicate in various cultural settings.) The third is the ability to use the language of everyday informal talk to communicate effectively, regardless of occupational context. The task for the ESP developer is to ensure that all three of these abilities are integrated into and integrated in the curriculum. This is a difficult task due to the incredible amount of research required (Gatehouse, 2001) on the part of the teacher, and a demanding learning opportunity for the student.

Dudley-Evans and St John (Dudley-Evans and St John, 1998: 13) argue that ESP teaching is extremely varied. They continue to say that the ESP practitioner should perform different roles: ESP practitioners are not just teachers, but also course designers and material providers, collaborators, researchers, and evaluators. David Nunan recognized that if teachers are to be responsible for developing the curriculum, they need the time, the skills and the support to do so. (Nunan, 1987: 75)

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Hutchinson and Waters identify that the ESP teacher should have the same qualities of the general English teacher: the ESP teacher should possess English language knowledge, thorough command of the course design, but also should be "an interested student of the subject matter". (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987: 163) On the other hand, Robinson asserts that the most important quality the ESP teacher needs is flexibility. (Robinson, 1991: 122) For Robinson, flexibility means changing from being a general English teacher to being a specific purpose teacher. Such a flexible teacher should cope with different groups of students, often at very short notice, and various subject fields.

2. TEACHING ESP

An ESP teacher should take into consideration the following: teaching aims and objectives, curricula and syllabuses used in the given institution/organization, English language competence level of students, the level of English language competence to be acquired, but also type of English language competence to be acquired. Furthermore, an ESP teacher should be informed about the level and scope of students' knowledge of the profession for which they are studying, and also the type of professional knowledge they possess. The teacher then decides on the material that is going to be used in classes, having all of these factors in mind. Last but not least, an ESP programme must be in accordance with its place in the curriculum, the number of students and hours that will be dedicated to course. Good practice has shown that during all these stages ESP teachers should also consider ways of testing, assessing and evaluating the students' progress and the course as a whole.

In order to successfully perform all these tasks, ESP teachers must invest a lot of energy and skill into their work.

Linguistic and methodological development of ESP teachers is promoted by various professional seminars, conferences, workshops as well as specific publications and brochures printed in English, translations, certain TV programmes, exhibitions and fairs.

Updating of knowledge and related information is also necessary, especially when teaching students whose future professions require new data daily, or welcome innovation in the field.

Certain amount of students' knowledge about the subject area is an indispensable tool for ESP teachers because it allows them to fully understand specific texts in English, interpret the topic in class from more than one aspect, or initiate discussion about it. Also, the teacher's knowledge of some facts and data about the subject area boost the teacher's confidence, performance and authority in class.

Therefore, the ESP teacher should provide the students with relevant language skills to express specific content on a given level of professional education, and on the other hand it is expected of the teacher to enable students that their language skills used indeed express relevant professional content in a certain context.

2.1 The nature and process of ESP teaching

Teaching ESP is demanding, time consuming, and different for every group of students. ESP is a challenge for all who teach it, and it offers virtually unlimited opportunities for professional growth.

As ESP professionals, we must be prepared to find out how language is used in real world situations and teach that language. (Smoak, 2003: 27)

The lessons Ms Smoak shares with us in her article "What is ESP?" can be seen as steps teachers need to follow when start working with ESP. Every one of them can be interpret through any ESP teaching context. Each of the lessons she offers is a piece of advice ESP teachers can greatly benefit from, the first being "ESP is not teaching lists of technical vocabulary". This sentence can often be heard from people who are not language teachers - students, school managers, organizers etc. One of the ways teachers can explain students the false image they have about it is by giving them a few terms related to their area of study and asking them to create a meaningful sentence. The students then realize that "ESP is something more than just a few specific words".

Ms Smoak shows us situations every ESP teacher finds herself/himself in sooner or later. If asked to create an ESP syllabus, teachers should ask questions based on need analysis. "Need analysis should never be unilateral" Ms Smoak points out; also, it is necessary to find appropriate material for each group of students, because in most cases, students are not only of different future professions, but mixed ability in EGP as well. Differentiating between present situation analysis and target situation analysis of students' knowledge is also important, for sometimes we expect something and get surprised when the actual situation is somewhat different. For example, we assume that our learners of ESP possess Intermediate level of EGP knowledge, but in reality they can be weak Pre-Intermediates; accordingly, our target must be altered a bit in such a scenario.

A research-based needs assessment is important to determine the needs of the learner and other stakeholders. It is crucial to set the ESP course on a solid foundation. Not just the learner is the end-user of the knowledge, but there are also other stakeholders, meaning the future company or the employer, the profession itself, the economy of a given country and so on. Therefore, development of ESP is related to development of ESP practitioners - the teachers, but also, of the institutions in which ESP is taught and their ability to recognize the importance of it.

The curriculums should not be carved in stones; times change, settings change, students change, needs change. Sometimes it is hard to apply the same curriculum to two different persons, let alone hundreds of them, or two years in a row in the same institution/school, so flexible curriculum design is welcome, as well as adaptable and negotiable role of the teacher. Mixed ability ESP classes demand such a disposition in a teacher. Both the teacher and the students can and should show their creative side, in varying exercises from brainstorming, in which all students can participate regardless of the prior knowledge of English, to setting project works or debates for more advanced students. Finally, ESP teachers should "cast aside all assumptions and intuition", because more than once, students respond with enthusiasm to some tasks teachers find boring and vice versa; or they quickly grasp something teachers expect to take more than one class to practice.

2.2 Personal, social, and economic benefits of ESP

Benefits that come with ESP teaching practice can be observed from two perspectives - one of the teacher and the other of the students. For the teacher, it is similar to opening a new book that contains information teacher knows little or nothing about, because when one starts preparing for teaching an ESP course, she or he has to learn something about the specific field in question. It also deepens the teacher's knowledge of teaching methodology and learning the language in contexts that might be far from teacher's personal preference or interest. Unlike some other countries, Serbia does not regard teaching ESP as something more demanding for teachers, so the economic benefit is not something ESP teachers can count on yet.

From the students' perspective, an ESP course offers the opportunity to use many sources in a foreign language that would be incomprehensible to them otherwise, it makes them acceptable as professionals on a global level, and enables them to present their knowledge to everybody. All of the above mentioned - personal, social as well as economic benefits are encompassed in students' learning ESP: better jobs, promotions, wider social circles, personal development. To some extent the benefits of learning ESP overlap with the benefits of learning EGP, mainly in the domain of personal relationships, finding friends and getting to know different countries, for ESP is oriented primarily on the area of work.

If we talk about the benefits of teaching/learning ESP on a national level, they are visible regardless of the situation the country is in; in developing countries, by proper usage of language people can be clear about their needs, problems, ideas, and for developed countries it is a tool with which the best professionals can gather their thoughts to find solutions in some field (medicine, ecology, construction...).

3. ESP - BEST PRACTICE

How can ESP practitioners develop their skills in the best way possible and consequently help the students' progress?

By teacher development, several issues come to mind: (a) the awareness of teacher's own strengths and weaknesses, (b) the awareness of teacher's contribution to the students, the community and the country in general, (c) the awareness of the social factors influencing learning, and (d) the need for continual improvement of knowledge and skills needed for presenting in class, for practice and for evaluating students. Some of the ways ESP teachers can contribute to their own development are through reading, attending relevant gatherings and discussing the matter with colleagues.

Such opportunity was given to me by The American English Institute, University of Oregon - United States of America, to be a part of ESP teacher development E-Learning course "English for Specific Purposes - Best Practice". The course introduced participants to the most recent TEFL methods and techniques, engaging participants in an innovative distance-learning program by employing the latest in modern technology. Candidates were nominated by U.S. embassies and selected in a competitive process, and the scholarships provided by U.S. Department of State. More than twenty participants joined the course from different countries and backgrounds: there were

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teachers from Argentina, Belarus, China, Kirgystan, Panama, Russia, Senegal, South Korea, Ukraine, Uruguay, Vietnam etc.

This online course was created to develop participants' skills in designing, implementing and evaluating English for Specific Purposes courses based on best practices in the field. Because the foundation of this course was in best practices, both new and experienced ESP practitioners were welcome from all areas of the field. The course was organized by weeks, and the topics were:

- *Orientation to ESP and course site*
- *What is ESP?*
- *Needs Assessment*
- *Curriculum Design Phase 1*
- *Curriculum Design Phase 2*
- *Materials Development Phase 1*
- *Materials Development: Genre Analysis*
- *Materials Development Phase 2*
- *Implementation & Assessment*
- *Course Evaluation & Wrap-Up*

Participants were expected to actively involve in the process of learning, receiving an overall percentage score for the class which was based on work in three areas: online discussions, weekly tasks, and a final project. Teaching networks were created by encouraging collaboration among participants in weekly discussions, in small group sessions, and with ongoing interaction through the course social networking site. During a ten-week period, the participants had a chance to learn, present, discuss, and oppose views through a stimulating activities and tasks. We shared are ideas and knowledge, complemented each other in our tasks and gained insight into the existing practices worldwide.

As particularly interesting, I would single out situations when some of the participants understood the tasks differently or viewed them from different angles and aspects; those were the moments in which various working and living surroundings in which we all existed emerged. Sometimes, we would read our posts again realizing that a colleague was right, and that we had not taken everything into account while doing the task. Collaboration and cooperation was of the utmost significance in such a learning environment, it was a team work on the same goal: to reach "the best practice possible". The whole process was stimulated and monitored by The American English Institute University of Oregon staff, who unobtrusively yet highly professionally guided the participants in the right direction. In this virtual classroom, ESP teachers were teaching each other, encouraging and commending the colleagues' effort but also questioning and advising when needed. Even though miles and miles apart, we finished the course with a sense that we all spent the summer together, communicating to each other almost every day and benefiting greatly from the time we invested in the course, materials provided by the organizers and the priceless experience that we gained from connecting and sharing with the colleagues coming from other universities and countries.

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3.1 Quality of work

How is the quality of an ESP teacher's work improved by attending courses such as "English for Specific Purposes - Best Practice"?

A teacher that already has experience in teaching general English can exploit this background in teaching ESP. The teacher may recognize the ways in which the already acquired teaching skills can be adapted for teaching ESP, but other ESP teachers' experience is a ready-made tool that can serve as an example from which it is possible to learn.

It is a well-known fact that the skills for communication and mediation create the classroom atmosphere. Being in a virtual classroom puts an ESP teacher in a constantly alternating situation: she/he is both a student and a teacher. In one moment, the ESP teacher's role is to explain and co-educate, and in the next to discover, comprehend, and acquire knowledge that other teachers have to offer.

Establishing a positive learning environment in the classroom is always a priority. In an E-learning classroom, the learning is two-fold: the ESP teacher learns about the course topic, namely ESP best practices, but also how to integrate computer skills into the learning process.

Learners must be self-confident in order to communicate, and it is the teacher's responsibility to help build that confidence. A self-confident teacher, who always grows professionally is an inspiration and a positive role model for the students.

4. ADDITIONAL ASPECTS OF TEACHER DEVELOPMENT

The digital era that we live in today brings about many innovations and technology advances in the field of English language teaching. The teacher is expected to follow and incorporate new technologies into the teaching process. The use of technology in classes is positive because it increases motivation and extends learning beyond the classroom. In ESP, combining picture and sound, video materials and computers can help the learners in a way that is similar to the manner in which the learner acquires knowledge of a specific subject area in native language.

Many teachers find self-evaluation to be their everyday activity. They reflect on the work they do, trying to identify weak spots and discussing them with colleagues. Even though the learner is in the centre of the learning process, the learning process itself is often left to the individual knowledge and skill of the ESP practitioner. In that respect, students' opinion on the ESP classes is important and it can be gathered through surveys. Carrying out questionnaires or surveys in which questions range from students' reasons for enrolling the ESP class to if they think the course is useful and well designed can motivate the ESP teacher further, and students' comments can be viewed as a chance to improve.

The number of teachers should be adequate so that everything is done with quality and in due time. Gradually, the load of work, especially paperwork, increases and that part of the teachers' job is often overlooked. If a teacher is constantly swamped with various tasks, it is inevitable that her/his performance will decline. Further on, the teachers' education is not finished after graduation, especially if she/he teaches ESP. Qualified, trained staff is necessary, but continuous development is

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what keeps such staff on top. So even though the learner is in the centre of attention, it is important to realize that teachers matter in the whole system as well.

5. CONCLUSION

When teaching ESP, the practitioner - an ESP teacher, need not become an expert in the field (medicine, ecology, design etc.), but need to be acquainted with the language of that field and specific settings in which the language is being used. The subject knowledge of the learners should be exploited in classes, but at the same time, it is not advisable to solely rely upon it. Academic interaction between the subject faculty and the language faculty can be very useful for ESP practitioners.

Through self-observation, observation of ESP colleagues' classes and expansion of knowledge, an ESP practitioner can gradually enrich her/his performance. Macnamara claims:

Developments in teaching skill are more likely to come about through a process of slow and gradual improvement of current practices...rather than through attempts to determine *a priori* what skills a prospective teacher ought to demonstrate and then to expect the beginning teacher to be able successfully to deploy such skills in the classroom. (Johnson and Porter, 1983: 139)

In his article "Communicative language teaching - some implications for teacher education", Stephen Andrews raises three fundamental issues in teacher education, which are (a) the question of validity - the process of teacher education should be based on an adequate theoretical foundation with a consistent set of principles which guide teacher education, (b) bridging the gap between theory and practice, and finally, (c) teacher education as a continuing process. (Johnson and Porter, 1983: 140) These three issues represent the core of ESP teachers development as well.

A steady buildup of vast area of skills and knowledge is what creates successful ESP practitioners. The more enthusiastically one approaches her or his development, the better the results.

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The Art of Teaching English for Specific Purposes

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Abstract: This paper presents an overview of some of the issues underlying teaching English for Specific Purposes (ESP) related to what the literature and practitioners are likely to agree to be the basic features of all ESP courses, focusing on needs analysis, content-based teaching methods, content-area informed instructors and selection of materials. They are considered from a threefold perspective: the one of a teacher-practitioner, directly involved in teaching English for Occupational Purposes, a teacher of ESP as part of academic curricula and as a methodology teacher of future ESP teachers. The paper starts with a definition of ESP and its distinctive features and then examines them through a comparative approach based on whether the course has real or imagined needs. Thus, it considers the major challenges that ESP professionals are faced with and discusses each of them in light of direct ESP practice and creation of courses. It touches upon learners' needs and ways to address them, proposes teaching methodology and modes to bridge the gap between content and instruction. It also focuses on the area of selection and adaptation of materials and suggests some practical solutions regarding it, especially for courses for which there are no textbooks. The recommendations given might be of benefit not only for ESP teachers, but probably for all ELT (English Language Teaching).

Key words: ESP, teaching, needs analysis, practice

1. INTRODUCTION

English teachers involved in teaching English for Specific Purposes (ESP) are aware of some of the major challenges of this discipline and will probably agree that these are mainly related to defining the needs of their students, the approach to teaching it and the selection of materials. There is another issue that has been debated a lot among researches and practitioners, but seems to be overcome in the last few years, at least in Macedonia. That refers to the question about the competency of the instructors and whether ESP should be taught by a language specialist or by a professional in the certain field who is also proficient in English.

It is clear that ESP is a separate discipline, different from General English. Very often, at academic settings, ESP students are not different than those who attend other English courses, but the distinction is in the perceived needs and therefore the complete model of teaching should be adapted in order to correspond to these needs. Therefore, in this paper we address the specificities of ESP courses depending on the type of ESP and its audience. A number of significant issues are considered that might be of use for all ESP teachers as well as for other English teachers.

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1.1 Defining ESP

Having a clear view of what ESP is and defining its most important characteristics is critical for making decisions about creation and teaching of ESP courses. It has generally been seen as a separate activity within English Language Teaching (ELT) with a special insight into the other disciplines (Dudley- Evans, St. John, 2003). These authors, whose book, *Developments in ESP*, has established the main principles of the theory and practice of ESP and should be treated as a basic source of information for every ESP teacher, claim that the openness to the insights of other disciplines is a key distinguishing feature of ESP.

The original flowering of the ESP movement resulted from general developments in the world of economy in the 1950s and 1960s: the growth of science and technology and the increased use of English as the international language of science, technology and business although at that time ESP was dominated by the teaching of English for Academic Purposes (EAP). This expansion of international business and globalization of economy and technology have contributed to the development and growth of English for Business Purposes (EBP) and that is why this area has received the largest attention by publishing houses and is now the richest with materials.

It is interesting to mention that the English language does not have the only 'right' to the term because ESP is a part of a more general movement of teaching Language for Specific Purposes (LSP) which also includes French and German. However, experts in this field claim that with these two languages, often, more emphasis has been placed on terminology or learning vocabulary, while ESP has developed into a special and complex approach in which the learners, the language required and the learning context establish the primacy of need (Dudley-Evans and St. Johnes, 2003).

The communicative component of the ESP courses that is directly linked to the needs of learners has been pointed out by many researches. According to Mohan, (in Graham and Beardsley, 1986:228), ESP is considered to be an area of ELT which focuses on preparing learners "for chosen communicative environments". Hutchinson and Waters (2002) represent ESP as a branch of the tree of ELT with communication and learning as the roots that nourish that tree.

Belcher (2006, 134) notices that the descriptors most likely to spring to mind when referring to ESP by those who are familiar with it, include terms such as "needs-based, pragmatic, efficient, cost-effective, and functional". This author further states that needs assessment, content-based teaching methods, and content-area informed instructors have long been considered essential to the practice of specific-purpose teaching.

From this, it is clear that although ESP is a form of language teaching (Hutchinson and Waters, 2002) it is critical to understand the language use in the specific context. Rather than ESP professionals working in isolation, exemplar texts from the learners' fields of study or work and cooperation with subject-area specialists should be common in the ESP teaching practice. A learner-centered solution to the content knowledge dilemma has been offered by Dudley-Evans (1997, in Belchar, 2006), who feels it essential for ESP teachers to learn how to learn from and with their students, engaging with them in genuinely participatory explorations of discourse domains.

2. ENGLISH FOR OCCUPATIONAL PURPOSES (EOP) VERSUS ENGLISH FOR ACADEMIC PURPOSES (EAP)

The most basic and traditional division of ESP is into EOP and EAP. The term EOP refers to English for professional purposes in different disciplines, such as business, law, medicine, administration, engineering, etc. The main difference between the two types is that in EOP the needs of the learners are real and well defined by learners themselves. They are clear why they need the language and in

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which concrete situations. In the EAP, this issue is more complicated because here the needs are perceived and the instructors must conduct a need analysis before they make decisions about what to include in the course. In addition, students are not the only ones to be consulted when defining the course objectives, but the other stakeholders as well: university management, potential employers, some external factors (the Ministry of Education, the Law on Higher Education, quality guidelines from external bodies, etc.).

In that regard, EOP is more flexible and open to negotiations with students. We will consider here two models of EOP based on our experience: English for Medical workers and Business English. In the first one, the attendees were doctors from the local hospital who did not need English for conversations with their patients, but more for presentations, discussions and exchange of opinion with colleagues while attending international conferences. Thus, the focus of the course was not on medical vocabulary and things such symptoms of illnesses or question formation, as it would be expected from such a course. Exactly because of learners' needs, we included a variety of activities starting from developing their general communication skills and socialization patterns to writing and presentation skills. The least problematic was the vocabulary part, since many of the diagnosis and concepts had Latin names and were familiar to the doctors.

Because of the needs, this course sometimes had more similarities with an Academic Writing course than with English for Medical Purposes. This is exactly what literature says about ESP:

“Like other educational endeavors, ESP assumes there are problems, or lacks, that education can ameliorate, but unlike many other educational practices, ESP assumes that the problems are unique to specific learners in specific contexts and thus must be carefully delineated and addressed with tailored-to-fit instruction. ESP specialists, therefore, are often needs assessors first and foremost, and then designers and implementers of specialized curricula in response to identified needs”.(Belcher, 2006, 135).

It is therefore necessary to point out again that needs assessment is seen in ESP as the foundation on which all other decisions should be made. The needs of doctors in the course described above were the basis on which the course syllabus was created. It is quite different from the EAP course for a similar profession, the ESP for Pharmacy Model by Graham and Beardsley (1986). As explained by the authors, the experimental communication course for pharmacy students was created because of the concern of the administration and faculty members of Maryland School of Pharmacy that some of the nonnative English-speaking graduates were professionally handicapped by a lack of communicative competence in English, critical for their profession because of the interaction with patients. Unlike the doctors, they needed specific communication skills for professional purposes and not for socializing at seminars and conferences.

Although the pharmacy course was an EAP one, the needs of students were seen from the perspective of their profession – direct communication with patients, as realized by the stakeholders, and that determined the creation of the course. In both cases, needs were prioritized.

We have also had the opportunity to teach EOP for a group of managers from a textile factory that was export oriented and dealt with many countries all over the world. At the beginning, they were clear, since the course was paid by the firm, that it would be a Business English course. Their English level was determined by a standard proficiency test and after that we together chose a textbook for intermediate learners. As in every class, mixed abilities were an issue, but a manageable one. As the course was passing by, it turned that the class, its 10 participants, had different needs and insisted to focus on different things. The textbook was only used as a framework while the objectives of every lesson were set based on the situations and problems the participant encountered at their working place. We had different situations, starting from simple phone calls and inquiries, to dealing with banks through phones, then writing memos, presentations of products, placing contracts – topics that would be found in any business English book. The difference was in the fact that once we would start

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with a certain topic, the participants would like to expand it and that would lead to another area that had nothing to deal with Business English, but was demanded to be covered. For instance, a business dinner with foreign visitors was an introduction to discussion about different cuisines and ways to prepare food. Or, a delayed flight as an excuse for postponement of a meeting because of a strike of airline workers would be used as a background for a very productive discussion about the world economic crisis.

Were these students' needs? Not by definition. Did we think we were doing something wrong? There was a dilemma. If that had happened in an academic setting we would have had no doubts at all, because in that way students were developing their critical thinking skills. Is our role not only teaching, but educating? What's wrong with developing students' general knowledge? Nonetheless, my actual students were adults, with developed careers and they still enjoyed talking about things that were of interest to them. I just followed their wants. As Belcher (2006, 135) further says:

“Because of this emphasis on needs, the dividing lines in ESP between researchers and teachers, or curriculum designers, materials developers, and teachers, are frequently blurred. Since even the earliest days of ESP (the 1960s), practitioners have viewed assessment of specific needs as requiring research skills and creative approaches to novel situations, and needs assessment itself has been seen as in need of continual reassessment”.

Based on all this, it can be concluded that flexibility is another key word, besides needs, in all ESP courses, no matter whether they are EAP or EOP but that flexibility should be related and depend on the needs. That flexibility means research, innovation and creativity by the teacher; that flexibility means adaptability to new situations, it also means readiness for compromises. As illustrated from the previous examples, it was also proven by another one.

2.1. ESP for Public Administration

Similarly to the situation with the ESP for Pharmacy students, explained previously, there was a necessity to search for a more efficient model of an ESP course for students of Public Administration and Political Sciences (PAPS) at the South East European University (SEEU) in Tetovo, Macedonia. Very often, students from this faculty would complete all required professional courses, but could not graduate because of the English requirements obligatory for all students at SEEU. What is more, in spite of the ambitious English program, students did not seem to demonstrate sufficient knowledge of English at their administrative positions in the Public Sector which required young professionals who could represent the new and modern public administration to perform the necessary reforms in the country on its way to integration in international organizations such as NATO and EU.

Students enrolling at the PAPS Faculty traditionally come with poorer English skills. Therefore, they struggle a lot with the English courses because of the quite strict criteria according to which they can receive a passing grade. There is a continuous assessment and components such as class attendance, participation, presentation or project, speaking and writing skills evaluation, quizzes, and final exam count towards the final grade. But still the English skills of these students did not appear to be at a satisfactory level after graduation as reported by the stakeholders during their regular meetings with the faculty management. The institutions from the public sector, such as different governmental bodies, ministries, the local government, public enterprises, the courts and other public organizations need administrators with good communicative skills in English for their contacts with the international community and the representatives of international organizations in the country on topics and with vocabulary related to the field of public administration and politics.

The students in class gave us the most valuable information about what they thought they would need English most. Since that was their second year at University, they had all completed the

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professional courses from the two previous semesters and were able to list the topics they wanted to be discussed in class. This is referred to by Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998, 125) as personal information and relates to “factors which may affect the way they learn such as previous learning experience, cultural information, reasons for attending the course and expectations of it and attitude to English”. Later, we developed these themes into modules and they became parts of the syllabus.

In order to get information about learners English skills, the “present situation analysis” (Dudley Evans and St. John, 1998) during the first class, we also administered the same institutional proficiency test that SEEU students take at enrolment to check if and what kind of progress they have made. In addition, at the same class, students were encouraged through some interactive activities to start communicating using specific words from the field of public administration and political sciences that were already familiar to them.

“Target situation analysis” (Dudley Evans and St. John, 1998) was managed by interviews with our former students, employed at the institutions from the public sector. They pointed out in which areas from their everyday working experiences English was most useful.

Topics identified through the needs analysis were used as a basis for creating the course. Some appropriate texts were found from various resources. Sometimes it was necessary to make some adaptations on them for use in class, but they provided the theme for a discussion and the range of vocabulary needed for that particular area. In this way we were able to create different modules and divide them into weeks and hours of instruction.

Every lesson was carefully prepared to make sure that it contained both content objectives and language objectives. As recommended in the SIOP model, “all the content and language objectives should evolve from the lesson topic and be part of the instructional plan” (Echevarria et al, 2007, 27). Since this was an ESP course, very often these objectives were interrelated. For instance, the key vocabulary in this course referred to the technical or specific terms and one language objective such as being able to define the term accession required some content knowledge of how countries acquire membership in international organizations.

The course evaluation by students showed high level of satisfaction. The class consisted of 18 students, out of which 10 were from Public Administration and 8 from Political sciences. All students passed the course, including the 5 who had failed it previously. They were all very regular in class and showed enthusiasm and motivation to study. Below is a copy of the original email from one student who was taking the course for the second time:

“Hiii Dear Professor

Today i have meeting from 09:00 with Heather Henshow and Xhevahir, you can verification this,

I don't want to miss more this Friday and i will not do that. To be in this classits great because you speak about the politic and all what we need to learn and to know. Last Semester I Learned how to make Rice ,maybe you can't believe it. Now i learn about Politic and EU and this is OK for me and for all.

In attach you have my homework”.

For more serious course evaluation, some other formal tools will be needed. Administering some standardized English proficiency tests at the beginning and at the end of the course might be very useful to see if there was indeed some learning progress. But in spite of the lack of these measures, it was evident that students enjoyed the course and what they were doing seemed very relevant for their future.

3. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on our long experience in teaching different ESP courses, our first recommendation to the ESP teachers would be to reconsider their syllabi and adjust them to the maximum level to match students' needs. Permanent contacts with content area teachers are also a must in ESP courses as well as consultations about the course content with all relevant subjects.

Self-reflection is a very helpful technique that all teachers should use no matter whether they are at the beginning of their career or they are already experienced EFL teachers. Reflective practice could be seen as teaching which involved constant inquiry about one's own teaching and then attempting to take a more systematic approach to practices and to work with others who had such common interests and questions as yours (Pickett, 1999 in Maarof, 2007). Pickett claims that reflective teaching practices are compatible with academic skills instruction in two ways. First, they ask teachers to look at their teaching in the way they are asking students to look at their learning and second, reflection compels teachers to look at the reasons and theories behind their practices and forces them to examine factors such as beliefs and assumptions about learning, students' needs and the teachers' relationship with larger community. This is exactly what we understand by a successful ESP course. Continuous reflection over one's teaching, examining and re-examining our actions, modifying courses based on consultations with literature, with colleagues, being aware of the setting, being well informed about current trends in all spheres of everyday living, being adaptable and flexible, open for constructive feedback and ready for compromises – these are the prerequisites for creating and teaching effective language courses, no matter whether they are ESP or general ones.

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The Acculturation of Language for Specific Purposes (L[E]SP): ESP as Culture - Specific Language

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Abstract: Previous decades have witnessed the variety of fields concerned with language investigation undergo substantial changes, both in terms of substance matters and the methodology employed in their ontological and empirical elucidation. This is particularly true of linguistics. Here, perhaps more than in any other field, it is evident that the focus has shifted from the formal to the applied aspect(s) of language, or in Wittgenstein's terms to "language in use". The fact that L[E]SP is inherently an exponent of language in use makes this shift even more significant, especially in terms of the novel insights it bears which, in the author's opinion, have not yet been profusely addressed in L[E]SP studies. These insights primarily concern the crucial pragma-kernels of language - "context of culture" and "context of situation", as well as "Interactional competence". Pursuant to this, the initial goal of this paper (1/3) is to introduce the notion of "Natural Semantic Metalanguage" (NSM) and the "theory of cultural scripts" in a highly systematic, yet, in terms of wider audience, fully accessible manner. Furthermore, the focus is additionally placed on a) how the pertinent theoretical and empirical findings can be applied in practice, particularly in the context of L[E]SP and b) how such findings can provide an essential point of departure and the means crucial not only for understanding the cultural specificity of "language in action" (i.e. language in use), but equally importantly for understanding this underlying specificity of L[E]SP. In this respect, ESP shall be considered as the three-partite exponent of: a) language in use; b) culture-specific language; and c) L[E]SP-culture specific language. To bridge the aforementioned gap, the paper will be concluded with the proposition of a novel interdisciplinary model of L[E]SP whose kernel embodies a cross-section of the pragma-kernels and the L[E]SP-kernels as postulated by the seminal L[E]SP scholars.

Key words: natural semantic metalanguage, cultural scripts, ESP pragmatics, acculturation, interdisciplinary model

1. INTRODUCTION

If we seek to carve a specific concept at its joints, following the direction of the "diachrony signpost" is one of the ways that will bring us closer towards the crux of this very concept. Moreover, by addressing it from a diachronic perspective we further gain an essential insight not only into its apriori and, consequently, apresenti, but equally importantly into its afuturi. However, in order to be able to future a specific concept, we first need to trace its roots back to the apriori, complemented by the analysis its apresenti. For, it is only through such a consideration and scrutiny that we will be able to arrive at a truly complete picture.

2. TIME, CULTURE, REIFICATION AND THE CONCEPT

*Time changes everything, and changes
change the way we look at ourselves, others and the world.*

V.Sutanovac

When describing a specific concept, in a systematic manner, "time" can be said to play a vital role. The plane it creates becomes crucial for it enables us to order the *apriori*, *apresenti* and *afuturi* on a single line and, by establishing the common ground between them, trace the ontogenesis of an investigated concept within the relevant epistemological microcosm. What is essentially attained by introducing such an encompassing temporal plane, is, on the one hand, a highly objective ontological reconstruction of the concept and, on the other hand, equally important reification of this very concept.

Blending these two together, we arrive at "temporal reification". The notion of "temporal reification" plays a highly prominent role in the life of a concept because it represents one of the factors that make it an integral part of the temporal fabric of a given society and its daily reality. The other factor is "cultural reification" which, by embedding a concept within the societies' cultural fabric, moulds it in accordance with the culture's predominant norms, furnishes it with a culture-specific character and culture-specific use, with the end goal being to increase awareness of the societal¹ concerning the cultural underpinnings of a concept at hand. Consequently, a deeper understanding of its cultural specificity will not only enable them to analyse this concept from a more objective culturally neutral stand, but also facilitate a more prolific daily use of this concept in different cultural settings. Such an omniscient stance, furthermore, liberates from an anthropocentric bias and provides one with a universal perspective on and approach to analysing the concept in question.

3. TEMPORAL REIFICATION

3.1 Apriori of L[E]SP : Language in action²

Providing an extensive account of the "Geist" of a particular concept, in as concise manner as possible, is quite a demanding task. What can aid us in this endeavour significantly, however, is adopting a diachronic viewpoint and approaching the matter at hand from a "perspective"³ that takes into account both the seemingly isolated *apresenti* (i.e. synchronic episodes) in the life of a concept, conjoins them with the *apriori* (i.e. diachronic episodes), and unifies them with the *afuturi* (i.e. predicted future episodes based on the former) under one encompassing notion - "Temporal reification". In this sense, if we seek to adequately understand L[E]SP as a linguistic concept, and future it prolifically, we need to thread along the historical axis until we reach its *fons et origo*. One of the ways to achieve this is by referring to the available seminal literature, which provides, in turn, sound grounds for successful reconstruction of the concept's ontogenesis.

Bearing such seminal literature in mind (e.g. c.f. Mackay & Mountford, 1978; Carter 1983; Strevens 1988 et. al.), what is put forth as one of the defining characteristics of L[E]SP is its "specific

¹ Authors notion referring to the "members of a society"

² Synonyme for "language in use"

³ Stemming not from the traditional Saussurean dichotomy, but from the view which **treats** the two temporal dimensions as "attributes of the noun "pragmatics"" (Kryk-Kastovsky, 2002: 7)

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applied nature"⁴. Though, in the first instance, the "specific" in L[E]SP might raise an eyebrow or two - due to the constrictive connotation it might invoke, from the point of view of the daily linguistic reality what it actually denotes is but a specific instance of language in action, reified by a specific socio-cultural context. And it is such defining properties that, on the primary plane, inherently make L[E]SP one of the descendants of the Kant-Morris-Bakhtinian proto-pragmatic microcosm. On a complementing, secondary, plane these properties place it further within the fabric of the more contemporary instances of this "in vivo" microcosm (e.g. Wittgenstein, Austin, Wierzbicka, Goddard, Verschueren et. al.) - i.e. within the world of "language in use"⁵.

This can be also substantiated by turning to further seminal L[E]SP literature (e.g. Swales, 1985; Hutchinson-Waters, 1987; Dudley-Evans, 1997 et.al.) followed by a more detailed analysis of the multidimensional image it had formed in the course of time. In view of the seminals in question, one of the dimensions considered to be the crucial onset point for L[E]SP was the revolution in linguistics. What this revolution instigated was "the shift of interest from the syntax and semantics of the utterance to its pragmatics"⁶, announcing an entirely new ontogenetic phase in the studies that made language its primary concern. A phase that would pay its due respect to the traditional and the formal, but place at its very centre the "pragmatic", the "in vivo". That is to say, the "language in action" and its key ontological constituents:

- a) "context of situation" (Malinowski, 1923; Bakhtin & Vygotsky, 1928; Goffman 1974, 1981; Duranti & Goodwin, 1992; Verschueren, 1999a, Kryk-Kastovsky, 2002) and
- b) "context of culture" (Malinowski, 1935; Wierzbicka 1991, 1992b, 1994a, 1997a, 2006; Goddard, 2004, 2004a, 2006; Goddard & Wierzbicka 1997, 2004; Kopytko, 2000).

Consequently, the effects of this linguistic shift and the need for a variant of language, which would adequately respond to the dynamics and meet the requirements of the post-second-world-war professional world, were, in fact, the two deciding factors that set the apriori stage for the emergence and consolidation of L[E]SP as a specific purpose pragma-linguistic entity.

3.2 Apresenti of L[E]SP: The Formal

Despite its "fons et origo", the conclusion one arrives at when referring to the seminal, and also the contemporary, L[E]SP literature (c.f. e.g. Dudley-Evans and St. John 1997; Gatehouse 2001 et.al.) is that the primary emphasis to a great extent mirrors that put forth in the second language acquisition studies. Namely, this emphasis has, so far, been "predominantly placed on the insistence on immersion of individuals into the formal microcosm of the target language exclusively (i.e. grammar, pertinent vocabulary, syntax, formal semantics etc.)" (Sutanovac, Doctoral thesis, in press).

What makes L[E]SP a "target language" (in the sense of SLA) is, on the one hand, its formal and structural nature which implies the need for it to be acquired as just about any foreign language, and on the other, the fact that the greatest majority of L[E]SP users are not, in fact, indigenous to the Anglo microcosm but are lingo-cultural outsiders. In spite of the fact that another of the "absolute

⁴ Meet the specified needs of the learner/practitioner, i.e. furnish the learner/practitioner with ability to apply it in different contexts

⁵ Wittgenstein (1958)

⁶ Akhutina (1984[2003]: 96)

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characteristics" (Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1997) of L[E]SP is the "focus on language skills, discourse and genres appropriate to these activities" (Ibid.), the overall impression is that the approach taken in addressing these aspects is, in the pragmatic sense, rather "partial" and "incomplete". This incompleteness is to a lesser degree evident, though still apparent, in addressing the notions of "context of situation" (characteristics of discourse and genres) and "interactional competence" (skills). However, in the case of "context of culture" this incompleteness is all too conspicuous. Namely, exclusion of such an essential pragma-kernel from the "absolute characteristics" can prove to be a major pitfall of the study and practices of L[E]SP as a mode of interaction. For, each L[E]SP practitioner inevitably brings a part of his/her cultural self into the process of linguistic interaction.

The ultimate success of this interaction "depends on who" the practitioners "are - both as individuals and as members of particular social, cultural and ethnic groups" (Wierzbicka 1991: 2), as well as on their understanding of the "other"⁷ as a unique socio-cultural being. Therefore, for the proper understanding and use of L[E]SP being familiar with its cultural foundations becomes but paramount. And one of the instrumental ways to accomplish this in a universally intelligible manner is by reifying the "cultural" (i.e. the notion of "context of culture") by means of an approach "based on the shared lexical-conceptual core of all languages ("NSM")" (Goddard, 2012: 1) and the "model that makes it possible to describe cultural norms and practices in a way which combines an insider perspective with intelligibility to outsiders, is free from Anglocentrism, and lends itself to direct practical applications in intercultural communication and education (Cultural Scripts)" (Wierzbicka, 2004a).

4. CULTURAL REIFICATION

Success of communicative interaction is highly dependent on the notion of "common grounds". If we observe it as a chain of meaningful communicative episodes/events, it would stand to reason that each of these episodes (i.e. situation) establishes a particular common ground that entails a set of different interactional aspects. Such different aspects need to be taken into account each time interlocutors interact. Given the fact that many of these aspects are variable in nature, it can be extrapolated that interlocutors need to adapt to each of these episodes, times and times again in order to establish meaningful and mutually satisfactory interaction. What allows them to do so with little effort are specific correlates of adaptability. One such correlate of adaptability which plays a crucial role in facilitating meaningful interaction is the "context". As pointed out by Verschueren (1999a: 75), "context" is not a vague notion, nor a passive one, given that contexts are constantly generated and actively constructed "as choices made from the infinite range of possibilities, for specific instances of language use" (Ibid.) through a generation process he refers to as "contextualisation". Following this trajectory, context - as a correlate of adaptability, becomes the integral property of language. The one that enables interlocutors "to approach points of satisfaction for communicative needs (1999a: 61)". As pointed out above, interlocutors constantly address different types of contexts throughout the process of interaction. Pursuant to this, for interaction to be mutually satisfactory, certain types of context need to be addressed first in order for the prolific common ground to be established from the onset. Taking this as our starting point, and keeping in mind that each interaction is, on an initial plane, essentially shaped by specific cultural values and norms (Wierzbicka, 1991), the "context of culture" as a key reifier of the culture itself, can be regarded as an initial stepstone, for it provides the interlocutor with the key to demystifying a) the "target language" in question and b) the manner in which it is to be used most productively.

⁷ In the line of "dialogism" as one of the main tenets of Bakhtin's (& Vygotsky's) "Theory of Verbal Communication"

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4.1 Artifacts of Cultural Reification: Cultural Scripts

Different approaches and techniques can be taken to achieve cultural reification. However, what must be kept in mind is that in order for such a reification to be truly prolific, and widely accessible, a universal perspective needs to be adopted. The cultural scripts technique offers one such perspective. That is to say, it represents "a powerful new technique for articulating cultural norms, values, and practices in terms which are clear, precise, and accessible to cultural insiders and to cultural outsiders alike" (Goddard-Wierzbicka, 2004: 1). Given the focus of this paper, important to emphasise is that the approach in question is based on a body of evidence acquired through decades of rigorous cross-linguistic investigation (started in the mid-eighties and continues to this very day), with one predominant goal - to advance understanding of speech practices from the perspective of the speakers themselves.

To reify a culture in a universally comprehensible manner, we need a potent entity, such as "cultural scripts" which "interface" more or less directly with simple ordinary language – in any language – and can be practically useful for the purposes of cross-cultural education and intercultural communication" (Goddard 2004a).

4.2 Language of Cultural Reification: NSM

In order to adequately address these purposes, the aforementioned artifacts need to be, in terms of meaning, formulated in a transparent and universally understandable manner. What enables this transparency and omniunderstandability are the insights and techniques employed in the field of cross-cultural semantics. These techniques are deemed indispensable because, in order to grasp the speech practices unique to a certain language (target language) "in terms which make sense to the people concerned, we must be able to understand the meanings of the relevant culturally important words— words for local values, social categories, speech-acts etc" (Ibid.). Therefore, what lies at the core of cultural scripts is a metalanguage comprised of semantic primes, arrived at through a detailed and rigorous lingo-semantic scrutiny. In more straightforward terms, semantic primes are "simple, "indefinable" meanings which appear to "‘surface’" as the meanings of words or word-like expressions in all languages" (Ibid). Complete list of the currently known semantic primes is portrayed in the form of the table below (taken from Goddard, 2012).

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I, YOU, SOMEONE, SOMETHING~THING, PEOPLE, BODY	substantives
KIND, PART	relational substantives
THIS, THE SAME, OTHER~ELSE	determiners
ONE, TWO, SOME, ALL, MUCH~MANY	quantifiers
GOOD, BAD	evaluators
BIG, SMALL	descriptors
KNOW, THINK, WANT, FEEL, SEE, HEAR	mental predicates
SAY, WORDS, TRUE	speech
DO, HAPPEN, MOVE, TOUCH	actions, events, movement, contact
BE (SOMEWHERE), THERE IS, HAVE, BE (SOMEONE/SOMETHING)	location, existence, possession, specification
LIVE, DIE	life and death
WHEN~TIME, NOW, BEFORE, AFTER, A LONG TIME, A SHORT TIME, FOR SOME TIME, MOMENT	time
WHERE~PLACE, HERE, ABOVE, BELOW, FAR, NEAR, SIDE, INSIDE	space
NOT, MAYBE, CAN, BECAUSE, IF	logical concepts
VERY, MORE	intensifier, augmentor
LIKE~WAY	similarity

Notes: • Primes exist as the meanings of lexical units (not at the level of lexemes) • Exponents of primes may be words, bound morphemes, or phrasemes • They can be formally complex • They can have combinatorial variants or “allolexes” (indicated with ~) • Each prime has well-specified syntactic (combinatorial) properties.

Put in the words of an eminent anthropologist Roy D’Andrade - the NSM “offers a potential means to ground all complex concepts in ordinary language and translate concepts from one language to another without loss or distortion in meaning” (2001: 246).

4.3 Cultural Reification in Practice: Examples and Insights

The aim of the previous two sections was to introduce and present the reader with the key elements of cultural reification, but from a more in-theory perspective. Bearing the focus of the paper in mind, the aim of this section (and those to follow) will be to furnish the former with yet more substance, and put it into the context of "ESP as a culture-specific language". For this purpose we shall consider the following set of Anglo scripts (Goddard-Wierzbicka, 2004), which express what is regarded to be the most predominant Anglo value often termed - "personal autonomy" **[A]**, the consequent cultural inadvisability of issuing overt directives **[B]**, and the availability of a culturally approved alternative strategy, namely, presenting the addressee with a quasi-directive message in the guise of a suggestion **[C]**. In NSM they translate to:

[A] [people think like this:]
when a person is doing something
it is good if this person can think about it like this:
‘I am doing this because I want to do it
not because someone else wants me to do it’

[B] [people think like this:]
when I want someone to do something
it is not good if I say something like this to this person:
‘I want you to do it
I think that you will do it because of this’

[C] [people think like this:]
when I want someone to do something
it can be good if I say something like this to this person:
‘maybe you will want to think about it’

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maybe if you think about it you will want to do it'

By observing the scripts above, a number of insights into the nature of cultural scripts can be made:

1) Despite the fact that not every member of the Anglo culture will personally identify with these scripts, their content is, nevertheless, something they are inherently familiar with, i.e. "it forms part of the interpretative backdrop to discourse and social behaviour in a particular cultural context" (Ibid.).

2) They vary with respect to generality and can be interrelated in a number of ways. For example, [A] may be considered one of the "master scripts" of the mainstream Anglo culture, and even though it does not directly concern either speech or the social interaction it nevertheless captures a dominant cultural attitude present across a wide range of cultural spheres and practices. On the other hand [B] and [C] do bear significance for social interaction. Turning to ethnography of communication in the tradition of Hymes (1962) "a master script such as [A] could be seen as stating a "norm of interpretation", while [B] and [C] spell out more specific "norms of interaction".

3) Scripts such as the above allow point out to the following - despite the status of a "global language", English is by no means culture-neutral.

5. AFUTURI OF L[E]SP: THE MULTIDIMENSIONAL AND THE INTERDISCIPLINARY

This final claim, furthered by the evidence supplied throughout this paper, implies that LSP in general, and ESP in particular (as a specific variant of English language and LSP), are inevitably shaped by the culture they are a part of. Another important aspect that must not be neglected concerns the cultural specificity of different variants of ESP. That is to say, each variant of ESP is intrinsically a part of the specific LSP culture, be it occupational or academic. Therefore, a two partite categorisation would not suffice if we seek to capture all the essential aspects of ESP. Hence, it is necessary to introduce a "tertium comparationis", a perspective which would take into account this particular inner embeddedness of ESP. Finally, understood this way, ESP essentially becomes a three-partite exponent of: a) language in use; b) culture-specific language; and c) L[E]SP-culture specific language.

Consequently, novel insights, such as this, inevitably point out to the need for revision of the traditional notions of the L[E]SP theory and its kernels, but from a more interdisciplinary perspective. This, in turn, provides us with sturdy grounds for furnishing the microcosm of L[E]SP with yet more communicatively relevant substance. Substance that will not only give L[E]SP a novel identity - the cultural self, people will be able to identify with easily, but also provide them with the necessary skills to negotiate their distinct cultural selves with the other interlocutor(s) from a universal common ground, via a universal language and in universal terms. In this respect, the following interdisciplinary model offers a good place to start.

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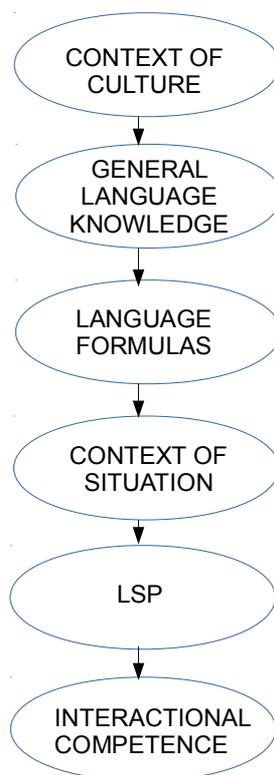


Fig. 1. Initial interdisciplinary model of L[E]SP

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A Constructivist Approach to ESP Digital Classroom

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“To educate is to guide students on an inner journey toward more truthful ways of seeing and being in the world. How can schools perform their mission without encouraging the guides to scout out that inner terrain?”
(Parker Palmer, *The Courage to Teach: Exploring the Inner Landscape of a Teacher’s Life*)

Abstract: The aim of this paper is to describe the challenges of implementing digital technologies in ESP classroom, and to emphasize the significance of the constructivist approach in ESP teaching and learning process. In today’s globalized and technology-driven world, universities require urgent reforms in order to transform the traditional paradigm of learning and to improve the quality and effectiveness of educational system. The goal of foreign language education is to meet specific students’ needs, and to provide them with necessary knowledge and skills needed in the competitive global market. Entering the world of global market, companies need highly qualified specialists who are able to move the whole society reform. So, to produce such graduates, universities must reexamine their foreign language teaching concepts. They have a significant role in providing new knowledge, and force the development and implementation of transformational solutions to global changes, because success will depend on a global outlook. To meet the challenges, we propose new approaches and up-to-date methods and media to ESP teaching and learning. The use of digital technologies in ESP courses can support constructivist pedagogy, because of their capability to provide an active learning environment, thus, to prepare students to construct and use their knowledge in order to solve real-world problems.

Key words: ESP, digital technologies, constructivism, learning environment, teacher/student role, assessment

1. INTRODUCTION

Considering the current trends in education, it is necessary to reexamine the foreign language teaching/learning concepts. New trends shift attention away from defining the formal features of language usage to discover the ways in which language is actually used in real communication (Widdowson, 1978). Entering the world of global market, companies need highly qualified specialists who are capable of using foreign languages “in the service of thinking and problem solving” (Cummins, 1981).

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As English has become a global language (Crystal, 2003), the primary means of communication at workplaces both within and across boundaries (Purpura and King 2003), there is an increasing demand for learning English for Specific Purposes (ESP).

Bearing in mind that ESP is a learner-centred approach, it is clear that it fits well with a constructivist theory which emphasizes the central importance of the learners “and their attitudes to learning” (Rogers & Freiberg, 1994). Central to the tenet of constructivism is that learning is an active process in which learners construct new knowledge (new ideas or concepts) based upon their prior knowledge through the interaction with the environment.

The environment creates engaging and content-relevant experiences by utilizing modern technologies and resources to support unique learning goals and knowledge construction (Young, 2003). Modern technologies provide an array of powerful tools that may help in transforming the traditional teacher-centered and text-bound classrooms into student-focused, interactive knowledge environments.

2. A FRAMEWORK OF THE CONSTRUCTIVIST PARADIGM IN ESP TEACHING AND LEARNING

Across the broad fields of educational theory and research, there have been found different interpretations, perspectives and approaches regarding constructivist theory of learning which states that learning is achieved by “the active construction of knowledge supported by various perspectives within meaningful contexts and social interactions” (Oliver, 2002).

Actually, constructivism implies a new kind of pedagogy where the emphasis is on student-centred learning. The term student-centred learning is associated with the work of Dewey (1966), Piaget (1968), Vygotsky (1978) and Bruner (1986), who contributed the ideas of transformation in language learning and development.

According to the theory of cognitive constructivism, greatly influenced by Piaget’s epistemology, learners construct knowledge and form meaning based upon their prior experiences. Piaget’s assimilation-accommodation model within cognitive-conceptual framework explains that cognitive development is an active process of acquisition and modification – a continuous process step-by-step of self-construction and discovery. Piaget’s constructivist classroom should provide a variety of activities to challenge students to increase their readiness to learn, discover new ideas, and construct their own knowledge.

Social constructivism strongly influenced by Vygotsky, has provided a new theoretical perspective in ESP research. Basically, it suggests that knowledge is constructed in social context, through interactions between people and particularly through their discourse. Discourse is central to relationships, knowledge, and scientific facts as all are rhetorically constructed by individuals acting as members of social communities. Vygotsky is particularly concerned with the role of language in thinking and learning. He considers language as a crucial tool in the cognitive development process for determining how the individual learns to think because advanced modes of thought are transmitted to the individual by means of words.

For effective ESP learning, construction of knowledge happens in a social context (such as a classroom, language laboratories), “where students join in manipulating materials and, thus, create a community of learners who built their knowledge together” (Dewey, 1966). Hence, Dewey proposes a method of directed living, which means that students are engaged in real-world, practical workshops in which they would demonstrate their knowledge through creativity and collaboration.

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The constructivist learning environment, according to Dewey, promotes principles of democratic learning by viewing the creation of knowledge as an interactive process in which students construct understanding based on their own existential experiences. Viewing social constructivism, it is worth noting that collaboration among ESP learners provides an opportunity for learners to share their understandings with others. This provides multiple perspectives to each learner and a negotiation process between learners which results in better understanding and learning. In ESP model of the constructivist learning process, the teacher becomes a facilitator (as Dewey explains), to help students design their own learning experience around their personal priorities, interests, and objectives.

Similarly, a major theme in the theoretical framework of Bruner is that learning is a social process in which students construct new ideas or concepts based on prior knowledge. Bruner emphasizes the importance of understanding the structure of a subject being studied (subject structure), the need for active learning as the basis for true understanding, and the value of inductive reasoning in learning. In fact, his research on teaching approaches encourages concept learning and development of thinking. The student selects information, constructs hypotheses, and makes decisions, with the aim of integrating new experiences into his existing mental constructs.

In addition, the study also suggests that ESP is related to situated language usage. Situated learning, as a new paradigm of learning, emphasizes the importance of learning in context (Duffy and Jonassen, 1991). Learning is a function of the activity, context and culture in which it occurs (Lave & Wenger, 1991). Brown et al. (1989) argue that knowledge, learning, and cognition are fundamentally situated in activity, context, culture, and situations. In this sense, constructivist epistemology explains that knowledge, learning, and cognition, as social constructions, are expressed on the basis of the interaction with their environment.

Jonassen (2000) explores the use of Activity Theory for the design of learner-centered learning environments. Activity theory emphasizes the importance of action, to support the learning process. Learning is considered an active construction process, not a passive reception of knowledge. It is claimed that conscious learning and activity (i.e. performance) are interactive and interdependent (Rogoff, 1990). It means that we cannot act without thinking or think without acting.

Recapitulating the main principles of constructivism, we could say that the emphasis is on learning (and not teaching). Learning is an active process which involves the learners personal interpretations created through experience. Context is significant (Perkins, 1991) as it treats situations and events meaningful and relevant, and provides learners with the opportunity to construct new knowledge from authentic experience.

3. TECHNOLOGY MEETS CONSTRUCTIVISM

The use of information and communication technologies (ICTs) in ESP teaching and learning is a current challenge forcing to rethink a number of educational issues, such as, learner's autonomy, collaboration, motivation, creativity, as well as the enhancement of cognitive power of students during thinking and problem solving.

Living in a world of rapid technological advances, a plethora of digital media, including Web technologies and software packages, are designed specifically for ESP learners. Digital technology has the potential to optimize interactivity and availability as a communications device, and as a classroom management tool. If used wisely, this technology could add relevance and meaning to ESP learning because it has the potential to increase student motivation for studying languages by letting them to decide on activities, materials and contents matched to their interests and learning

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styles, enhance the quality of work, promote access to resources, positively impact student learning, and promote student metacognitive skills (Heafner & McCoy, 2001).

Constructivist pedagogical principles coupled with appropriate technology integration show the potential for major improvements in teaching and learning practices. They together provide opportunity to make and remake the concept of ESP learning, and have brought new learning possibilities for teaching and learning situations. They can allow ESP learners to work to their fullest potential.

4. CONSTRUCTIVIST LEARNING ENVIRONMENT

Different views and definitions of constructivist learning environment have been presented by the various authors, depending on their focus and the nature of their projects. The concept of a learning environment has been researched extensively by Jonassen (1991), Wilson (1995) and Butler-Pascoe and Wiburg (2003), who focus on learner-centered activities and learner's experiences. As Wilson (1995) defines, a constructivist learning environment is "a place where learners may work together and support each other as they use a variety of tools and information resources in their pursuit of learning goals and problem-solving activities." It is the environment that allows learner-centred activities to take place where the teacher provides the students with experiences in order to develop problem-solving, critical-thinking and creative skills, and apply them in a meaningful manner.

Constructivism proposes that learning environments should support multiple perspectives or interpretations of reality, knowledge construction, context-rich and experience-based activities (Jonassen, 1991). These are tasks which have "real-world relevance and utility, that integrate those tasks across the curriculum, that provide appropriate levels of difficulty or involvement" (Jonassen, 1991).

Modern ESP constructivist learning environments are technology-based in which learners are engaged in meaningful interactions. The function of technology is to support and facilitate learning and "to encourage students to be creative, providing feedback about student performance and to analyze and reflect upon what has been learnt" (Jonassen et al., 1999). Digital technologies are powerful cognitive tools that may help in transforming the present teacher-centered and text-bound classrooms into rich, student-focused, interactive knowledge environments.

Butler-Pascoe and Wiburg (2003) propose several advantages of a successful Technology-Enhanced Language Learning Environment (TELLE) which have been found their place in the constructivist ESP classroom. An ESP environment that utilizes technology:

- provides interaction and learning activities representative of specific professional or academic environments
- provides authentic comprehensible field-specific input for language learning and facilitates student production. It supports development of cognitive abilities (thinking, reasoning, perception, "more creative and flexible problem solving" – Perkins 1991)
- supports collaborative learning (interacting through computers)
- emphasizes the importance and the implication of the learning-centred approach
- addresses specific needs of the learner (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987, Dudley-Evans, & St. John, 1998)
- facilitates the acquisition of language skills
- uses multiple modalities to support different learning styles
- provides appropriate feedback and assessment of content knowledge and English skills.

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Technology generates an interactive environment among learners, and between the learner and the instructor as highly desirable and necessary (Moore, 1989). He states that learner-content interaction is the interaction that occurs between the learner and the content or subject of study. The learner's interaction with the intellectual content can affect learner's understanding, the learner's perspective, or the cognitive structures of the learner's mind.

5. THE CONSTRUCTIVIST TEACHER

In an assessment-based classrooms today, the role of the teacher is no longer perceived as primary knower (Berry, 1981), the authority, knowledge dispenser and decision maker. Instead, the teacher is the facilitator of learning, guiding and supporting learners in the process of constructing knowledge. This new approach helps students take active part in their learning which contributes to their educational success.

Using Dewey's concept of education, teachers are described as leaders of group activities, who must survey the needs and capacities of individual learners and create the conditions that meet these needs. The teacher is a facilitator, one who "facilitates the acquisition of knowledge" (Brookfield, 1985). The teacher who acts as a facilitator of learning is seen as a provider of learning resources (Rogers & Freiberg, 1994), and as a person who simultaneously shares his/her knowledge with the learners.

Following Piaget's theory of constructivism, the teacher must challenge the student by making them effective critical thinkers and not being merely a "teacher" but also a mentor, a consultant, and a coach. Instead of giving a lecture the teachers in this theory function as facilitators whose role is to aid the student when it comes to their own understanding. This takes away focus from the teacher and lecture and puts it upon the student and their learning.

In Vygotsky's theory of constructivism, the teacher serves as mediator who coaches and encourages students to formulate their own level of understanding. The teacher is also a supporter, one who supports the learner by means of suggestions that arise out of ordinary activities, by challenges that inspire creativity, and with projects that allow for independent thinking and new ways of learning information.

In the Bruner's classroom, the teacher is the instructor who should try and encourage students to discover principles by themselves. The instructor and student should engage in an active dialog (Socratic learning). The task of the instructor is to translate information to be learned into a format appropriate to the learner's current state of understanding.

In short, constructivism requires a teacher whose main function is to help students become active participants in their learning and make meaningful connections between prior knowledge, new knowledge, and the processes involved in learning (Copley 1992). When designing a course it is important to bear in mind that the ultimate objective is to help students to learn as efficiently as possible. Modern methodology puts learner autonomy as one of its basic postulates because students should be able to continue their learning even after the course itself has finished. The fact that the ESP practitioner is generally a novice in these areas means that collaboration with both students and subject specialists is essential. Students bring to their ESP classes some knowledge of their specialist fields and the kinds of communication that go on within them, and this latent communication knowledge is important in a number of ways. Importantly, it means that ESP teachers need to negotiate their courses with learners drawing on their specialist expertise to promote relevant communicative activities in the classroom.

6. ROLE OF THE STUDENT IN THE CONSTRUCTIVIST CLASSROOM

The paradigm shift from teaching to an emphasis on learning has encouraged power to be moved from the teacher to the student ([Barr and Tagg, 1995](#)). “Student-centred instruction (Driscoll 1994) is a form of active learning where students are engaged and involved in what they are studying” (Brown, 2008). It is the student who interacts with his/her environment and thus gains an understanding of features. He/she constructs his/her own conceptualisations and finds his/her own solutions to problems. Learners are told about the world and are expected to replicate its content and structure in their thinking (Jonassen, 1991). Active learners (Dewey's term) need to be involved by participating, constructing and cooperating. Jonassen (1991) states that learners must be given opportunities to be active in ways that will promote self-direction, creativity and critical analysis of problems requiring a solution. Brown et al. (1994) affirm that “learning becomes a continuous, life-long process which results from acting in situations.”

Student-centred ESP environments support independent work as well as collaboration among learners. Collaborative learning is a technique designed to make learning a lively and successful process. It emphasizes the active participation of students in a collaborative learning setting. Students have the opportunity to discuss with peers, to present and defend ideas, exchange diverse beliefs, question other conceptual frameworks, ultimately, to be actively engaged in the learning process. Thus, a goal of collaborative learning is to shift learning from a teacher-centered to a student-centred methodology. Through collaboration and cooperation with others, students are engaged in learning that is authentic, holistic, and challenging. Curriculum and assessment are centered on meaningful performances in real-world contexts. As a partner in learning, teachers create organized and cohesive experiences to assist students to make connections to key concepts. By focusing on the role of the student, digital technologies, particularly computers and the Internet, support cognitive and metacognitive processes which enhance learning by guiding learner's thinking, and by helping the learner go through the problem solving, decision making, exploring, collaborative learning and critical thinking.

7. ASSESSMENT STRATEGIES

It is generally agreed that assessment has an important impact on instruction and learning (Gibbs, 1999). Moreover, assessment is a very powerful means to focus students on their learning. A student's approach to ESP learning and the quality of learning achieved by the end of a course will be influenced by the way in which this learning is to be assessed (Gibbs, 1999). Assessment is defined as “all those activities undertaken by teachers and/or by their students, which provide information to be used as feedback to modify the teaching and learning activities in which they are engaged” (Black and Wiliam, 1998, p.22).

Assessment, as the evaluation of a learner's achievement on a course, should be used as a tool to enhance the learner's learning along with indicating what has been learnt and to what level that learning has been achieved, improving the quality of learning where learners engage in activities and are given (feedback that will direct them to effectiveness in their learning, it helps students to know their strengths and weaknesses), and finally, the award of a degree or diploma. Traditional assessments would be hardly possible, if useless, as it limits students' performances. Constructivist methods, on the other hand, require students to gain a deeper comprehension of the subject in order to use higher order thinking skills.

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Portfolio is considered authentic assessment as it provides evidence of what a student can actually do. It is a purposeful collection of student work designed to show student's progress and achievement. It provides structure for involving students in developing standards for quality performance and it improves students' metacognitive ability to understand their own learning processes. It promotes integration of various learning activities and assessments, enhances awareness of strategies for thinking and producing work, promotes self-assessment, creativity, individuality, and uniqueness in the assessment of learning.

Feedback that students receive from the teacher is considered to be an equally important aspect to enhance learning. It can help students to internalize the standards and notion of quality to provide timely and constructive feedback, to help students internalize disciplinary standards and notions of quality, to generate grades which distinguish between students and/or which enable pass/fail decisions, and to provide evidence of standards to external bodies (Gibbs, 1999). In this way, students will have an accurate picture of their learning progress and will be more likely to achieve their full potential.

8. CONCLUSION

The paper provides a brief overview of constructivist learning theory and explores its implications in the design of ESP digital learning environments that are learner-centered, knowledge-centered, community centered and assessment-centered. The role of digital technologies is examined for its support in the construction of constructivist learning environments. If aligned, possibilities and capabilities afforded by technology will help to influence how constructivist beliefs about learning and understanding ultimately become operational in any teaching and learning situation. The discussion ensues to identify and elaborate on those instructional principles for the design of a constructivist learning environment.

Constructivist ESP model requires teachers as facilitators, guides, mentors and advisors, and, on the other hand, students with creative and critical thinking skills, self-motivated, self-directed, interactive, and collaborative participants in their learning experiences in order to provide high quality of education in the new millennium. Evaluation drives the learning goals of a teacher and students, provides students with feedback about their learning, and guides teachers and students to create appropriate learning tasks.

The picture that we have sketched provides a representative, though incomplete view of the advantages in constructivist strategies for ESP teaching and learning process in a digital classroom. Features of many of the varieties of constructivism remain to be analyzed that is still unknown about the future in the field of theory and instructional design practice.

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The Hidden Content in the Syllabus of English for Specific Purposes

- issues of culture and globalization

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Abstract: Today, English for Specific Purposes is a language study associated directly with a discipline other than linguistics or literature. In the present day concept of performative education, English language is seen as a tool for performing and advancing in some profession. Thus, the prime requirement to be met when designing and teaching an ESP course is for it to allow students better performativity in the global market economy. The authors are concerned with the fact that learning ESP is no longer learning a language as an ontological skill as it presumes that complex cultural, historical, critical issues are not really present in its syllabus. We examine this situation taking a critical stance within the framework of contemporary critical literacy instructional approach, constructivism learning theory, CLIL, and argue for raising critical awareness of this situation among students that would be a precondition for including cultural content into the syllabus of ESP courses.

Key words: English for Specific Purposes, performativity, culture, critical literacy, constructivism learning theory

1. BASIC LINGUISTIC FEATURES OF ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES COURSES

English for Specific Purposes (ESP) courses employ the contextualized notion of language learning, the basic aim being presentation of linguistic skills that comprise communication situations that students are to encounter in the professional surrounding. ESP is a form of foreign language teaching that is primarily students' needs directed. The turn towards learners' needs is immediate and urgent, the language is learned so as to achieve an end. Emphasis is on the total performance, both linguistic and non-linguistic (related to the content other than linguistic). Therefore ESP courses are to develop specialist language knowledge and professional communication skills, not just general language knowledge and general communication skills which include learner's accuracy, the correct use of language forms and fluency, getting the message over.

The syllabus of an ESP course is primarily defined in relation to the required performance skills and concepts, typically broken down into formulaic functional language. Formulaic functional areas in for example English for Science and Technology typically include language for describing a process, giving instructions, interpreting graphs, etc. This exemplifies the fact that ESP needs to balance content level that may be highly specialized and language level. The demarcation line between those two is delicate. But the specialist subject matter is only a framework through which the real content of English language is brought out. ESP is subject to demands of system performance, more

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oriented towards the provisions of ‘training’ and the inculcations of ‘skill’ and rather less concerned with what increasingly is denigrated as ‘liberal’ values and ideas. The ESP syllabus is driven by vocational progressivism and the discourse of competence and response to change.

In discussing cultural aspects of ESP we shall be relying on Lyotard’s (1984) critique of ‘the transformation of language into a productive commodity’ which reduces phrases to encoded messages with an exchange value, those are messages that can be stored, retrieved, packaged, manipulated and transmitted. He describes this in terms of performativity principle, a sense of efficiency measured according to the input/output ratio. In other words, there is a tendency to subject all discourses to only one criterion – that of efficiency. Performativity principle treats all language learning consummable. The concept behind performativity is the optimisation of the system’s performance efficiency. The claim posited here is the affirmation of Pennycook’s decline that English, and English for Specific Purposes in our thesis is not ‘ideologically encumbered’ (Pennycook 1989). Following this thesis, we claim that ESP like any other language ‘carries the weight of a civilization’. The decision to use a certain language means to support the existence of a given cultural matrix.

2. CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING APPROACH OF INSTRUCTION IN ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES

To achieve the desired efficiency, ESP syllabus needs to rely on the basic premises of Content and language integrated learning approach (CLIL). What is needed is the naturalness of the learning environment (Coyle, Hood, Marsh 2010), using the language in real life professional situations and insisting upon those. Students are more motivated when educational process is conceived as a kind of workshop in which the reality of teaching and learning is connected with the reality of the profession they are preparing themselves for. In this way CLIL provides students with a more meaningful way for language development which builds on other forms of learning. Language is integrated into the entire curriculum. Students are more motivated when studying a language integrated in a content-based subject. This way an educational bilingualism is developed.

Knowledge-building educational process in an ESP syllabus goes beyond just a focus on communication, discourse or a narrow view point in regard to the primacy of grammatical structures in teaching English language. Rather, this method is based on the scientific method or research and it focuses on teaching English in order that scientific knowledge can be better communicated to other professionals. Moreover, scientific knowledge can be better analyzed and critically examined. In the knowledge-building method of instruction, ‘content and context’ are very relevant and important aspects in communicating with other professionals and for research into scientific and technical forms of knowledge. Of course, the ‘meaning’ of the content is also expressed in grammar, syntax and related language points, but the essential meaning of the content is based on the scientific knowledge it contains. Therefore, knowledge-building ESP language program focuses on teaching and learning new scientific knowledge and the thinking process involved in communicating the content to professionals in similar research fields. It is not only based on teaching English language to students, but more importantly, it teaches content that is specific to communicating scientific knowledge to other professionals in similar research fields.

Communicative situations are involved, since they give a different dimension to language learning. Introduction of simulation games and problem solving techniques seems appropriate and of interest to the students. More specifically, tasks aimed at activities, which enable students to deal with situations related to their future employment. ESP is a knowledge-based course which utilizes a ‘learning-centered’ approach. Primary focuses are students’ competence and practical use of English conversational and writing skills as they are applied in academic, professional and other related environments.

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3. CONSTRUCTIVISM IN ESP

This approach is closely connected to the premises and practices of Constructivist learning theory as promoted by Jean Piaget, Lev Vygotski, Jerome Bruner, John Dewey. Essentially, this theory claims that human learning happens through experiential learning, practical experience of the content taught. This type of knowledge presentation leads to students' internalizing or appropriating the knowledge. Within the constructivist paradigm, the accent is on the learner who interacts with their environment, in that way gaining an understanding of it. Students cannot learn by means of rote memorization, but by 'directed living' whereby concrete activities are combined with theory. The learner constructs their own conceptualizations and finds their own solutions, at the same time gaining autonomy and independence as both personal and professional traits. Rogers claims that the most outstanding qualities of this kind of approach to learning are personal involvement, learner initiation and the pervasive effects on learner that it has.

Constructivist teaching focuses around the premise that true learning is the outcome of learners being actively involved in the process of meaning and knowledge construction. They make, construct the meaning themselves out of the information presented. In this way, constructivist teaching fosters critical thinking, students develop motivation and independency. The learning and teaching process is interactive and student-centered. Therefore, a constructivist approach to teaching is a developmental process. Applebee suggests that 'rather than treating the subject of English as subject matter to be memorized, a constructivist approach treats it as a body of knowledge, skills, and strategies that must be constructed by the learner out of experience and interactions with the social context of the classroom' (Langer, J., & Applebee, A. N. 1987).

4. METHODOLOGY OF ESP AND THE POSTMETHOD

Teaching English for Specific Purposes is always a response to the demands of the time and place. Methodology of ESP reflects this in a most obvious manner. Due to the basic premises and requirement of the ESP methodology, we find it reflecting and belonging to the postmethod approach to teaching.

According to Kumaravadivelu, the teaching of English as a Second or Foreign language has shifted beyond methods of teaching as so far known, towards what he terms 'postmethod condition' (Kumaravadivelu 2001). This term is surely obviously evocative of 'postmodern condition', and is so intentionally indeed. The move to postmethod, characterized by Content Language Teaching, Critical Literacy and Critical Pedagogy is yet another paradigm shift caused by the postmodern rethinking of ideas and practices. This paradigm shift is by no means to be seen as a solution (that would contradict the premises of postmodernism and deconstruction social theory), but as a revision, a (re)construction of the prevailing socioeconomic, cultural, and ideological forces. Therefore, postmethod is a manifestation of the larger area of postmodernism. It is yet another attempt to come up with a more holistic, redefined communicative language teaching. In Pennycook's view (1989) this change in the approach is a reflection of the social, cultural, political, and philosophical environment.

Methods of ELT as separate entities, for example Grammar Translation Method, do not fit all the requirements an ESP or EAP course need to meet. We can rather adopt the view of Richards and Rogers (2001) who propose that the term method should now be used only as an umbrella term that consists of approach, design, and procedure. These stances closely correspond to the demands of ESP. Namely, approach is the underlying theory of language and language learning. Design refers to how those theories determine the objectives, syllabus, teaching/learning activities, teacher/learner roles, the choice of instructional materials. And procedures are techniques derived from a particular approach

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and design, namely, the bottom-up planning. The need for a specific methodology that would best suit the needs and the goals of an ESP course is much in line with the position of the postmethod of which Pennycook (1989) said that 'the construction of the Method concept in language teaching has been a typical example of the attempt to validate current forms of knowledge at the expense of past forms' (p.608).

This is certainly close to the needs analysis, material design, and the overall approach design so characteristic of ESP. ESP professionals are fully aware that the teaching method surfaces only after there has been a thorough immersion into the students' needs, the desired outcome of an ESP course. A method is thus a social construction. In an ESP classroom, due to the inherent specificities, a priori set of teaching prescriptions emanating from an 'outer' source, other than the institution at which the ESP is being taught, is rarely possible. Rather, in an ESP classroom, a method is a posteriori rationalization of many instances considered, investigated and pondered upon. Coming up with an appropriate teaching method comes as a result of a multilayered research with a primary aim of being pragmatic in the preset circumstances. In that light, Communicative Language Teaching is laid great emphasis upon.

In the design of methods or methodology of ESP courses it is crucial to take into consideration that the shift in teaching practices has happened due to the fact that today's teaching principles need to be student-centered, that 'the postmodern learner is an autonomous learner' (Kumaravadivelu 2001: 545). In line with that assumption is the emergence and strengthening of progressive approaches, like the influence of John Dewey and Critical Pedagogy, Critical Literacy, the emphasis on learner centeredness, vocationalism, student autonomy, problem solving, experimentation, critical thinking.

Although it may appear paradoxical, ESP is at the same time in need of its own, particular situation idiosyncratic methodology, and that stance in itself is the overall guiding principle of ESP methodology. So, the postmodern, and for that purpose, ESP methodology, is both an integration of the paradigm shift in ESL teaching and an attempt to unify the teaching practices in a more holistic way. Postmethodology in its going beyond language teaching methods so far known and practiced, can be well understood as a new unifying principle of teaching methods, a 'method redefining condition'.

5. CRITICAL PERSPECTIVES IN TEACHING ESP

Critical pedagogy in second language learning focuses upon the investigation and the critique of the relationship between second language learning and social change it precedes and initiates. In the postmodern tradition of analyzing and demystifying the present premises of our civilization as 'neutral, natural, normal', this approach insists that language is never simply a means of expression or communication. This is a postmodern emphasis on plurality, a resistance to any overarching grand narrative of education. Rather, learning a foreign language is an intricate social practice that at the same time influences and is influenced by the identity of the learners, the social environment, complete social relationships with the open and covert issues of power. It is these questions of power relationship that govern a society, today the globalised world, that although often obscured in language research and educational practice are crucial in the concept of critical language education pedagogy. The conceptualization of 'critical' invokes the classic ethnographic axiom of 'making the familiar strange'. This critical stance requires some disassociation from the available discourses. This means distance of the researcher from the researched, the teacher/learner from their own teaching and learning, the reader/writer from their text.

In the light of all the aforementioned, it is imperative that the syllabus provides for a critical dialogue on the issues of language. Both lecturers and students need to address questions of linguistic

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and cultural identity in the context of the spread of ESP. It has been substantially proved that English is not simply a 'language', devoid of cultural, but more importantly here, ideological layers of meaning. In his influential book *The Cultural Politics of English as an International Language* (1994), Alastair Pennycook challenges the traditional views of English language teaching and applied linguistics as having nothing to do with politics and more generally, ideology. He insists that any academic discipline should be evaluated in terms of the vested interests supporting it and the historical context in which it arose.

6. THE HIDDEN CONTENT – (MISSING) ISSUES OF CULTURE AND GLOBALIZATION

All this previously said is done with the purpose of illustrating the thesis that ESP courses are minute and detailed preparation of students for the realities of the professional surrounding in a highly competitive market economy of today. Every aspect of the teaching and learning process is thus constructed as to foster future performativity of students. They are being prepared to optimally express their professional capabilities in the globalized professional surrounding whose lingua franca is English language.

Designed for that purpose, English is not culturally neutral. There is a question of how much English that is profession specific is in its semiotics an agent of ideology of globalization as it openly is a performative skill. Modern languages are by their nature performative. But, learning a language as ESP is performative and not much more. It definitely is not an ontological skill any longer, merely and simply performative. ESP is said to be 'at the forefront of EFL teaching and learning across the world'. The ESP learners make the greatest majority, and moreover, they all need English (for Specific Purposes) as on it depends their future integration in our 'global village' (Tarnopolsky 2012).

The question arises – given this predominant positions within the framework of teaching EFL what cultural content is transmitted through ESP? It is imperative that the syllabus provides for a critical dialogue on the politics of language. What needs to be addressed are the questions of linguistic and cultural identity in the context of the spread of English for Specific Purposes. Contrary to popular conceptions, ESP brings with it intellectual and economic empowerment, but what needs to be taken care of is whether as such it brings emotional and cultural disempowerment (Pennycook 1994).

In the fact that both Constructivism and Critical Pedagogy give way to the Postmethod with the emphasis on evolving a student-specific pedagogy, there is open way for indigenous practices, critical tools for empowerment through ESP education. The discussion points out the need for a critical dialogue on the politics of teaching ESP. As Fairclough (1995) observes: 'if problems of language and power are to be seriously tackled, they will be tackled by the people who are directly involved', and their success depends upon the 'theoretical and analytical resources' they have access to (p.221). What is needed are programs of critical language awareness that can help develop capacities for language critique reflexive analysis of the educational process itself (Fairclough 1995). The influence of social needs on the syllabus must be viewed more in terms of an awareness-raising critique whose aim is to identify the positive and negative aspects of the process of ESP education. This can then lead to developing ESP education a truly effective instrument of self-affirmation, student can then able to see themselves as real subjects of research and agents of change.

The opposite and the danger of not achieving this is Lyotard's vision of sole performativity. Without a critical stance, ESP in truth offers only layers of meaning that relate to performativity, that is a disciplinary system of judgments, classifications and targets towards which education in ESP must strive so that the students or any age participants into global market economy must be either 'operational or disappear' (Lyotard 1984).

7. INSTEAD OF CONCLUSION - ADDRESSING THE PROBLEM

The main challenge of these critiques of ELT/ESP is that they offer only criticism, not solutions. Critical approaches are often seen as abstract and impractical, and are therefore unable to offer solutions. Ellsworth argues that these criticisms 'fail to develop a clear articulation for the needs of their existence and goals (Ellsworth 1989: 101). However, that is an intentional stance of the ESP criticism hereby presented. There is only a sort of theoretical position from which individual teachers and students can develop their own agendas and strategies for understanding the specifics and the consequences of the language they are dealing with. The problematic issues presented here can be addressed by individuals developing their own critical understanding in their own locally specific context. No prescriptive solutions are needed, as they often turn to be problematic in the development of local practices. Thus the local development of critical pedagogies forms the first step towards meeting the challenges posed by critical approaches to ELT and ESP respectively, as teachers and students produce their own understanding of ESP and education, and their relation to wider society.

Critical pedagogy insists upon enabling both teachers and students to develop the awareness and capability to resist totalising discourses. In that it is essential that there are no unitary set of beliefs, textbooks, methodologies, of how to teach a foreign language. There is an endeavour for each lecturer and each student to form their own 'forms of resistance' to the unfavourable identity imposed through either teaching or learning ESP. Those individual 'forms of resistance' serve as sites of identity construction that allow negotiation of the often contradictory tensions encountered in the life in the globalised world economy accessed primarily through English for Professional Purposes, and local community. The gain of thus developed critical attitude is that students and teachers alike develop multivocal literacies which allow crossing discourse and community boundaries and achieving and preserving their own authentic identity.

This is directly in line with the basic premises of the founder of the critical pedagogy, Paulo Freire. Freire took issue with the prevailing positivist educational paradigm: positivism is the belief that knowledge exists, independently of the learner, as a body of facts that can, and should, be transmitted from teacher (and textbook) to learner. As Freire puts it: 'Liberating education consists of acts of cognition, not transferrals of information' (1970, p. 60). Freire advocates a 'dialogic' pedagogy, in which the learners become not simply the objects of the teaching process, but agents in their own education in which they critically address and in the same way accept the knowledge presented. In the case of ESP, that is an in-depth knowledge of the globalised world economy they are to take an active part in, through the medium of English language.

Students that will use English for communication with people from all around the world will certainly be in situations when they will need to be persuasive in the presentation of their own achievements, to critically examine, interpret and analyze information, to lead complex negotiations and develop cooperation. However, a question remains if they will be equally capable of expressing *themselves*. Because of that lecturers of ESP can create such a syllabus that apart from presenting English for Specific Purposes content, teaches students critical thinking, evaluation, systematic reasoning, abstraction. Syllabus needs to include topics on immediate but also global surrounding that students can comment upon. Such contents become crucial subject of consideration of critical pedagogists (New London Group, 1996; Cope & Kalantzis, 2000). With a syllabus like this, students, future experts, will not be in a position to decide between English as a discourse of power since its use allows for participation in the most prestigious economic trends, and English as an integrative discourse that allows for relative equality (Cox & Assis-Peterson, 1999). English becomes what its speakers make of it.

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Semantic Multiple-Choice Question Generation and Concept-Based Assessment

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Abstract: This paper present concrete implementation of automatic multiple-choice question generator, called OpenSeMCQ. It is based on Semantic Web technology and uses concepts from domain knowledge ontologies as a source for assessment generation. By using this technology we are able to generate tests for specific domain or for any custom set of concepts. The test creator is able to direct difficulty level of generated questions. In this way, is is possible to generate assessments that will test domain knowledge on a given level of understanding. Since evaluation of the generated questions is of crucial importance for adoption in practice, we present how the community based evaluation process is implemented. We provide explanation of how this can be achieved, show advantages and disadvantages of this approach, and in the end show results gathered from our experience.

Key words: OpenSeMCQ.org, Ontology, E-assessments, LinkedData

1. INTRODUCTION

Knowledge represents collection of information relevant for a world around us. It can be a global collection of information about all things in the world, but it's usually related to a small part of the world that's of interest for us. By knowing some part of this world we can interact with it and make it better suitable for our needs, people around us and future generations. This power, however, comes with a great responsibility also. By broadening our knowledge about some domain we make more informative decisions, make that domain better and build global understanding about the World we live in. Since today's volume of information is too big for one person to handle it we have split it in much smaller parts so it can be handled by individuals. Number of these parts is growing day by day and keeping a track of them has become very difficult. It is even more difficult to have a precise idea of how these parts are connected with each others. Finding pieces of knowledge that we are interested in is a challenge that recently has become a center of interest for many researchers.

In this paper we address the challenge by means of Semantic Web technologies, and present the OpenSeMCQ.org project (OpenSeMCQ 2011) as one concrete example of using knowledge from various domains for generating multiple choice questions that suits user defined knowledge boundaries. The semantic technologies enable us to exploit fine grain knowledge management with the goal of achieving scalable concept-based assessment (Papasalouros 2008). The concept-based assessment is a general methodological learning tool and its application on the second-language learning provides new benefits of learning language at higher cognitive levels (White 2012). Scalability of the solution is another very important aspect of the solution having in mind emerging educational styles pioneered as Massive Open Online Courses (Martin 2012).

The paper is organized on the following way: In first section we give a brief overview of Semantic Web technology. Second section shortly describes what ontologies and LinkedData are, how we can use them and what knowledge can be found in this format, and where. Then, in third section, we explain how automatic generation of tests is implemented within OpenSeMCQ.org project, discuss

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benefits of using ontologies for automatic test generation, present conceptual foundation behind our ideas, and show you how you can become a part of this project, and use OpenSeMCQ.org in your future work. Finally, section four gives some conclusions and pointers to future work.

2. SEMANTIC WEB, LINKED DATA AND ONTOLOGIES

Semantic Web enriches current Web in two ways: First it gives us ability to describe any kind of knowledge in a uniform publishable way. Second, it connects knowledge described in this manner into interconnected mesh. Without going into details on how that is accomplished in the rest of the section we give an informative overview.

2.1 Semantic Web

On Semantic Web, knowledge is described by using few standards that have been in adoption by practitioners for several years so far, namely RDF, RDFs and OWL (W3C Semantic Web 2001). Regarding the knowledge representation and reuse in an open manner required by the Web, *the Open World Assumption* is the most distinguishable feature. For example, in traditional data representation and management systems (either relational or object oriented), where the Closed World Assumption is adopted, statement “Pigs can fly” is by construction assumed false. However, in the ontology setting, we can conclude that “Pigs can fly” is false only if we have an explicit statement “not(Pigs can fly)” in our database. In other words, it is allowed for someone to consider animal cargo in aero plains as something reasonable enough to be considered as evidence that “Pigs can fly” is true. The fundamental constructs of the set of standard Semantic Web languages most often used for knowledge depiction can be described as:

- *Class* - collection of resources that have a common set of attributes. For example, *Person* is one class that aggregates all persons in the world, women, men, children, scientists, athletes etc.
- *Individual* – any resource that belongs to a *Class* given set of attributes. For example, *Nikola Tesla* is an entity from class *Person* hence he is considered to be individual of class *Person*.
- *Property* - describes individuals, represent their connections, and their values. *Nikola Tesla* has property *genre* with a value *man*, property *first_name* with value *Nikola* and it can also have property *occupation* with value *engineer*.
- *Restrictions* - are used to make rules for more detailed and more accurate description of knowledge. One rule can, for example, set boundaries that any individual from class *Person* can have only one connection for property *has father* with another *Person*, e.g. we are saying that any person can have only one father.
- *Annotations* - this are human readable properties that usually represent descriptions for any other entity. They are useful to describe to other viewers of knowledge what is meant by that entity. But they can also be abstracts, full texts, comments etc.

Entities from above, and corresponding examples, are given in Fig. 1.

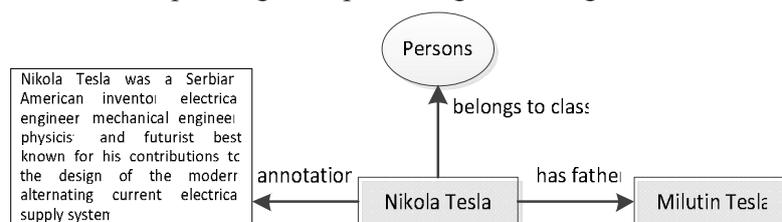


Fig. 1 Simple knowledge structure

2.2 Linked Data

Other big benefit of Semantic Web is technological foundation for connecting knowledge about entities from various sources. This is addressed by Linked Data standard. The Linked Data standard describes how concepts and entities from one knowledge domain are referenced to resources from another knowledge domain. Following previous example, statements about *Nikola Tesla* are from DBpedia (DBpedia 2008) (semantic representation of Wikipedia), but knowledge about him can be found also in patents catalogues, digital libraries etc. By using Linked Data all this information can reference to the same person in all knowledge sources. So, when one wants to collect all information about Tesla it can be easily done by following references, called URIs.

Today there are about 300 knowledge sources, called datasets, with 3 billion statements in the Linked Data Cloud. Fig. 2 shows distribution of concepts, by knowledge domains, in this cloud.

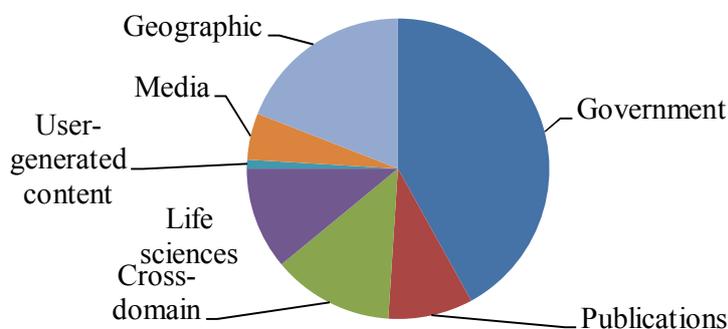


Fig. 2 Distribution of concepts by domain in LD cloud

This data can be browsed, downloaded, accessed, created and referenced in an easy manner. It is inexhaustible source of information, even as is at the moment, but many more other data may be expected to become available soon.

2.3 Ontologies

Since the data carrying the growing Semantic Web and Linked Data knowledge is too big for one computer machine to manage it, we need a way to extract some parts of this knowledge so it can be handled by a single machine and conveniently be constraint to a specific knowledge domain. In Semantic Web, ontologies are used for this purpose. They store formal description of conceptualization of a knowledge domain. In this paper, we consider ontologies as sources of knowledge. There are thousands of ontologies available on the internet. They contain knowledge from various domains and are usually freely available for download and reuse.

3. OPENSEMCQ.ORG

OpenSeMCQ.org (<http://www.OpenSeMCQ.org.org>) is an open source project aiming to create an environment that would enhance the development of automatically generated multiple choice questions (Cubric and Tomic 2011), (Tomic and Cubric 2009). There are mechanisms to include more people, from different domains, to evaluate the quality of the generated tests. It is also possible to generate tests through a simple user interface.

OpenSeMCQ.org relies on Semantic Web technology to collect data from any domain, to process this semantic data, and to generate questions for assessments based on user criteria. For easier grouping and test manipulation tests can be grouped in textbooks, usually by some topic as selected by testbook creator. After creation of test user can review them, remove eventually low-quality questions and after that publish test to the community. Test can be downloaded, viewed, solved, and reused.

Big part of whole OpenSeMCQ.org application is evaluation of generated test questions. Users are able to review generated test questions and evaluate their quality and in this way the system improve strategies used for generation of those questions. This process is explained in details in section 3.5.

Users are free to view public tests, by completing free registration on the web site they are able to generate their own tests, invite evaluators for tests, and get feedback from them.

3.1 Test generation process

Process of creating a test usually takes several steps. First, we must know the knowledge domain that test is created for. Next, we select target knowledge level that we want to assess. Then we collect knowledge about domain that we are testing, considering how detailed that data must be. Finally, we generate test by extracting data from domain ontologies and using some guidelines for writing questions. Note that semantic technologies enable social and cultural preferences of targeted audience for test to be naturally embedded into the process.

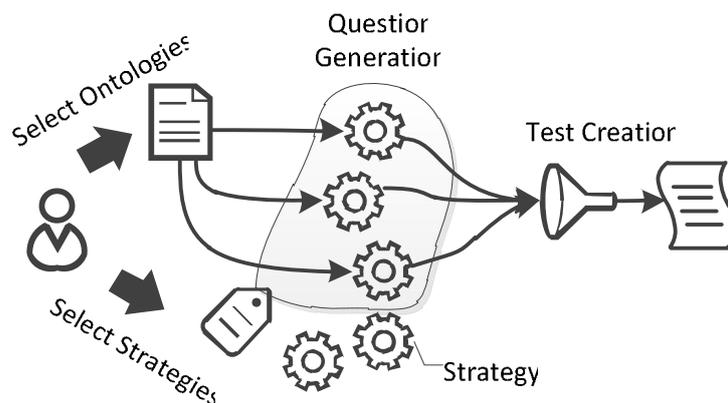


Fig. 3 Process of automatic test generation

OpenSeMCQ.org follows the same process for assessments generation. Test creator selects ontologies that are relevant for the target knowledge domain, selects strategies for test generation along with desired level of difficulty, and initiates automatic test generation. The process is shown in Fig. 3.

3.2 Collecting domain specific data for tests

Collecting semantic data and ontologies appropriate for test under construction can be difficult since Semantic Web is so big. First of all there are multiple ontologies and data sources for the same domain, choosing the right one can be a complex job. When choosing data sources you should know on what level of details this data describe your desired domain. There are several semantic search engines that can be helpful for the job, such as (Dietze 2009), (Hogan 2011), (Ding 2004) and

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(d'Aquin 2011). Some of publicly available ontologies are only concerned in describing how knowledge from domain can be constructed while others can contain knowledge itself. By fine tuning ontologies, by hand or by queries, you can extract just the right quantity and quality of data for your test.

Most concepts in ontologies have values and annotations in English language, while some of them have multi-language strings. User can use all languages, select subset of them, translate values, or change language after test generation is finished. For example if we are about to generate assessment for knowledge about art, but we are interested in visual art only, we may find that there are a lot of ontologies in that domain. However, we only want to test knowledge about what paintings can be found in what museums. We can go even further and refine our interest to paintings that are created between X and XV century only. Fig. 4 describes this process of extraction of targeted domain knowledge from whole knowledge in the world.

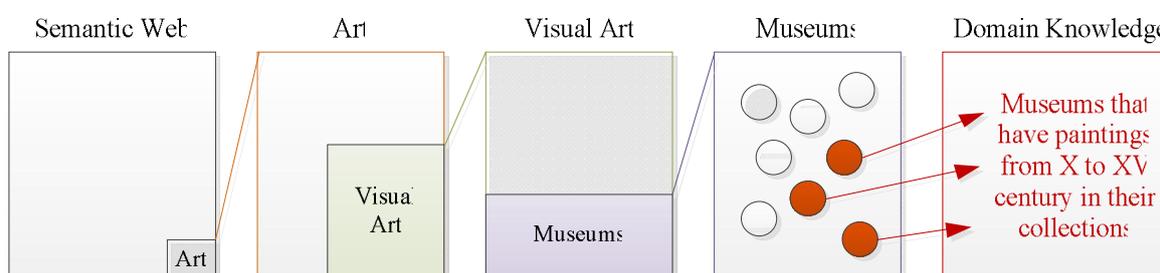


Fig. 4 Domain knowledge extracted from the Web

Now, when we have selected knowledge about paintings, their creators, museums they can be found in and all other knowledge that can be associated with them, we may eventually refine further to exclude paintings from certain painters, years, painting styles, etc.

Once the appropriate ontology is selected, it should be uploaded to OpenSeMCQ.org such that it is made available to the test generator. Fig. 5 shows this action, along with possibility to reuse existing ontologies, already uploaded ontologies by other test creators.



Fig. 5 Domain selection and importer in OpenSeMCQ.org

3.3 Question generation

Next step in test generation is to tune strategies that will be used for creating questions. Strategies are program components that take domain knowledge and generate multiple choice questions for that knowledge. Every question consists of a question stem, one correct answer, and variable number of distractors (e.g. wrong answers). Strategies are selected according to the algorithm used for generating questions and to level of knowledge that is assessed.

All strategies use semantic data from domain knowledge ontology for question generation. This is done by going through the ontology, looking for connections between concepts, switching

concepts in those connections so distractors can be generated, calculating similarity between annotations etc. Every strategy has configuration parameters that determine difficulty of the generated questions. One of the parameters is distance between concepts in hierarchy of the ontology. Fig. 6 gives an example of such a distance in classification of living beings. In the Fig. 6, red line represents long distance between *Mamals* and *Insecta*, so they are not similar and putting them in the same question will produce obviously wrong choice. On the other hand *Crustacea* and *Diplopoda* have short distance (marked in yellow color), and are very similar (they are both in the same level in the hierarchy), so putting them in one question would require more knowledge about biology domain to give the right answer.

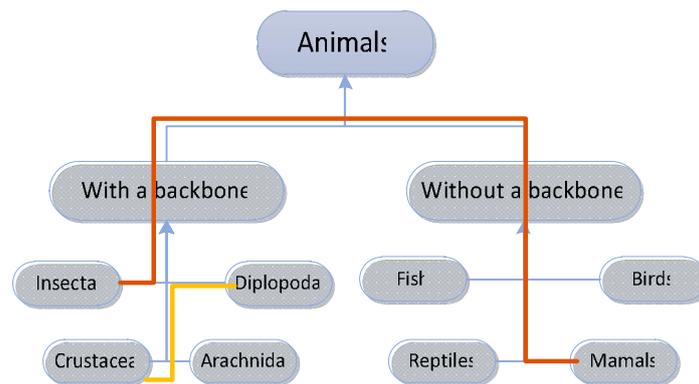


Fig. 6 Distance in knowledge taxonomy can affect difficulty of the question

One more interesting parameter that affects difficulty of the generated questions is scope of properties. We can create distractors by simply creating connections between concepts that do not exist in the ontology. But creating random connection cannot guaranty questions at the specified knowledge level. If we take into consideration the scope of the connection we can influence difficulty of the generated questions. Fig. 7 gives an example of knowledge in Art domain. Creation of question from different scope of entities (we have connected Composers with paintings) is indicated by red arrow. With yellow arrow we have created new connection from the same scope, but with different individual. Consequently, the question indicated by the yellow connection requires more knowledge of the Art domain than question indicated by the red arrow.

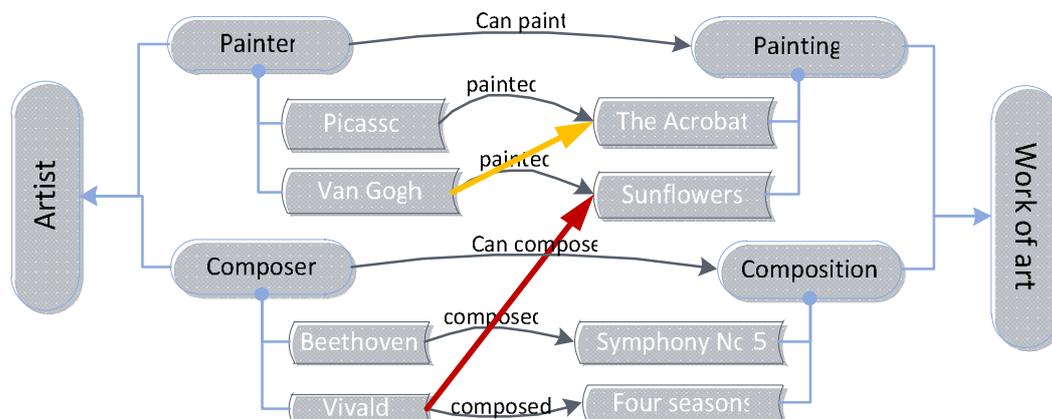


Fig. 7 Changing scope of connections will generate easier questions

Example of one question that can be generated from previous example is showed in Fig. 8. Answers a) and b) are generated using property scope switching (red arrow in previous figure), while answer d) is created using the same scope (yellow arrow in previous example). It is obvious that answers a) and b) are easier to dismiss then the answer d).

Which one of the following pairs is in same relation as *Van Gogh* and *Sunflowers*?

- a) *Vivaldi* and *Sunflowers*
- b) *Beethoven* and *The Acrobat*
- c) *Picasso* and *The Acrobat*
- d) *Van Gogh* and *The Acrobat*

Fig. 8 Example of one question

The next parameter that can be used for finding similar concepts in domain knowledge is based on plain text similarity between annotations of concepts. The more similar texts in annotations (similar keywords, grammar etc.) mean the higher similarity of the corresponding concepts. In this way, we can set desired similarity that we want to use in our test to get different levels of difficulty in our assessments.

The strategies can generate questions assessing different levels of knowledge. For different question stems and answers' constructions we can target specific level of knowledge that we want to test. Some strategies use simple semantic connections for their work and hence produce questions that can test low levels of domain understanding only. However, other strategies can use mix of different semantic connections to test higher levels of knowledge about domain (Cubric and Tomic 2011). We have grouped currently developed strategies by levels of knowledge that they are testing, and there are at least two strategies for question generation on each knowledge level.

Fig. 9 illustrates previously described tests generation on the OpenSeMCQ.org web user interface. In addition to selecting your domain and configuring strategies that will be used test creator can set basic information about test. Also, he/she can require receiving confirmation by e-mail after generation of the test would be finished (since generation process can take considerable period of time, even a few hours). The number of questions and answers in them could be limited by the creator such that the test generation process would be shorter.

New Test:

<p>Ontology</p> <p>Select: <input type="text" value="Music"/> download</p> <p>Add new ontology</p> <hr/> <p>Test info</p> <p>Creator: <input type="text" value="filipnis"/></p> <p>Test name: <input type="text" value="Music Domain Test"/></p> <p>Description:</p> <p><input type="text" value="This test can be used to check all levels of knowledge about music domain"/></p> <hr/> <p>Configuration</p> <p>Maximum number of questions per strategy: <input type="text" value="10"/></p> <p>Maximum number of distractors: <input type="text" value="4"/></p>	<p>Strategies</p> <p>Bloom's taxonomy Level</p> <p>Question types</p> <p>Knowledge <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> The most similar annotation <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> The most similar concept</p> <p><input type="text" value="The most similar annotation (Jaro)"/> <input type="text" value="The most similar concept (Jaro)"/></p> <p>Comprehension <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Property to instance</p> <p><input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Existing to not existing relation</p> <p>Application <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Concept to example</p> <p><input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Instance of sibling class</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Instance of parent class</p> <p>Analysis <input type="checkbox"/> Paragraph to concept <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Definition to super-concept</p> <p><input type="text" value="Paragraph to concept (Jaro)"/> <input type="text" value="Definition to super-concept (Jaro)"/></p> <hr/> <p><input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Generate test <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Send e-mail on complete?</p>
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Fig. 9 New test creation form

3.4 Viewing generated test

After test has been generated it would be available for viewing in Web browser. Basic information about test is presented as well as strategies that were involved in question generation. Note that not each of selected strategies and knowledge levels would generate questions. Some of them require certain levels of domain definitions in ontologies to produce results. For example, if Application level of knowledge is specified to be tested but provided ontology does not contain this level of domain description then no question will be generated. In this case, test creator should try to find ontology that has this kind of data and repeat the whole process.

In Fig. 10, one test in OpenSeMCQ.org is shown. The interface is configured to indicate correct answers. Also, semantic entities that were involved in question creation are shown on the right hand side next to the question.

TestBook: [Developers TestBook](#) Test: Wine Domain Test Evaluations Show correct answer [Evaluate](#) [Print](#)

Test details:

Creator: filipnis	No. Evaluations: 4	Description:	Strategies:
Created: 2012-01-30 14:11:55	Avg. Quality: 2		StrConceptToDefinitionJaro
Number of questions: 15	Avg. Difficulty: 1.75		StrDefinitionToConceptJaro
Ontologies: Wine			StrExistingNotExistingRelation
			StrInstanceOfSiblingClass

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Which one of the following response pairs relates in the same way as EdnaValleyRegion and CaliforniaRegion in the relation locatedIn?

- Corbans Dry White Riesling and New Zealand Region
- Central Coast Region and French Region
- Bourgogne Region and Napa Region
- Arroyo Grande Region and Napa Region
- Page Mill Winery Cabernet Sauvignon and Loire Region

Info about this question:

- Generation strategy: StrExistingNotExistingRelation
- The corresponding domain concept: <http://www.w3.org/TR/2003/CR-owl-guide-20030818/wine#locatedIn>
- Average quality: 0
- Average difficulty: 0

Which one of the following response pairs relates in the same way as SelaksIceWine and Medium in the relation hasBody?

- Puligny Montrachet White Burgundy and Medium
- Schloss Rothermel Trochenbierenauslese Riesling and Medium
- Lane Tanner Pinot Noir and Full
- Mount Eden Vineyard Estate Pinot Noir and Medium

Info about this question:

- Generation strategy: StrExistingNotExistingRelation
- The corresponding domain concept: <http://www.w3.org/TR/2003/CR-owl-guide-20030818/wine#hasBody>
- Average quality: 3
- Average difficulty: 1

Fig. 10 Generated test

3.5 Social input and test evaluation

It is highly unlikely to expect quality of generated questions to be evaluated by a single human. There are too many questions and to many different knowledge domains in OpenSeMCQ.org. So we have developed mechanisms that can aid the social community based question evaluation process. Creator of test can invite domain experts to evaluate questions generated by OpenSeMCQ.org for the test.

Whole process is implemented as a web application with intuitive user interface. Evaluators can proceed question by question and answer simple polling questions associated to each of the questions from the test. The evaluators' input would help creator of the test as well as developers of strategies to make assessments about quality of generated tests. This process is given in Fig. 11.

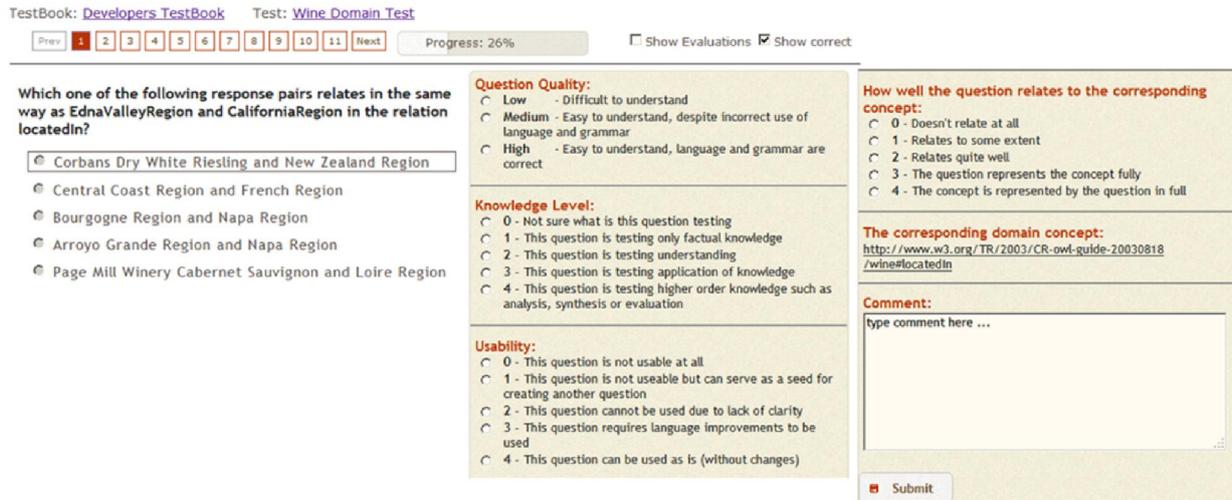


Fig. 11 Evaluation of generated tests

4. CONCLUSION AND FUTHER WORK

OpenSeMCQ.org is present almost two and a half years online so far. Currently there are about 66 public tests, with 2794 questions. Question quality is not yet on a desired level. There is still large percentage of the generated questions that are not suitable for real world use. However, with current 200 evaluations we are already seeing places for question quality enhancements. Interest in automatic question generation within community is significant.

Domain knowledge currently present on the Semantic Web is enough for automatic test generation, but tools for selecting subset of that knowledge that we want to use are not yet on desired level.

So, next steps would be to help users in extracting desired domain knowledge from the Web and automatically use it in OpenSeMCQ.org. This can be done be directly accessing semantic data sources endpoints, without a need for individually encapsulated ontologies. With this step completed, we could have more precise insight in quality of current domain knowledge and see what strategies should be first considered for improvement.

Most improvements in strategies can be done by providing some better natural language processing and by mixing various strategies in question generation process for better results.

We have proved that Semantic Web has great potential in developing concept-based e-assessments and that tools for achieving practical benefits are already here.

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Language learning strategies and styles: a needs assessment approach of ESP learners in Greek Tertiary Education

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Abstract: The present study has been initiated with the purpose to conduct a needs assessment in order to provide an account of University students' learning strategies and styles, as well as record their needs for receptive and productive skills development in English for specific purposes (ESP). The sample consisted of 92 students, who attended the Department of Balkan Studies at the University of Western Macedonia in Greece. A self-report questionnaire was used as the basic instrument, which comprised three basic sections: i) language learning strategies ii) needs in receptive and productive language skills iii) learning styles. The research findings indicated a considerable degree of ESP students' awareness on English language learning and a certain degree of flexibility in strategy use. It should be noted that the more competent language learners and the bilingual students showed more strategic knowledge, since they employed a wider range of more 'elaborated' cognitive strategies and declared a greater degree of metacognition in strategy use. Also, students perceived the need for training and further development of the four skills as of major significance. Concluding, it is suggested that raising the students' awareness for strategy use concerning the receptive and productive skills should be reinforced through the provision of systematic training. Since a single training method could not possibly fit all the language learners' strategies and styles, a multimodal and multicognitive approach corresponding all the students' needs should be employed.

Key words: language learning strategies, learning styles, awareness, language skills, ESP

1. INTRODUCTION

Learning strategies and learning styles contribute to determining students' foreign language learning process (Oxford, 2005); on the one hand, language learning strategies act as catalysts when employed by ESP students in order to facilitate themselves in the receptive and productive skills while on the other hand, learning styles are important factors which influence strategy use.

One of the major questions in ESL/EFL, which the researchers have been trying to answer, is why some students prove to be better language learners than others. Among the

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factors established by research as contributing to success in learning a second or foreign language, is appropriate strategy use (Griva and Chostelidou, 2011). Language learning strategies have been defined in various ways; they are described as “any sets of operations, steps, plans, routines used by the learner to facilitate the obtaining, storage, retrieval and use of information” (Wenden and Rubin, 1987: 19) or “thoughts used by the learners so as to better help them understand, learn or remember new information” (Richards and Platt, 1992) or even “special ways of processing information that enhance comprehension, learning, or retention of the information” (O’Malley and Chamot, 1990: 1). O’Malley and Chamot (1990: 1) defined learning strategies as “the special thoughts or behaviours that individuals use to help them comprehend, learn, or retain new information”. Oxford (1990: 8) expanded the definition of learning strategies and defined them as “specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations”. In addition, Ellis (1994) provided a definition of strategies, which includes mental and therefore, unobservable processes.

Oxford (1990), in her classification of learning strategies, draws upon the previous models grouping strategies into cognitive, metacognitive and social strategies (e.g. O’Malley and Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990; Peacock, 2001; Rubin, 1987) by expanding and classifying them into six categories, which are interrelated and interact with one another. These six categories cognitive, memory, compensation, metacognitive, affective and social strategies are grouped into two major broad types: direct and indirect ones. Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (1990) has been extensively used by researchers throughout the world, indicating high validity, reliability and utility of the research tool (see Griva, Chostelidou and Tsakiridou, 2011).

A number of variables are considered to affect strategy employment such as age, gender and learning styles. Studies (Griffiths, 2003; Griva et al, 2009a; Griva et al, 2009b; Griva et al, 2011; Lee, 2003; O’Malley et al, 1985; Rubin, 1987; Yang, 2007) revealed that successful language learners generally use a wider variety of learning strategies, in a more flexible way, compared to the less successful learners.

On the other hand, learning styles, which are constant traits associated with individual learners, “serve as relatively stable indicators of how learners perceive, interact with, and respond to the learning environment” (Brown, 2000: 114). Learner’s styles have been indicated to significantly influence the choices of language learning strategies (Li and Qin, 2006; Reid, 1995; Wen and Johnson, 1997), since learners use learning strategies which reflect their basic learning styles (Oxford and Nyikos, 1989). Also, Oxford (2005) stated that learning styles and strategies are basic factors, which contribute to identifying how language learners learn a second/foreign language. In considering the interrelation of styles and strategies, Brown (2000) states that learning strategies do not operate by themselves, but are directly tied to the students’ learning styles and other personality related variables in the learner (Alireza and Abdullah, 2010). However, Oxford (1989) asserts that “little research has been dedicated to the relationship between learning strategy use and learning style” (in Tabanlıoğlu, 2003).

2. THE STUDY

2.1 Rationale and objectives of the study

The present study has been initiated with the purpose to conduct a needs assessment in order to provide an account of University students' learning strategies, learning styles, as well as record their needs for receptive and productive skills development in ESP. Though limited in number, the studies conducted with respect to the topic under investigation in the present study, have indicated that there is a significant relationship between an individual's learning styles and language learning strategies. In the current study, an attempt was made to:

a) identify the university students' reflection on language strategy use in English as a foreign language; b) map the range of cognitive, metacognitive, memory and compensation strategies employed when learning English; c) explore their awareness of developing the receptive and productive skills; d) record the students' learning styles; e) identify potential links between learning styles and language learning strategies.

2.2. Participants

The sample consisted of a total of 92 university students (20 male and 72 female), aged between 18 and 30, who attended the 2nd year of studies at the Department of Balkan Studies of the University of Western Macedonia. All students were attending a course in ESP. The aim of the ESP course in the case considered was to provide the students with ample training in language skills and strategies, so that they can effectively deal with subject-specific issues of their target discipline. More specifically, the ESP course adopts an integrated approach to skills development along with extensive strategy training so as to meet the learners' needs concerning the target language. They were also learning a second foreign language at the University— a Balkan language among the following: Albanian (13.3%), Russian (44.2%), Bulgarian (19.5%), Serbian (21.7%) and Romanian (17.3%).

2.3 Research Instrument

A self-report questionnaire was administered to the students to fill in during an hourly session. Its focus was on raising the students' awareness of language components and strategies and to make them reflect upon the language skills, as well as to reveal their learning styles preferences. The questionnaire included 'Likert-type' questions: students were asked to choose from "much, fairly and little" for questions which fall into three basic sections: a) language learning strategies; b) language skills awareness (needs in receptive and productive language skills); c) learning styles preferences.

3. RESULTS

3.1 Strategy use

In the attempt made to record the strategies employed by the target group of university students, it was revealed that metacognitive strategies were of highest significance for an important number of the students (m= 1,158) in relation to memory (m=1,016), cognitive (m=1,092) and compensation strategies (m= 1,078) (Figure 1).

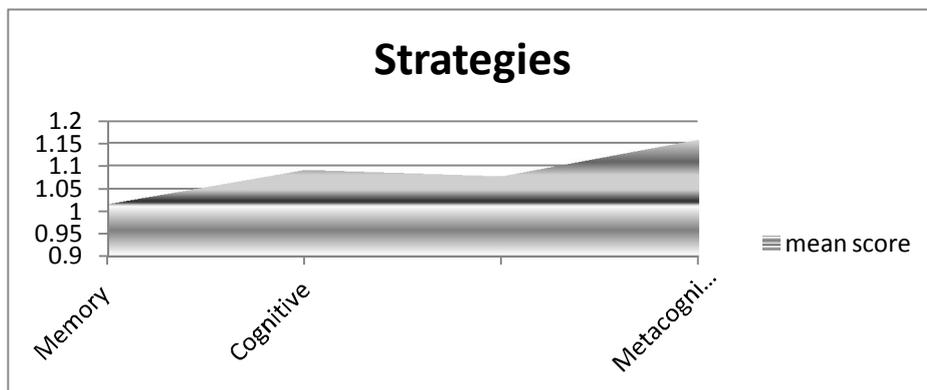


Figure 1. Mean scores of the total number of cognitive, metacognitive, compensation and memory strategies

Regarding *memory* strategies, ‘connecting the sound of a new English word and an image or picture of the word to help me remember the word’ was ranked as a very useful strategy by a large proportion of the students (70.4%). It is also worth mentioning that 67.3% of the total number of them showed particular interest in ‘using new English words in a sentence’ so they can remember them. Furthermore, a significant number of the students showed a major preference for grouping new words in thematic categories (56.1%) and writing new English words (53.1%) several times to facilitate learning (Table 1).

Table 1. Percentages of memory strategies employed by the participants

Memory strategies	Much (%)	fairly (%)	Little (%)
I say new English words several times	23.5	41.8	34.7
I write new English words several times	53.1	15.3	31.6
I group new words in thematic categories	56.1	23.5	15.3
I often revise for my English lessons	-	33.7	66.3
I connect the sound of a new English word and an image or picture of the word to help me remember the word	15.3	50	34.7
I associate new English words with other words that have the same root in L1	-	32.7	67.3
I use new English words in a sentence so that I can remember them	67.3	28.6	4.1
I connect the sound of a new English word and an image or picture of the word to help me remember the word.	70.4	25.5	4.1

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I use rhymes to remember new English words	7.1	18.4	74.5
I remember new English words or phrases by remembering their location on the page/ on the board.	30.6	36.7	28.6

Regarding *Cognitive* strategies, the results indicated the following: In their vast majority (70.4%), the students appeared to be relying on making summaries of information they had read or heard in English or look for words in L1 which are similar to new words in English in order to achieve better comprehension of meaning (53.1%). Moreover, dividing words into parts was marked as an especially helpful strategy for understanding an unfamiliar word (46.9%). In addition, the students viewed ‘writing notes, messages, letters or reports in English’ as meriting an important level of priority. Also, a significant percentage of the students (30.6%) considered ‘skimming a passage’ as a very useful strategy for getting the gist of it before reading it again carefully for more details (Table 2).

Table 2. Percentages of cognitive strategies employed by the participants

Cognitive strategies	Much (%)	fairly (%)	Little (%)
I skip the difficult parts	50	31.6	18.4
I guess unknown words from the context	4.1	20.4	75.5
I look up every new word	16.3	21.4	62.2
I translate word-for-word	20.4	36.7	42.9
I try to talk like native English speakers	36.7	38.8	24.5
I understand the basic ideas	13.3	37.8	49
I take notes and write down words/phrases	27.6	32.7	39.8
I first skim an English passage (read over the passage quickly) before I read it again more carefully.	30.6	26.5	42.9
I write notes, messages, letters or reports in English.	36.7	17.3	45.9
I look for words in my own language that are similar to new words in English.	53.1	9.2	37.8
I find the meaning of an English word by dividing it into parts that I understand.	46.9	18.4	34.7
I summarise information that I read or hear in English	70.4	26.5	3.1
I keep notes while listening	24.5	45.9	29.6

It is interesting to note that while the students were learning ESP, they employed some *compensation strategies* in order to overcome their limitations in language skills (Table 3). Among them, ‘making up new words if I do not know the right ones in English’ (83.7%) was most highly ranked by the majority of the participants. Furthermore, the students appeared to be relying on guessing what the ‘other person will say next in English’ (37.8%). Also, ‘using a synonym or circumlocution’ was marked as an especially helpful strategy whenever they are not being able to think of an English word (41.8%).

In relation to *metacognitive* strategies, ‘thinking about language learning progress’ received the highest percentage (50%) as the most frequently used strategy. It is also noteworthy that a great number of the participants showed a major preference for ‘organising and monitoring their writing process’ (45.9%) and ‘looking for opportunities to read as much as

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possible in English' (46.9%). 'Trying to find as many ways as possible to use English' (38.8%) as well as 'noticing mistakes and using that information' (30.6%) accumulated lower degree of the students' interest (Table 3).

Table 3. Percentages of metacognitive strategies employed by the participants

Metacognitive strategies	Much (%)	Fairly (%)	Little (%)
I reread the written text for evaluation purposes	21.4	24.5	54.1
I notice my English mistakes and use that information to help me do better.	30.6	28.6	37.8
I look for opportunities to read as much as possible in English	46.9	28.6	24.5
I have clear goals for improving my reading skills	3.1	38.8	54.1
I try to find out how to be a better learner/reader of English	17.3	23.5	59.2
Before writing a text I set goals and plan my schedule	12.2	16.3	71.4
Organize/ monitor my writing process	45.9	37.8	16.3
I think about my progress	50	20.4	29.6
I activate my background knowledge	12.2	64.3	23.5
I pay attention when the instructor speaks English.	-	46.9	53.1
I try to find as many ways as I can to use my English	38.8	17.3	43.9

One way ANOVA, which was conducted on the overall strategy use marked by the participants, revealed significant differences between Greek-speaking (monolingual) and bilingual students in relation to the total number of the following categories of strategies. More specifically, it was found that bilingual students declared that they employed a greater number of a) cognitive strategies ($F_{8,842} = -1.676$, $p < 0.005$); b) compensation strategies ($F_{14,605} = -1.551$, $p = 0.000$); and c) metacognitive strategies ($F_{8,930} = -1.993$, $p < 0.005$) (Table 5)

Table 5. Differences between monolingual and bilingual students in strategy use

Language Learning Strategies			
Strategies	Students	Mean	Std. Deviation
Memory strategies	Greek speaking	1.1595	.30608
	Bilingual	.9341	.28602
Cognitive	Greek speaking	1.0543	.20437
	Bilingual	1.1463	.30303
Compensation	Greek speaking	1.0248	.32058
	Bilingual	1.1150	.20005
Metacognitive	Greek speaking	1.0789	.39040
	Bilingual	1.3095	.43684

3.2 Learning styles

The results obtained from the Perceptual learning style preference instrument, as indicated in figure, fall under the following perceptual learning styles: a) visual ($m=2.540$)

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according to which the learners learn more through seeing and prefer pictures, diagrams, charts and demonstrations; b) auditory ($m=2.763$), according to which the learners benefit from hearing oral explanations, audio tapes, lectures, and class discussions; c) kinesthetic ($m=3.359$), which indicates that the language learners remember information well when they participate in activities, field trips, and role-playing; d) tactile ($m=2.859$), which suggests that the students learn when they have the opportunity to do "hands-on" experiences with materials; e) group ($m=1.776$), according to which the learners prefer completing work well when they work with others; f) individual ($m=2.663$) in the case when the learner learn best by working and studying alone.

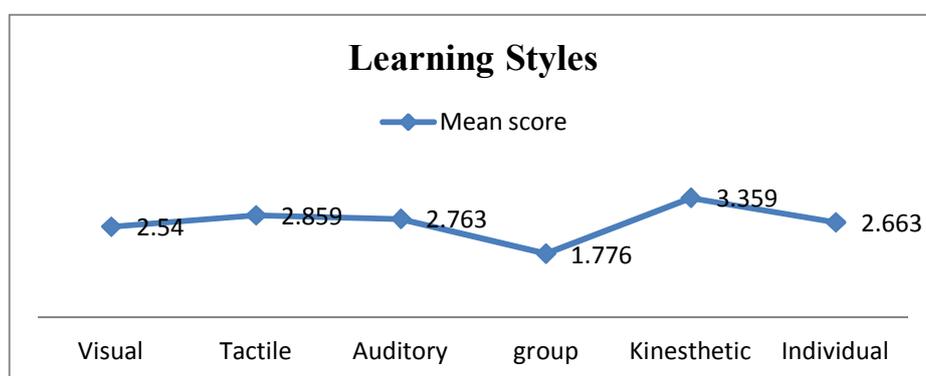


Figure 2. Mean scores of the total number of leaning styles

Pearson r correlation coefficient tests were conducted in order to investigate the relationships between the learners' styles and their strategy use in EFL. The Pearson correlation coefficient showed significant relationship between the following learning styles and language learning strategies: a) moderate correlation between auditory learning style and memory strategies employment ($r=.341$); b) moderate correlation between kinesthetic learning style and memory strategies employment ($r=.463$); c) moderate correlation between auditory learning style and cognitive strategies use ($r=.424$); d) moderate correlation between tactile learning style and cognitive strategies use ($r=.432$); e) moderate correlation between group learning style and compensation strategies employment ($r=.302$).

3.3 Awareness of language skills development

3.3.1 Reading skills development

With respect to reading skills, the majority of the students (52%) viewed 'reading comprehension of ESP texts' as meriting a high level of training priority. In addition, a significant percentage of the students (29.6%) stated a high practice need in the 'skimming a text' sub-skill; that is, being able to understand the gist of a text. They also declared their need for practice in developing reading rate (23.5%). Nevertheless, a smaller percentage of the students showed high preference for 'reading texts for pronunciation purposes' (15.3%) and the 'scanning a text' sub-skill; that is, being able to identify specific information in a text (13.3%).

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3.3.2 Writing skills development

Concerning the development of writing skills, most of the students stated that they are in need for practice into either ‘developing arguments’ (46.9%) or summarizing an ESP text (41.8%). In addition, the participants were fully in agreement concerning the practice and development of composing an ESP text (34.7%) and ‘selecting appropriate vocabulary’ (32.5%), while composing a piece of writing. On the other hand, ‘writing short or full answers’ was a least favoured sub-skill selected by 24.5% of the total sample, along with ‘constructing a meaningful paragraph’ which was selected by a smaller number of the students (23.5%), who expressed their need to be provided with practice in developing this sub-skill.

3.3.3 Listening skills development

In terms of the processes related to ‘listening skills’, a significant number of the target group of students showed interest in getting trained in ‘understanding a lecture in English’ (53.1%) and in ‘understanding basic parts of a listening text’ (39.8%). On the contrary, the students scored lower percentages on ‘scanning a listening text’ in order to find specific information (28.6%) and on ‘listening for task completion purposes’ (27.6%), expressing less need in being trained in the specific area.

3.3.4 Speaking skills development

In relation to ‘speaking skills’, the majority of the students viewed ‘fluency in speaking’ high (59.4%) as well as ‘giving presentations in class’ (54.1%) as meriting an important level of training priority. A great part of the students also ranked their need in developing communicative skills for professional purposes (50%). In addition, ‘being able to interact’ (44.9%) and ‘asking for specific information’ (41.6%) were considered as important areas to be developed.

Two tests on the respective answers of the participants found significant differences between Greek-speaking (monolingual) and bilingual students in relation to their awareness of developing a) reading skills ($F_{7,423} = 2.995$, $p < 0.050$) and b) writing skills in ESP ($F_{4,483} = 1.876$, $p < 0.050$).

Table 6. Differences between monolingual and bilingual students in Language skills development

Language skills development			
Language skills	Students	Mean	Std. Deviation
Reading	Greek speaking	1,0913	,56992
	Bilingual	1,4000	,35214
Writing	Greek speaking	1,0087	,52992
	Bilingual	1,2390	,61517
Listening	Greek speaking	1,1848	,55636
	Bilingual	1,0976	,61206
Speaking	Greek speaking	1,3095	,56016
	Bilingual	1,3943	,58066

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The Pearson correlation coefficient showed a significant relationship between the following learning styles and students' awareness in language skills development: a) weak correlation between auditory learning style and awareness of listening skills development ($r=.282$); b) weak correlation between tactile learning style and awareness of listening skills development ($r=.208$); c) weak correlation between auditory learning style and awareness of speaking skills development ($r=.332$); d) weak correlation between tactile learning style and awareness of speaking skills development ($r=.263$); e) weak correlation between kinesthetic learning style and awareness of speaking skills development ($r=.330$).

4. CONCLUDING REMARKS

The research findings indicated a considerable degree of ESP students' awareness on English language learning and a certain degree of flexibility in strategy use. In total, the results showed that learning styles had a moderate influence on the learning strategy use. These results do not support the previous studies (see Wen and Johnson, 1997). Among the four categories of learning strategies, there is a significant impact of tactile learning styles on cognitive strategy and auditory and kinesthetic style on memory strategies, as well as group learning style on compensation strategy use. Moreover, it was found that learners with auditory learning style expressed their need for developing listening and speaking skills as well as learners with kinesthetic learning style expressed their need for developing speaking skills. It should be noted that the bilingual students showed more strategic knowledge since they employed a wider range of more 'elaborated' cognitive strategies and declared a greater degree of metacognition in strategy use.

It is of vital importance for instructors and course designers to understand and explore their students' learning styles and language learning strategies. Identifying and analyzing learning styles and language strategies could help determine a particular learner's ability and willingness to participate in language learning within a multimodal and multicognitive framework. Furthermore, recording and knowing the students' general preference tendencies would enable course designers to produce multisensory materials which match students' learning styles and create a variety of learning situations which help the students employ beneficial strategies.

In any case, it should not be ignored that effective language teaching and learning can only be achieved when ESP tutors are aware of their students' learning styles along with their needs in terms of learning strategy use. Moreover, it is suggested that raising the students' awareness for strategy use concerning the receptive and productive skills should be reinforced through the provision of systematic training embedded in the regular ESP courses. Since a single training method could not possibly fit all the language learners' strategies and styles, a multimodal and multicognitive approach corresponding to all the students' needs should be employed.

Concluding, it is important that further research be conducted concerning how learning styles influence language learning strategy use of students who attend ESP courses with the aim to provide efficient training. Such research should involve a considerably higher number of

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participants and be ideally conducted longitudinally so as to produce findings of high validity and reliability which are easily generalizable.

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The need for change: English language classes to be based on learners' needs

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Abstract: The subject of the paper is an overview of main problems connected with teaching English at university level, focusing on English language teaching at Slobomir P University. English language teaching at this university is in some ways different from what we think it should be. Students at five faculties of the University of non-English majors with different levels of English proficiency have foreign language on the curricula as an obligatory subject for four years. But, the English is only learned as EFL, despite the fact that there is Law faculty, Faculty of Information Technology, Academy of Arts - design and graphics Department, Faculty of economics and Fiscal academy. All those students should learn ESP and should be divided into different groups according to their needs. But, the reality is quite different. They are attending English language classes as a mixed group, usually in an overcrowded classroom. We think one of the solutions in such situation is first to motivate the teachers to use teaching materials and methodology determined by the interests, the real needs and the previous knowledge of the learners. In this way, the language would not be the object of learning, but the product of interaction between the learner and the real world. For this study we have taken a total of 132 students and 5 English language teachers. Data were collected by the means of questionnaires on students' need. The answers of both students and teachers are of extreme importance to us since they help locate the positive sides and the main obstacles that need to be overcome. Also, they help us show the importance of emphasizing the real needs of the students, not the importance of revealing the knowledge of the teacher.

Key words: ESP, students' needs, teaching English at university level

1. INTRODUCTION

The groups of students studying to become economists, engineers, designers, lawyers and tax officers at Slobomir P University are mixed-level groups. Some of them have an advanced level of language proficiency, others have studied English for a number of years but they are mostly false beginners. They have English as an obligatory subject for four years, but they are not divided into different groups according to their needs and future specialization. Language curriculum is dominated by the systematic study of grammar and the regular carrying out of translation exercises into and out of language.

We think that learner-centred approach¹ where students and their learning needs and styles are the most important factor in classroom would be the best solution for the learners to become more motivated to learn because they will become aware of the fact that the knowledge they gain on the course will help their careers and influence their professional lives. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) state "Tell me what you need English for and I will tell you the English that you need" (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987: 8), so it can

¹ This approach is one of the guiding principles of ESP.

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be said that this statement presents the most important characteristic of ESP courses – the focus on needs. The language syllabus and organization of the classes and groups should become a whole new ball game. English language teachers and students must cooperate, but we think the teachers are the driving force for students' success.

2. CREATING SYLLABUS DESIGNED ON NEEDS

Due to the fact that the students learn General English in mixed groups, it can be said that the first step is on the teachers – to change the present curriculum and develop one based on learners' interests and occupation. Hutchinson and Waters note that the difference between the ESP and General English approach is "in theory nothing, in practice a great deal" (1987: 53). It seems to us that some teachers even today rarely conduct a needs analysis to find out what is really necessary for the students. At this university, the class organization has to be changed in a way that the students should attend English classes only with the students of the same major. The intensive teaching of grammar, vocabulary, translation should concentrate only on those items which students actually need. If the syllabus is based on the needs of the students, it is likely to be motivating for learners, who see the obvious relevance of what they are studying. As students often have restricted time to learn English, it makes sense to teach them only the English they need.

Teachers at this University are the ones to create a syllabus which will meet the needs of the learners. It is obvious that if they are to be the ones responsible for developing the curriculum, they need the time, the skills and the support to do so and it is not always easy. "ESP teachers find themselves in a situation where they are expected to produce a course that exactly matches the needs of a group of learners, but are expected to do so with no, or very limited, preparation time" (Johns, 1990: 91). It is obvious that the teachers need support and time.

In order to establish what the learners are expected to be like at the beginning of language course, it should be used present situation analysis (PSA), which can be carried out by means of established placement tests. Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998: 125) state that "a PSA estimates strengths and weaknesses in language, skills, learning experiences." If the destination point to which the students need to get is to be established, first the starting point has to be defined which is provided by means of PSA.

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1. Participants

The subjects who participated in the present study were 132 university students (80 males and 52 females). Their age ranged from 20 to 25. The percent of students studying Graphics and design was 9,1%, the percent of students of Law faculty was 31,8%, students studying Information technologies 20,5%, the percent of students studying Economics was 18,2%, and Fiscal academy 20,5%. Additionally, five teachers who were teaching English to the subjects also filled the short questionnaire about the questions of the study.

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3.2. Procedure

Student questionnaire was developed by the researcher based on the existing instruments (Bacha, N. N., and Bahous, R., 2008). The questionnaire with 6 questions was administered at the closing minutes of the classes. The participants received oral instruction about how to complete the questionnaire. The data obtained from the student questionnaire were analyzed using SPSS. The main points discovered by analyzing the teachers and the students' responses are summarized in the following part of the paper.

3.3. Results of the student questionnaire

In order to answer the first research question of the student questionnaire (*Does the learning material offer you enough information?*), the subjects' responses were analyzed. This question required the subjects to answer with simple responses, *yes* or *no*. Fig. 1 shows the percentage of rankings by the sample.

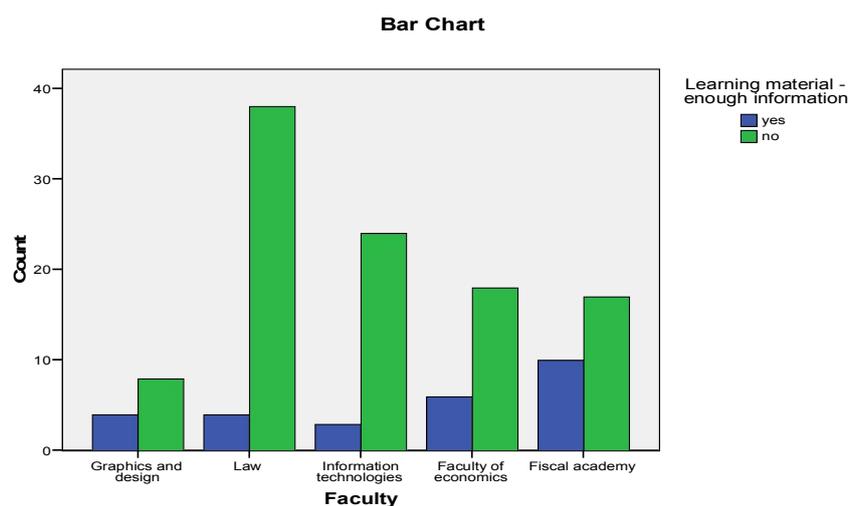


Fig. 1. Results of the first question of the questionnaire

A great number of the students of all majors (total 79,5%) expressed their discontent with the information English language learning material provides. Only 20,5% of the students think that the current English language learning material can respond to their needs and offer them enough information about their future occupation. The negative attitude of the students represents how far the materials are from the needs and interests of these students. A continuous assessment of learners' needs by administering questionnaires can suggest an overview and redesign of the syllabus. The teachers at the University should focus on ways of promoting skills, which encourage and enable learners to respond to different day-to-day situations and react properly in special circumstances.

The second research question was designed to elicit the students' most important language skill to their major. As the results in the Table 2 reveal, total 91 (68,9%) students of all majors answered that all language skills (reading, writing, speaking, listening) are important to them equally. Four students of Graphics and design ranked writing as the most essential needs, for 7 students of Law speaking is the

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most important language skill, 4 students of Information technologies wrote that reading is the most essential need for them, for 6 students of Economics and of 5 students of Fiscal Academy speaking is the most important. The remaining answers of students can be seen in Table 1.

TABLE 1 Results of the second question of the questionnaire

		The most important skill					Total
		reading	writing	speaking	listening	all	
Faculty	Graphics and design	0	4	1	0	7	12
	Law	1	2	7	1	31	42
	Information technologies	4	2	0	0	21	27
	Faculty of economics	2	3	6	0	13	24
	Fiscal academy	1	1	5	1	19	27
Total		8	12	19	2	91	132

If we summarise the total percentage of all students' answers, it can be said that speaking was ranked the second necessary skill for achieving success in students' academic studies and for success in their future jobs (14,4%), the third is writing (9,1%), reading (6,1%) and listening (1,5%) were ranked the fourth and fifth. It can be concluded that teachers should provide opportunities for the students to practice English in the classroom and to develop all skills in a variety of formats in order to strengthen their communication skills.

Table 2 shows the results of the third question of the student questionnaire (*The learning material and methodology the teacher uses is based on your interests or the previous knowledge?*). The researcher used this question as a part of the questionnaire to examine the degree to which the material meets students' English needs. As it can be seen, total 67 students (50,8%) answered that the material and methodology is based on their previous knowledge, 24 students (18,2%) wrote that it is based on their interests, and 41 students (31,1%) think it is based both on their interests and the previous knowledge.

TABLE 2 Results of the third question of the questionnaire

		The material and methodology based on			Total
		interests	the previous knowledge	both	
Faculty	Graphics and design	3	6	3	12
	Law	6	25	11	42
	Information technologies	9	9	9	27
	Faculty of economics	3	11	10	24
	Fiscal academy	3	16	8	27
Total		24	67	41	132

Although higher percentage of the students (50,8%) did not see the materials based on their interests, maybe teachers should involve some specialist articles and texts and improve the learning material.

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Students' interests to learn new expressions connected with their occupation were evaluated by analyzing their responses to the fourth question of the questionnaire. The participants showed great interest in learning expressions connected with their occupation, which is presented in Fig. 2 below. 94,7 % of the students have a positive attitude towards learning expressions connected with their occupation, while only 5,3% of the students is not interested in learning them.

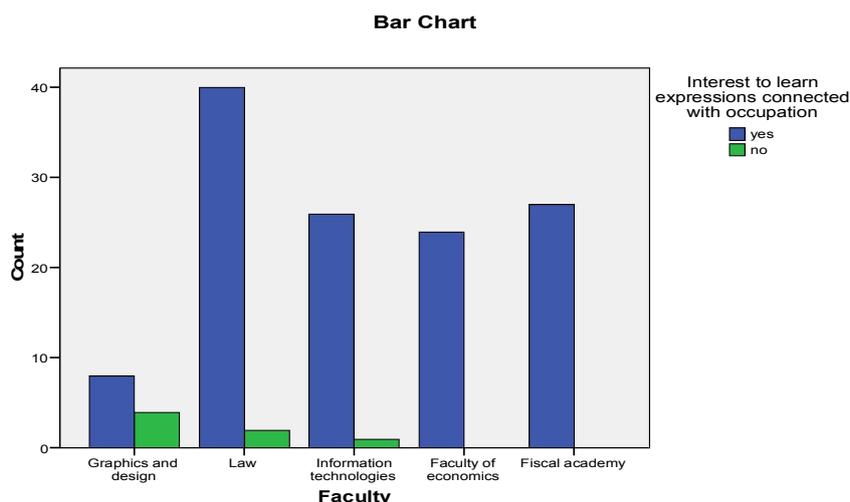


Fig. 2. Results of the fourth question of the questionnaire

The above presented percentages of students' positive answers show that they feel a need for ESP course. This positive attitude towards learning new expressions connected with students' future occupation can be an indicator that the ESP course with materials responsive to the needs and interests of students is required at this University.

In order to answer the fifth question of the student questionnaire, we analyzed the students' responses to the question *Should students be divided into groups according to their needs?* Total 68,2% of the students, as it can be seen in the Table 3, think they should attend English language classes with the students of the same occupation, needs and interests, while 31,8% of them think they shouldn't.

TABLE 3 Results of the fifth question of the questionnaire

		Should students be divided into groups according to needs		Total
		yes	no	
Faculty	Graphics and design	8	4	12
	Law	35	7	42
	Information technologies	18	9	27
	Faculty of economics	17	7	24
	Fiscal academy	12	15	27
Total		90	42	132

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We find the reason for not having more positive answers in the fact that the students are not completely aware of the importance of their needs and of the necessity to analyze them because they haven't been introduced to ESP and their needs don't seem so much important to them as they should. Also, students are not reliable sources of information about their own needs if they are relatively unfamiliar with the job they are to perform.

Fig. 3 presents the results of the last question *Do you think English is the language of opportunity and employment?* The question was designed to elicit the participants' opinions about English language and its importance for their future. In this way, the researcher wanted to get a deeper insight of the students' motivation – if they see English as the language of employment they may be more motivated to learn it because the instrumental motivation will prevail.

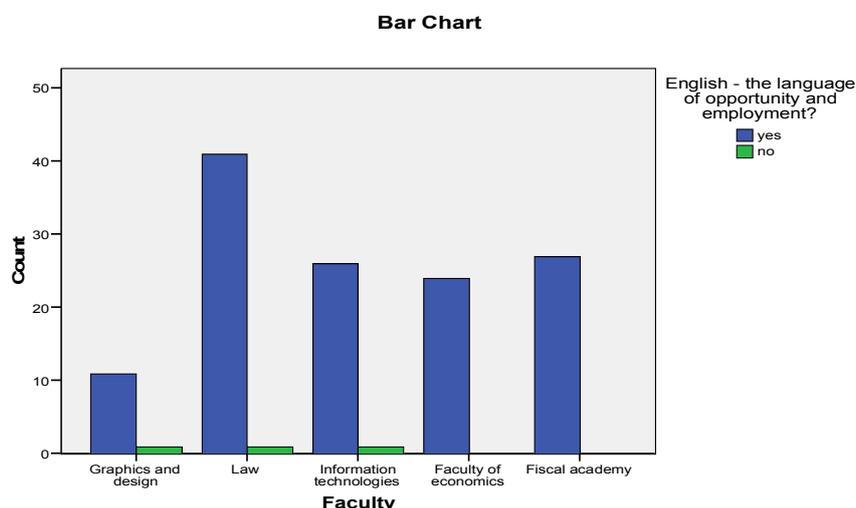


Fig. 3. Results of the sixth question of the questionnaire

Hutchinson and Waters state, “as English became the accepted international language of technology and commerce, it created a new generation of learners who knew specifically why they were learning a language. Most importantly, they knew why they needed it” (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987: 14). The percentage of the students who think that English is the language of opportunity and employment is 97,7%, while only 2,3% of the students think it's not. The high percentage of the positive responses to this item of the questionnaire could be attributed to students' awareness about the present and future importance of English language.

3.4. Results of the teachers' questionnaire

The teachers' answers to the questionnaire presented in the Table 4 reveal positive responses and their willingness to make some changes in the current syllabus. As it can be seen in Table 4, all the teachers answered that they only teach EGL, four of the five teachers wrote that their students have language

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problems, teachers don't use English constantly during classes, all of them think that the students are interested in learning ESP, but two teachers answered that their students don't express their needs.

TABLE 4 Results of the teachers' questionnaire

	Do your students of non-English majors study EGL of ESP?	Do your students have language problems?	Do you use language other than English in the class to explain the material?	Do you think students are interested in learning ESP?	Do your students express their needs connected with English language learning?
Teacher 1	EGL	Yes	Yes	Yes	No
Teacher 2	EGL	Yes	Sometimes	Yes	No
Teacher 3	EGL	Some of them	Yes	Yes	Yes
Teacher 4	EGL	No	Not so often	Yes	Yes
Teacher 5	EGL	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes

If these teachers want to change the existing syllabus and start teaching ESP, then it is extremely important for them to manage the needs analysis, syllabus design, to analyze the language that is required in the profession and they need to orient themselves to a new environment for which they are not well-prepared and stop being "slaves" of the published textbooks available.

4. CONCLUSION

The 'ESP situation' at Slobomir P University requires much effort. The current preparation of students for their present and future language needs in employment is not adequate. It is the task of the teachers as language planners to be truly professional. The first priority is a clear presentation of the syllabus designed on real needs. Secondly, teachers need to find the balance between the curricula and methods on the one hand and the needs of the learners on the other. Finally, both the teachers and the students agreed that there is the need for ESP courses and that they can have positive effects on students' professional career and studies. It seems that the students see the ESP course as a potential pathway to success in future specialized studies. In order to become professional in the specific field, knowledge of foreign language is essential. In present day, it is extremely important not only to be able to use a foreign language, but also to be able to use it at the level required by employers.

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Challenges of Developing ESP Materials

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Abstract: Materials play a crucial role in any ESP syllabus for several reasons: they provide language input, stimulate learning, help achieve course objectives, and foster development of lifelong learning skills and strategies. Moreover, materials affect the approach and effectiveness of language instruction as well as students' engagement and motivation. If an ESP course is both theme-based and skill-based, it is not enough to prepare a selection of professional texts and create text-based tasks and activities for practising all four language skills and for learning the vast amount of vocabulary. If we really want to promote student success with ESP, we need to adapt materials to students' immediate needs and to their interests and learning styles.

The paper studies the challenges of adapting and creating appropriate materials to teach the *Course of English for Specific Purposes* to student teachers. The process of selecting, adapting and creating materials was performed in the winter semester of 2012/2013 academic year, after the needs analysis carried out with the previous generation of student teachers. The main principles that guided the process were the principles and procedures of materials development and evaluation proposed by Tomlinson (2011, 1-34) and Rubdy (2011, 37-57). Students' evaluation of materials was performed at the middle of the course with the aim to check the quality and effectiveness of the materials as reflected in students' self-assessment of the progress made in the course and in their assessment of the content of the materials. The survey shows that the materials satisfy the complex set of criteria related to the content, but improvements are needed in the area of meeting student needs. The paper offers suggestions for meeting the challenges of further (re)development of materials as an ongoing dynamic process.

Key words: materials development, ESP course, student teachers, materials evaluation.

1. INTRODUCTION

The importance of English in the globalised world has significantly increased in the last few decades (Coleman 2010; Graddol 2006), affecting not only economy, but also education, and leading to globalisation of higher education and the domination of English as the global academic language (Graddol 2006, 74). English has become extremely important in accessing information and as a means of communication in the area of academic research, while harmonisation of university education in Europe has further encouraged the use of English in delivering academic programmes, thus increasing international mobility of undergraduate and graduate students and university teachers (ibid.).

Universities in Serbia are trying to be competitive by offering some academic programmes in English (for international students) and also by providing English courses within bachelor and master study curricula, either as compulsory or optional courses. The courses vary, from English for general purposes (EGP), through English for Specific purposes (ESP), to English for academic

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purposes (EAP). The undergraduate Class Teacher Education Study Programme¹ provided by the Faculty of Education, University of Kragujevac, comprises compulsory one-semester EGP and ESP courses at the bachelor level, and an EAP course at the master level. These courses aim to develop student teachers' communicative competence and to foster the development of all four language skills. Moreover, the courses aim to contribute to the development of lifelong learning skills of student teachers and to empowering them as agents of improving the quality of primary education. This is the role that student teachers and class teachers can play by accessing crucial information and scientific findings in different disciplines in education that is available only in English. It is also understood that English language skills can increase class teachers' chances to participate in international mobility and research projects (Savić 2011a, 660).

The paper looks at the process of designing and conducting an ESP course for students of education, focusing on developing effective ESP materials. First, it deals with characteristics of ESP course design, in general, and the characteristics of ESP course for student teachers, in particular; then, it describes the principles of developing ESP materials and the process of creating and evaluating ESP materials for student teachers; finally, it considers steps to be taken in improving materials to respond to the needs of prospective class teachers in the 21st century.

2. ESP COURSE DESIGN

English for specific purposes (ESP) is basically defined by the students' reasons for studying English (Dudley-Evans 2006; Hutchinson and Waters 2004). Being a separate branch of English language teaching for about thirty years, ESP has developed its own approaches, materials and methodology, focusing on aspects of teaching and materials development as means of meeting students' needs (Dudley-Evans 2006, 131). Dudley-Evans (2006) proposes two groups of defining characteristics of ESP, the absolute and the variable ones, as follows (132):

- the absolute characteristics: ESP is designed to respond to the specific needs of students, it uses the underlying methodology and activities of the target discipline, and it focuses on the language (grammar structures, lexis and register), discourse, communication skills, and genre appropriate to the activities of the target discipline;
- the variable characteristics: ESP may be related to a specific discipline, it may use a methodology different from the one related to EGP, it is usually designed for adult learners studying at a university or practising a profession, and it is mostly designed for intermediate or advanced students, assuming their basic language knowledge and skills.

The above characteristics affect an ESP course design through materials development and choice of methodology. We will describe the effects of these features on designing an ESP course for student teachers.

¹ Available in the Serbian language at www.pefja.kg.ac.rs

2.1. ESP course for student teachers

When we set out to design an ESP course for student teachers, we found both its absolute and variable characteristics relevant. Therefore, student teachers' specific needs were given extreme importance and surveyed. Then, the methodology, activities, language, discourse, communication and genre of educational sciences were considered. It was also relevant that students were adults, second-year students studying to become class teachers, whose language level was mainly intermediate, i.e. B1-B2 level as described by the *Common European Framework of Reference* (CEFR) (Council of Europe 2002), upgraded and assessed summatively at the end of the EGP course they had completed in the Year One university curriculum. The undergraduate Class Teacher Education Study Program of the Faculty of Education, University of Kragujevac, provides one-semester compulsory EGP course (5ECTS, 60 lessons) and one-semester compulsory ESP course (4ECTS, 45 lessons).

Aiming to develop an integrated syllabus (Nunan 2001, 63), we also identified the context and situations in which student teachers would communicate in English. Such contexts may include some or all of the following situations: researching a topic on the Internet, reading professional literature, sharing professional experience at home or abroad, designing action research or a survey related to classroom practice, participating in study tours, or even taking academic or professional development courses in international settings. Then, we composed a list of functional goals of communicative events: the ability to describe, analyse and compare different systems of education, learning styles, learning strategies, learner characteristics, teaching practices, teaching approaches, and specific subjects methodologies; discussion abilities, like expressing opinion, agreeing, disagreeing, and negotiating; the ability to extract information, summarise or paraphrase, both in writing and speaking; the ability to present a topic.

Next, we listed, sequenced and integrated the key linguistic elements necessary to achieve the above functional goals: grammar structures used in academic texts, lexis related to educational disciplines and relevant and interesting topics, and academic register/formal style. Finally, we designed appropriate classroom activities to achieve the course objectives related to the development of academic English skills: reading (skimming, scanning, identifying the organization of a text and a writer's point of view), writing (paragraph structure, introductions and conclusions, types of essay and organization, cohesion, linking devices, summary writing, common errors and editing), speaking (self introductions, discussions, short presentations), listening (note-taking skills) and study skills (development of language learning strategies); grammar is given some attention, but is usually incorporated into the development and practice of skills; the focus is on professional vocabulary relevant to the language of educational sciences.

Moreover, we considered the results of the survey of specific needs related to student teachers' reading skills and to specific genre of input texts, obtained by interviewing the previous generation of student teachers (see Savić 2011b). Using a questionnaire that asked student teachers' about their attitudes to the importance of the ability to read specific text types and how well they could perform respective tasks, we got the following results: most of 51 undergraduate student teachers interviewed in the survey considered reading *professional textbooks, texts forming part of exam questions, handouts* and *journal articles* very important, but also reported lack in these skills (ibid. 100-101). Then, their perceptions of the importance of particular reading sub-skills indicated that they considered the sub-skills of reading quickly and efficiently, reading to get specific information, reading to check information, reading to establish or evaluate author's position, and reading critically, as very important; again, student teachers' self-assessment showed considerable lack in these abilities (ibid. 102).

Although the above survey showed the needs of the previous generation of students, it was significant for developing new materials for subsequent generation(s) for several reasons: it clearly indicated some of the genres to which student teachers needed to be exposed, the sub-skills that should be developed, and the fact that most students felt they did not possess the reading (sub)skills they considered important for pursuing their teaching profession.

All these elements have been used to define the content of the ESP curriculum and its objectives: development of the student teachers' linguistic skills, professional knowledge, critical thinking, language learning strategies and autonomy through the integration of skills (ibid. 103). The overall objective is to help students meet the demands of their studies and future profession by learning the patterns of language they will encounter in various professional contexts (Hammond 2006, 186). This was the starting point for developing appropriate materials for the ESP course that ought to be both skill-based and theme-based.

3. ESP MATERIALS

Tomlison (2011) defines language learning materials as anything that language teachers use intentionally to increase students' knowledge and/or experience of the foreign language, and argues: "Materials could be videos, DVDs, emails, YOUTUBE, dictionaries, grammar books, readers, workbooks or photocopied exercises. (textbooks, cassettes, CD-ROMs, photocopiable handouts). They could also be newspapers, food packages, photographs, advertisements, live talks by invited native speakers, instruction given by a teacher, tasks written on cards or discussions between learners." (2)

Materials have several very important purposes (Hutchison and Waters 2004, 107-108): they encourage learners to learn by providing a stimulus, help teachers to organise and plan lessons, reflect the view on nature of the language learning and nature of the learning task, and provide models of language use. Moreover, materials foster development of lifelong learning skills and strategies and student autonomy. In short, materials affect the approach and effectiveness of language instruction as well as students' engagement and motivation.

An ESP course is usually materials-driven and classroom-based activity resulting in practical outcomes (Dudley-Evans 2006, 131). Choosing, adapting and/or developing materials from the big richness of resources can make the process rather challenging for several reasons. First, the materials must enable students to use professional texts, both written and spoken, effectively (ibid. 134). Then, the materials must be adapted to suit the students' immediate needs and interests. Finally, the materials must respond to the students' learning styles by providing opportunities for practising all four language skills and for learning the vast amount of vocabulary.

Hutchinson and Waters (2004, 108-109) propose a useful model for designing materials, which consists of four elements: input, content focus, language focus and task. The authors further define input as a stimulus for activities in the form of a text, a dialogue, a video, a diagram or any piece of information that gives new language items, appropriate models of language use and a topic for the discussion and/or communication. Content focus should provide information related to the content already defined in the objectives of the course, while language focus refers to language needed for communicative tasks and activities. The task enables students to use the language for meaningful and communicative purposes and thus achieve the objectives of the course.

Similarly, Coyle, Hood and Marsh (2010, 53-65) propose a 4C's framework for planning content-based instruction: content, communication, cognition and culture. The framework can be

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useful in designing materials as it defines the relationship between content and communication in greater detail. Content is seen as the starting point in planning language needed by content within three categories: language of learning, language for learning and language through learning. Language of learning includes key words, phrases and grammar as part of content-obligatory language, then language of talk and discussion for doing the tasks. Language for learning involves language needed for successful group work (asking and answering questions, using evidence, building arguments), carrying out research and presenting the work (writing a research report or presenting a project work). Finally, language through learning refers to discussion skills, extending presentation skills, expressing new ideas, and using strategies for further learning.

Language learning materials should reflect basic principles of language acquisition (Tomlison 2010, 86). Tomlison (ibid. 87-97) proposes six main principles of language acquisition that should be applied when developing materials:

- learners should be exposed to a rich, meaningful and comprehensible input (Krashen 1985, quoted in Tomlison 2010, 87); materials should be authentic and should represent how a foreign language is typically used;
- learners should be engaged both affectively and cognitively; activities should make the learners think about and respond to the materials personally;
- learners should achieve positive affective involvement in order to be able to develop communicative competence; materials should be interesting, relevant and enjoyable; materials should set achievable goals and foster learners' self-esteem;
- materials should model a native language acquisition process, and provide opportunities for achieving communicative purpose; materials should promote transfer from learning activities to real-life use in different situations;
- learners should be able to notice the most important features of the input and develop language awareness; materials should provide experiential learning and holistic engagement of the learners;
- learners should be given opportunities to use language in order to achieve communicative purposes; materials should enable interaction and development of metacognitive strategies.

Apart from meeting these principles, materials should cater to learners' individual needs and learning styles, which makes the process ever more challenging. How can these principles be applied to the ESP course for student teachers?

3.1 Developing ESP materials for student teachers

To provide a rich and relevant input (ibid.), we decided to prepare a set of authentic texts, audio and video materials as core materials for the course to be posted on the Faculty of Education website for download. The materials titled *English for Specific Purposes for Students of Education*² were supplemented with PPT presentations with pictures, photographs and charts used to build a context, with comprehension questions, discussion topics, instructions for writing CV's, summaries, essays, reports, notes, and for preparing and giving presentations; further, the PPT presentations contained tasks and useful phrases for practicing language functions related to authentic input of the core materials; then, we have created supplementary materials in the form of handouts with problem-solving tasks, questionnaires and project tasks. Audio and video materials

² Available at <http://www.pefja.kg.ac.rs/materijalizanastavu.html>

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and tasks have been selected from *Shaping the Way We Teach English* (Opp-Beckman et al. 2006) and created by using the Posterous Web Tool³.

The authentic texts in the core materials have been taken from different sources: professional textbooks and journals, and internet resources. They are grouped into units according to topics, sequenced and differentiated. Each unit ends with a reflection topic that integrates information from all texts in the unit and from other materials provided to students. To respond to student's different language levels and learning styles, some topics are presented in a variety of formats/genres. For example, the materials related to the theme of educational systems involves a video with information about global education ([Ken Robinson: Changing education paradigms | Video on TED.com](#)), two charts presenting the American system of education, a text about the British system of education, a more complex text on the Finnish system of education, a video on the Finnish system of education ([Strong Performers and Successful Reforms in Education: Finland](#), OECD 2010), and two optional homework tasks: 1. the Posterous video task with comprehension and attitude questions related to the video posted in the task; 2. the discussion/essay task: Compare the three systems of education described in the texts with the Serbian system of education.

The approach used in ESP lessons was mainly communicative and task-based. The materials serve as a stimulus for the Think-Pair-Share activities or Pyramid discussions. The activities include extracting information from authentic materials, connecting background knowledge to the topic by using a KWL chart, summarising or transferring information into new formats using graphic organisers (mind map, Venn diagram), posing questions for further study of the topic, discussing cultural issues related to the topic, making plans for further research of the topic. In this way student teachers' metacognitive strategies are developed as part of developing lifelong learning skills.

The use of authentic materials can sometimes present a challenge to student teachers, not content wise, but linguistically. To be able to understand a journal article, student teachers need practice in using cohesive devices, nominal phrases, relative clauses, adjectival clauses, adverbial clauses, noun clauses, and especially non-finite clauses. Also, processes of affixation have to be practised as part of vocabulary building strategies. Cooperative activities are used not only to foster communication fluency, but also to encourage peer teaching, so important for prospective teachers. Cooperative activities are experiential learning situations in which student teachers experience the benefits of an approach they will be using in their classrooms during practice teaching and later, practising their teaching profession.

The fact that we already knew the group of students for whom the materials were designed, having taught them the EGP course in the previous semester, was rather beneficial. It not only helped to decide on the topics of interest to the students, but also on choosing the language practice tasks as continuation of the previous course structure and language level(s) developed and assessed summatively at the end of the course. Thus the materials got the potential to satisfy the needs for being relevant and appropriate for this group of learners (Rubdy 2011, 42).

³ <http://vera-hsw8x.posterous.com/>

3.1.1 Evaluating materials: mid-course evaluation

The new materials described above were applied in winter semester of 2012/2013 academic year. Although the materials worked very well with the student teachers and generally had a positive effect on their engagement, we decided to conduct Mid-Course Evaluation of the materials. It was performed by 60 student teachers (out of 81, i.e. 74% of the whole group), for whom the ESP course is compulsory, and is taught as one-semester course with three lessons a week. The main reason for carrying out a mid-course evaluation was to find out how much the materials responded to the immediate needs of the group of students they had been designed for. Once selected, materials “can only be judged successful after classroom implementation and feedback” (Rubdy 2011, 42). In case there appeared the needs not being met by the materials, adaptations could be performed and/or new materials could be introduced instead of the ones already provided.

Student teachers had started using the materials two months before the evaluation was performed. The survey was conducted by using a semi-structured questionnaire *ESP Course Material Evaluation Questionnaire* (see Appendix 1). It comprises 26 items in two groups: 1. Student Needs, 15 items; 2. Content, 11 items. The items/variables are attitudinal statements related to the materials, with 4-point scale (two negative and two positive responses, scored 1-4): *strongly disagree (1)*, *disagree (2)*, *agree (3)* and *strongly agree (4)*. The statements reflect the principles and procedures of materials development and evaluation proposed by Tomlinson (2011, 1-34) and Rubdy (2011, 37-57). Also, the respondents were given one open question titled Comments, which invited the respondents to give any additional comments about the materials being evaluated. The results of the survey are given in Table I.

TABLE I. The results of the ESP materials evaluation

	Student Needs	Percentiles		
		25 (Q ₁)	50(Md)	75(Q ₃)
1.	The materials cater for my needs, wants, interests and purposes.	2.00	3.00	3.00
2.	The materials are effective in helping me to acquire English.	3.00	3.00	3.00
3.	The materials contribute to sustaining my motivation.	2.00	2.00	3.00
4.	The materials encourage my independent learning.	1.00	2.00	3.00
5.	The materials involve me in thinking about the learning process.	2.00	3.00	3.00
6.	The materials involve me in experiencing different types of learning activities (including multimedia).	2.00	3.00	4.00
7.	The materials involve my emotions in the learning process (I enjoy doing the activities and they give me a sense of achievement).	1.00	2.00	3.00
8.	The materials allow me to develop further my creative and critical thinking skills.	2.00	3.00	3.00
9.	The materials exploit my prior knowledge and provide opportunities for further development.	3.00	3.00	4.00
10.	The materials help me to develop all four language skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing).	3.00	3.00	4.00
11.	The materials offer opportunities for cooperative learning through pair and group work activities.	3.00	4.00	4.00
12.	The materials encourage me to learn from and help other students.	2.25	3.00	3.00
13.	The materials encourage me to learn in a stress-free atmosphere in the classroom.	1.25	2.00	3.00

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14.	The materials teach me something I can use in my profession.	3.00	3.00	4.00
15.	The materials allow me to use my own learning style.	2.00	3.00	3.00
	Content			
16.	The materials provide rich, varied and comprehensible input.	2.00	3.00	3.00
17.	The topics and texts are current and cognitively challenging.	3.00	3.00	4.00
18.	There are varied activities at different levels of task difficulty.	3.00	3.00	4.00
19.	The grammatical explanations are adequate.	2.25	3.00	4.00
20.	The materials are interesting and varied.	2.00	2.00	3.00
21.	The materials provide exposure to authentic English through purposeful reading and listening activities.	2.00	3.00	4.00
22.	The content is realistic and reflects real-world situations.	3.00	3.00	4.00
23.	The tasks exploit language in a communicative and real-life way.	3.00	3.00	4.00
24.	The materials show parallels and contrasts between the native culture and others.	3.00	3.00	4.00
25.	The materials allow for flexible use of tasks, texts and activities.	3.00	3.00	4.00
26.	The materials are relevant for my profession.	3.00	3.00	4.00
	Comments:			
	- "Some space is needed in the materials for new vocabulary lists."			
	- "Thank you."			
	- "Thank you very much."			

The above results indicate that materials meet 11 out of 15 Student Needs (median being $Md \geq 3$ in responses to statements nos. 1, 2, 5, 6, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 14 and 15), and 10 out of 11 needs related to the Content (median being $Md \geq 3$ in responses to statements nos. 16, 17, 18, 19, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25 and 26). Content wise, the materials have been judged very successful, but some improvements are needed in the area of meeting student teachers' affective needs.

In summary, the student teachers' attitudes indicate that the materials: cater for their needs, wants, interests, and purposes; are effective in helping them to acquire English; involve them in thinking about the learning process; involve them in experiencing different types of learning activities (including multimedia); allow them to develop further their creative and critical thinking skills; exploit their prior knowledge and provide opportunities for further development; help them to develop all four language skills; offer opportunities for cooperative learning through pair and group work activities; encourage them to learn from and help other students; teach them something they can use in their profession; and allow them to use their own learning styles. Besides, the materials have been judged successful because: materials provide rich, comprehensible and varied input; texts and topics are current and cognitively challenging; activities are varied and differentiated; the grammatical explanations are adequate; the materials provide exposure to authentic English through purposeful reading and listening activities; the content is realistic and reflects real-life situations; the tasks exploit language in a communicative and real-life way; the materials show parallels and contrasts between the native culture and others; the materials allow for flexible use of tasks, texts and activities; and the materials are relevant for the respondents' profession.

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However, the student teachers' attitudes show that the materials: fail to contribute to sustaining their motivation; fail to encourage their independent learning; fail to involve their emotions in the learning process; and fail to encourage them to learn in a stress-free atmosphere in the classroom. What is more, the content of the materials has been judged as not interesting or varied.

The above negative attitudes mostly refer to student teachers' affective needs: they feel under stress, which decreases their motivation either to participate in classroom activities or study independently beyond lesson time. A possible reason may be the lexical difficulty of the materials or inadequate preparation of the student teachers to participate in the activities. According to the Bologna higher education requirements, student teachers are expected to spend three hours before their English lessons preparing for three contact lessons with the lecturer, which they rarely do. The fact that only three respondents gave comments in the Comments open item further supports the conclusion that the materials did not motivate student teachers enough or provide enjoyment in language learning. Another reason for this may be the absence of intrinsic motivation for foreign language learning: not seeing the true benefits of language development, although judging the materials as relevant for their profession (item no. 26).

Strengthening student teachers' motivation for language development should be our task in the future. It does not only depend on the materials used in the ESP course, but also on raising the student teachers' awareness of the true benefits of their linguistic development.

4. CONCLUSION

Selecting, creating and developing materials for an ESP course for class teacher foreign language education proves to be a rather challenging process if we want to respect student teachers' immediate needs and the principles of effective materials development. However, this dynamic process can be very much aided by a comprehensive mid-course evaluation performed by student teachers, like the one we describe above. Such evaluation can clearly indicate the qualities and effectiveness of the materials, and also show their specific failures to meet the needs of the students and the course objectives. The feedback after a period of classroom application is invaluable in terms of learning how well the materials serve the teaching-learning process (Rubdy 2011, 45) and what needs to be done to make them more relevant and appropriate for a specific group of learners.

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APPENDIX I

University of Kragujevac, Faculty of Education in Jagodina

Course of English for Specific Purposes, Course Material Evaluation Questionnaire

Author: Vera Savic, Date: 5 Nov. 2012

Evaluate the 2012/2013 ESP Course materials by indicating how much you agree or disagree with each of the following statements (using the scale 1-4, where (1) = *strongly disagree*, (2) = *disagree*, (3) = *agree*, (4) = *strongly agree*)

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	Student Needs	strongly disagree	disagree	agree	strongly agree
1.	The materials cater for my needs, wants, interests and purposes.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
2.	The materials are effective in helping me to acquire English.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
3.	The materials contribute to sustaining my motivation.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
4.	The materials encourage my independent learning.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
5.	The materials involve me in thinking about the learning process.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
6.	The materials involve me in experiencing different types of learning activities (including multimedia).	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
7.	The materials involve my emotions in the learning process (I enjoy doing the activities and they give me a sense of achievement).	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
8.	The materials allow me to develop further my creative and critical thinking skills.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
9.	The materials exploit my prior knowledge and provide opportunities for further development.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
10.	The materials help me to develop all four language skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing).	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
11.	The materials offer opportunities for cooperative learning through pair and group work activities.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
12.	The materials encourage me to learn from and help other students.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
13.	The materials encourage me to learn in a stress-free atmosphere in the classroom.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
14.	The materials teach me something I can use in my profession.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
15.	The materials allow me to use my own learning style.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
	Content	strongly disagree	disagree	agree	strongly agree
16.	The materials provide rich, varied and comprehensible input.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
17.	The topics and texts are current and cognitively challenging.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
18.	There are varied activities at different levels of task difficulty.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
19.	The grammatical explanations are adequate.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
20.	The materials are interesting and varied.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
21.	The materials provide exposure to authentic English through purposeful reading and listening activities.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
22.	The content is realistic and reflects real-world situations.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
23.	The tasks exploit language in a communicative and real-life way.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
24.	The materials show parallels and contrasts between the native culture and others.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
25.	The materials allow for flexible use of tasks, texts and activities.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)

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26.	The materials are relevant for my profession.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
	Comments: Use the back of this form to list the texts and activities you enjoyed the most/least. Also, give suggestions for improving the ESP Course materials.				

Teaching and Assessing Graduate Students' Research Skills in English

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Abstract: A research training module was designed to help graduate students majoring in art education, at the College of Home Economics, who were learning English for specific purposes, to locate, read and comprehend art abstracts and full-text articles sites for their assignments, and theses. At the end of the training module, the students were post-tested. They were given individual research projects, for which they had to select the search terms, define the search strategy, go online, log into the electronic database, conduct simple and advanced searches, and print and save the actual records obtained. The posttest required the students to locate art dissertation abstracts and journal articles etc. The students were asked to skim through sample art abstracts and journal articles and locate the aim of the study, type of instrument used in collecting the data, the subjects, data collection procedures, statistical analysis procedures and results and give a summary translation in Arabic. A detailed description of test content and research skills measured are given.

Keywords: research skills, search terms, technology integration, electronic searching, databases.

1. INTRODUCTION

Due to latest advancements in computer technology, online dictionaries, encyclopedias, e-books and journals are now being integrated in EFL and ESP classrooms, in addition to online resources that modern libraries host such as OPACS and specialized electronic databases. To be considered literate in the information age, students must develop functional, academic, critical, and technological skills (Kasper, 2002). Nasir (1996: 37-55) reported that only 58.3% of Malaysian students studying in the UK used CD-ROM databases and found them useful for thesis preparation, writing research papers, articles, and books. He recommended that non-users be made aware of the availability of databases on CD-ROM and other information sources. In another study, Dodge (2001: 1) outlined the development of basic computer literacy skills courses at the San Jose City College, California. Six technology skills courses, referred to as the Getting Started courses, were developed to promote ESL students' basic skills information. Various groups of at-risk students piloted the Getting Started program. The courses proved successful in introducing ESL students to computers.

Developing students' searching skills was found to be effective in enhancing students' Web searching skills and attitudes. In this respect, Abowitz (1994, 58-64) indicated that integrating library instruction into undergraduate sociology courses helped develop the students' awareness of and ability to use library resources, and promoted active learning. In addition, training undergraduate students to search online databases, to construct search strategies, and locate library research guides from the World Wide Web helped enhance the students' attitudes, emotional experiences and search performance (Ren, 2000: 323-328). Web-based instruction provided a learning environment in which participants could develop electronic literacy skills and share their ideas and projects (Hindes, 2000: 88-101).

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As to course design, Eisenberg and Johnson (2002: 1) described an integrated approach to teaching computer skills in K-12 schools. They developed a Curriculum Based on the Big6 Skills Approach that focused on the following: (i) task definition; (ii) information seeking strategies; (iii) location and access; (iv) use of information; (v) synthesis; and (vi) assessment.

Although Arabic is the medium of instruction at the Department of Art Education (DAE) in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia, doctoral students majoring in art education need to be proficient in English to be able to locate specialized information in English art resources such as journal articles, reports, dissertations and reference books for their assignments, term papers and theses. They also need to be able to read, and comprehend specialized reference materials in their art area of study and translate the required information into Arabic. For those reasons, doctoral students majoring in art education are required to take an English-for-Specific-Purposes (ESP) course in the first semester of the doctoral program. For that purpose, an ESP course was especially designed to meet the students' linguistic, academic and pragmatic needs. The course consisted of 4 components: (i) a reading of specialized art education texts; specialized art education vocabulary; (iii) translation of art education texts from English to Arabic; and (iv) and electronic searching for art education references and materials. The present study focuses on the searching skills component of the English for art education purposes course.

A review of the ESP literature showed that studies that integrate searching skills in ESP courses offered to doctoral students majoring in art education are lacking. Hence, this study will describe how the students' internet searching and English language needs were identified, and what their computer and internet searching skill levels were. It will also describe what internet searching skills were integrated in the ESP course to meet the students' pragmatic needs, and how those skills were developed and assessed. This description will enable instructors to replicate the procedures in teaching ESP (specifically research skills in English) to other groups of graduate students. The study also shows how second language (L2) instructors can create learning environments that promote L2 learning and motivate students to learn and how they can effectively meet students' needs. This study has both theoretical and practical implications for ESP instructors. It identifies the searching skills and training steps to be followed.

2. PARTICIPANTS

Ten female doctoral students participated in the study. They were all art education major and with a focus on sculpture, textile, ceramics, painting and photography, metalwork, handicrafts, or tie and dye. They were in their first semester of the doctoral program and were concurrently enrolled in three art courses. They were all lecturers teaching art courses to undergraduate students. They all had excellent practical and theoretical knowledge in their major art area and were all familiar with the components of a research paper and research methods in art education as they studied those topics in Arabic at the master's level. All of the students took art courses and wrote a master's thesis in Arabic.

3. IDENTIFYING GRADUATE STUDENTS' TECHNOLOGICAL NEEDS

According to Dudley-Evans (1998: 1), Jureckov (1998: 2), Flowerdew (1995: 19-35), Cruickshank (1983: 1), needs analysis is the basis of ESP course design. Therefore, the subjects' technological and searching skills were assessed by a computer-literacy questionnaire. The questionnaire consisted of the following questions: (1) *Which computer software do you use?* (2) *How would you rate your internet searching skills (excellent 5 4 3 2 1 poor)?* (3) *Which search engines can you use?* (4) *Do you have an*

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e-mail (5) What do you use it for? (6) Have you had any prior training in searching the internet for websites in your major area of specialization?

To assess the students' proficiency level in English, they were pre-tested using a teacher-made English proficiency test consisting of a reading comprehension, a vocabulary, a paragraph-writing and translation subtests.

4. DATA ANALYSIS

The students' responses to the computer literacy questionnaire were tallied and percentages of those who gave the same response were computed regardless of the students' area of specialization. The students' language and internet searching needs were identified. Similarly, the students' responses to the English proficiency test were analyzed, and their weaknesses and linguistic needs identified.

5. STUDENTS' NEEDS

Results of the computer literacy questionnaire showed that all the students had basic word-processing skills, only 30% had basic internet searching skills and can use Yahoo and Google. 70% had little experience searching the internet. Analysis of the responses to the needs assessment questions showed that all the students never had any training in searching for information and websites in their area of specialization. The students showed an interest in acquiring advanced internet searching skills such as locating art materials, tools, journals, magazines, professional organizations, conventions, journal and dissertation abstracts, journal articles, ordering books, art materials and tools, subscribing to e-journals, and joining professional organizations.

6. THE RESEARCH TRAINING MODULE

On the basis of the students' searching needs, and their proficiency and internet searching skill levels, an ESP course was designed to meet their pragmatic needs. The course consisted of 4 components: (i) a reading comprehension component; (ii) an art vocabulary component; (iii) a translation component; and (iv) a research skills component. This study will focus on describing the research training component only and how subjects' research skills were assessed at the end of the training period. The aim of the research component was to develop the students' ability to search the internet for art and art education websites. The training module focused on the following skills:

- Selecting, narrowing and widening search terms.
- Introducing Yahoo and Google.
- Searching for and locating art materials, art tools, art education professional organizations and conventions, and art education e-journals using Google or Yahoo.
- Searching for, locating and ordering art education books and magazines online using www.mazon.com.
- Searching for art education abstracts and full text articles in specialized electronic databases such as *ERIC*, *Wilson Art Abstracts Full Text*, *Wilson Art Abstracts*, *Wilson Art Index*, and *Dissertation Abstracts* databases.
- Browsing the search results and selecting the required records.
- Filling out order forms and membership application forms.
- Subscribing to e-journals.

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- Reading an abstract and identifying the following: questions of the study, subjects, instrument, Method, results.
- Skimming a research article and locating the following components: questions of the study, subjects, instrument, Method, results and writing a summary translation of those components in Arabic.
- Locating references and making a list of bibliography in English on a particular art topic following APA style.

7. TRAINING METHOD

The ESP class met once a week for 3 hours. The first hour was devoted to internet searching training, the second and third hours to reading, vocabulary and translation practice. Each week, the students practiced one task. The order in which searching skills were developed and practiced was as follows:

Week 1: Search terms

The students were asked to write down a research topic in their area of specialization. They were shown how to identify related search terms, narrow them by using two- and three-word compounds and by combining them with other search terms using Boolean operators (*and, but, or*). They were also shown how to widen them by using a single term.

Week 2: Google and Yahoo

The students were shown how to connect to the internet, what the components of the Internet Explorer main page (*home, refresh, favorites, back, front, etc.*) are, where to type the search term, how to save URL's in Favorites and how to retrieve them, how to save webpages, finding the number of search results, browsing through the search results and selecting a particular link.

Week 3: Amazon.com

Major components of the Amazon main page, selecting the search terms for the required books, entering the search term in the search box, selecting the field to be searched from the list, browsing through the search results, marking the selected items, adding selected items to the shopping cart, filling out order forms (*name, address, country, phone #, payment method, credit card info, sending/submitting order*).

Week 4: Electronic journals

Entering "e-journal & art education" in the search box in Google, selecting an e-journal from the search results, components of the journal's main page, browsing the table of contents, browsing current and back issues, searching for articles, subscribing to the journal.

Week 5: Professional organizations

Entering "associations & art education" in Google, selecting an association such as National Art Education Association (NAEA) as an example, components of the association's main page such as *publications, forms, news, events, publication, resources*, and filling out membership application.

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Week 6: Conventions

Entering “conference & art education” in the search box in Google; selecting a conference such as NAEA Convention as an example; identifying the components of the conference main page: *Call for proposals, submitting a proposal, registration, participation, sessions, dates and deadlines and location.*

Weeks 7-10: Goolge Scholar, Wilson art index, ERIC, Wilson art abstracts, dissertation abstracts, Wilson art abstracts full text databases

Accessing a database by using the required URL, username and password; components of the database main page; selecting, broadening and narrowing of the search terms; selecting a Boolean operator (*and, or, not*); selecting the type of field (*author, descriptor, keyword*); marking the relevant records; selecting what to be displayed (*citation only, citation and abstract, full text*); viewing the search results; evaluating the search results; saving, printing or e-mailing the search results; returning to the list of records (citations) to select a new record to view, save, print, or e-mail; returning to the main page to conduct a new search; locating and filling out document order forms. The basic electronic searching terms and commands that are encountered in most electronic databases were identified on the screen, explained and listed. Examples are: *Advanced search, basic search, author, title, abstract, descriptor, keyword, search results, records, citation, full text, publication date, display, save, print, view, search, submit, browse, continue, connect to, proceed, login, clear, mark, unmark, select, request, obtain, order, previous, next, main, return to.* The students were also given a list of common abbreviations used in the citation, abstract and full-text articles such as: *AU= Author, TI=Title, SO=Source, AB= Abstract, DE= Descriptor, KW= Keyword* together with their full form.

Weeks 11-12: Skimming abstracts and research articles and identifying the following components: Questions of the study, subjects, instrument, Method, results and writing a summary translation of those components in Arabic.

Each class session, the author stated the focus of the session, logged into the internet, then Yahoo or Google. The presentation phase consisted of entering a search term in the search box and looking at the search results with the students. The students took turns to read out loud the search results, select certain items to be translated together. The students always saved the URL in Favorites and saved the webpage to help them remember the searching steps when they practiced on their own at home. The students took notes and wrote down the new technical terms. Then hands-on guided practice was conducted in pairs under the author's supervision. For consolidation, a post-session hands-on independent practice at home was conducted. Every session, a homework-assignment focusing on a task similar to the one practiced in class was given. The assignment required identification of a search term, using it to locate websites, to browse the website and identify its components. The students printed the pages, filled out forms, translated certain parts of the webpages and submitted them to the author for feedback.

8. TRAINING ASSESSMENT

At the end of the training module, training was assessed in a three-hour session as follows:

8.1 Searching Skills Tested

- Selecting an art topic.
- Selecting, narrowing and widening search terms.
- Searching Online bookstores (*e.g.: Amazon*), Google Scholar, Specialized electronic databases (*e.g.: ERIC, Wilson Art Abstracts Full Text, Wilson Art Abstracts, Wilson Art Index, Dissertation Abstracts* databases), Online Associations and conventions.
- Locating art materials, tools, books, magazines, e-journals, abstracts, full text articles, professional organizations and conventions online.
- Recognizing parts of an abstract or research paper.
- Browsing the search results (records) and selecting the required records.

8.2 Language Skills Tested

- Reading an **abstract** and identifying the questions of the study, subjects, instrument, method, results.
- Skimming an abstract or a research article and locating the following components: questions of the study, subjects, instrument, Method, results.
- Writing a summary translation of an article that consists of questions of the study, subjects, instrument, Method, results.
- Making a list of references in English on a particular art topic.
- Filling out order forms and membership application forms and subscribing to e-journals.

TABLE 1
 Test specification Table

	Language Skills					Searching Skills				
	skim	Identify	Make a list	Summarize	Fill out	translate	enter	locate	Browse	Select
Yahoo & Google										
Amazon										
Google Scholar										
Databases										
Organizations										
Conventions										
Research topics			1							
search terms							1			
Citations /titles/records			1							X
Abstracts	3	3						3		
Full articles	1	1		1		1		3		
Abbreviations components						1				
order forms					1					

8.3 Content Covered by the Test

The test items covered the following: Search commands, Amazon, Google Scholar, journal abstracts, dissertation abstracts, online art organizations and conventions, online forms, citations, and abbreviations.

8.4 Test Items

The test items and marks allocated to each question, each task and response are shown in Table 2 below.

TABLE 2
 Test Questions and Distribution of Marks

Test Questions	Task	Marks
1. The students were given individual research projects in sculpture, textile, ceramics, painting, photography, metalwork, handicrafts, and tie and dye, for which they had to select search terms. The test required the students to locate the following: (a) at least 1 book title from Amazon (b) at least 1 abstract from Google Scholar (c) at least 1 abstract from dissertation abstracts (d) at least 1 abstract from ERIC Database Abstracts (e) at least 1 full text journal article from Wilson Art Abstracts Full Text (f) Fill out a UMI online order form (g) Choose one reference from each database (5 references) and make a list of bibliography following APA style.	Hands-on	- - - 5 5 5 5 5 - 10 20
2. Screen shots of association websites, search results from Amazon and an abstract with abbreviations were printed and handed out to the students together with questions that required the students to define, explain and translate the marked parts in a search screen, search commands or abbreviations.	Screen shots	15
3. The students were asked to skim through screen shots of 2 <u>abstracts</u> (from ERIC, Google Scholar and/or Dissertation Abstracts) and <u>locate</u> the aim of the study, type of instrument used in collecting the data, the subjects, data collection procedures, methodology, statistical analysis procedures and results.	Screen shots	20
4. The students were asked to skim through a full text article, locate then give a summary translation of the aim of the study, type of instrument used in collecting the data, the subjects, data collection procedures, methodology, statistical analysis, procedures and results in 500 words.	Skimming & translation	10
Total marks		100 marks

8.5 Scoring the Test

The pre- and posttests were blindly graded by the author. An answer key was used. 100 points were allocated to the test. Marks allocated to each question are shown in Table (2).

- **In Question I:** For citations looked up in Amazon, Google Scholar, Dissertation Abstracts, Wilson Abstracts, ERIC (5 marks for each source). 10 marks are given for filing out the order form, 20 for making the bibliography (4 marks for each reference).
- **In Questions II & III:** 10 marks are allocated for locating the components of each abstract. Title, author, journal, subjects, instrument, research method (1 mark each), aim of study, question or hypothesis and results (2 marks each).

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- **Question IV:** 10 marks are given for the summary translation. Title, author, journal, subjects, instrument, research method (1 mark each), aim of study, question or hypothesis and results (2 marks each).

8.6 Test Validity and Reliability

The posttest is believed to have content validity, as it aimed at assessing the students' ability to search. The content covered in the test was comparable to that covered in the classroom. The test instructions were phrased clearly and the examinees' task was defined. All of the students comprehended the questions and responded to them as instructed.

Concurrent validity of the posttest was determined by correlating the students' total score on the posttest and their total score on the midterm test that measured.... The validity coefficient was .62 and it was significant at the .01 level.

Since the author was the instructor and the scorer of the pretest and posttests for both groups, estimates of inter-rater reliability were necessary. A 30% random sample of the posttest answer sheets was selected and double-scored. A colleague who holds a Ph.D. degree scored the pre and posttest answer sheets. In scoring the sample answer sheets, she used the same answer key and followed the same scoring procedures utilized by the author. The marks given by both raters for each subtest in the sample were correlated. Inter-rater correlation was 98%.

Furthermore, examinee reliability shows how consistently examinees perform on the same set of tasks. Examinee reliability was also calculated by using the Kuder-Richardson 21' formula as it estimates the internal-consistency of the test items. The reliability coefficient of the posttest was .69.

8.7 Statistical Analysis

The mean, median, standard deviation, standard error and range were computed. To find out whether the students made any progress (gain) as a result of the training, a within group paired T-test was computed using the pre and posttest scores.

8.8 Results

Table (3) shows that the median score on the pretest was 22.5% (range = 15% -48%) and the median score on the posttest was 62.5% (range = 40% - 88 %) with larger variations among the students posttest scores than the pretest score as revealed by the standard deviation values. Results of the paired T-test in Table (4) shows a significant difference between the pre and posttest mean scores at the .01 level, suggesting that the students' achievement significantly improved as a result of exposure to electronic searching training (T = 14.6, Df = 9).

TABLE 3
Distribution of Pre- and Posttest Scores

	Mean	Median	SD	SE	Mode	Range
Pretest	27	22.5	9.49	3	20	15-48
Posttest	62.5	66.5	13.54	4.28	48	40-88

TABLE 4
Paired T-test Results

	N	Mean	SD	SE	t	df	P.
Pretest	10	27.0	9.49	3.00	9.0	9	.000
Posttest	10	62.5	13.54	4.28	14.6	9	.000

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9. CONCLUSION

To improve graduate students' electronic searching skills, a training module was developed and taught to graduate students majoring in art education in Saudi Arabia as part of the ESP course that they were required to take. At the end of the semester, a test was designed and administered to find out whether the students' ability to search specialized online material had significantly improved. The test also aimed at assessing the effectiveness of the training module in developing the required electronic searching skills. Test results showed that the training module was successful in developing the electronic searching skills that the students needed to pursue their graduate courses in art education and to continue to search for specialized English material in art education in specialized electronic databases after graduation. Findings of the present study are consistent with findings of other studies conducted by Abowitz (1994, 58-64) who found that integrating library instruction into undergraduate sociology courses helped develop the students' awareness of and ability to use library resources, and promote active learning and Ren (2000) who found that training undergraduate students to search online databases, to construct search strategies, and locate library research guides from the World Wide Web helped enhance the students' attitudes, emotional experiences and search performance.

Since the study was conducted with a small sample of graduate students, it is recommended that the training module and test be replicated with larger groups of graduate students majoring in art education to get better estimates of validity and reliability. The effectiveness of the training module can be also measured by self-reports at the end of the semester and while taking graduate courses in art education as a follow-up measure of the effectiveness of the electronic searching training received. The study recommends that the electronic searching training module be taught to undergraduate students majoring in art education. The effectiveness of this training module and the transfer of such skills to graduate-level courses may be subject of further investigation in the future.

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Texts on (Classical) Music and Some Aspects of their Use in Teaching ESP at the Academy of Music

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Abstract: There are numerous types of text today that can be used to describe, discuss, explain or analyze classical music, observed both as a whole and in some of its aspects. In its introduction, the paper will try to name and describe some types of such texts in terms of their organization and key features. After such an introduction, the paper will deal with some general topics related to the possibilities of ESP tuition at the Academies of Music and then give some practical aspects of using various types of texts on classical music in teaching ESP to the students of first two years at the Academy of Music in East Sarajevo. Finally, some general conclusions will be given at the end.

Key words: Academy of Music, ESP, texts, teaching, classical music, tuition.

1. INTRODUCTION

In today's world, there is a multitude of views and perspectives from which and in which classical music can be observed, described, criticized, discussed or analyzed, both by educated professionals (people whose competences in music are a consequence of their formal education) and various types of music enthusiasts and experts, whose knowledge in music has been acquired mostly through listening or other similar musical experience. The consequence of such a multitude is an enormous number of different articles, scientific/professional/research papers, manuals, textbooks, books, dictionaries and encyclopedias that are being written on different aspects classical music, even on a daily basis.

The aim of this paper is to discuss the way in which some pieces of such a textual material can be used in an English classroom in the process of teaching music-related English language to the students of the Academies of Music. The first thing that should be done is to find, define and present some criteria for classification of textual materials on classical music. Prior to doing that, it is necessary to mention some limitations of the classification to be performed and describe in which way some terms are going to be used.

At first, besides the general aforementioned classification of different types of textual materials based on their length, organization, contents and purpose, that can be applied to texts on any kind of human activity, there is no true effort in available literature, both musicological and linguistic, to make a clear subdivision and definite classification and categorization of texts on classical music in terms of their contents, discourse features, lexis and grammar. The main reason for that stands in the fact that it is very difficult to find entire texts that could be classified clearly into one category on the basis of the named criteria, because, logically, most of the texts on music share the features of at least two (if not even more) categories. That is why in the rest of this paper the term "text", will be related to a part, excerpt or an entire (probably shorter) textual unit on classical music that has certain contents presented and organized in a specific, unified and unique way and that could, as such, be used in music-related English language tuition.

2. CATEGORIES (TYPES) OF TEXTS ON MUSIC

Having in mind what has been mentioned in the previous chapter, there are a few categories (or types) of texts that can be found as the characteristic ones in the literature about music. Such categories are: historical, analytical, encyclopedic, textbook, musicological and critic. In the continuation of the paper, some features of each of them will be given.

2.1 Historical Texts

Historical texts on classical music, as their name says, deal with the historical development of music, in terms of musical periods, development of instruments, forms, genres, melody, harmony and composition techniques, important composers, performers and instrument builders. As such, they, textually, share most of features of texts about general history, but with the difference that lays in the fact that they are written about events, movements and persons related to music in certain epoch, and that, as such, they incorporate musically-specific terms (words and expressions). They are mostly written in past tenses, and present an ordered sequence of events and appearances written in concrete, and precise sentences. The sentences contain a lot of relevant epoch-specific information, such as personal names, years (with or without exact dates), names of musical compositions and instruments, names of characteristic musical forms and composition techniques etc.

Here is a brief example of a historical text:

“Mozart had grown up with the new style, but Ludwig van Beethoven (1770-1827) grew up entirely in it. Symphony and sonata were mature, there was no need for Beethoven to create new forms or develop new techniques, for Haydn had already created them and Mozart had shown how to apply them. Beethoven was in a position to select out of the work of Haydn and Mozart what was more forceful and effective. Furthermore, Beethoven was able to benefit from the audience’s experience with the new universal forms”. (Crocker 1986, 415)

2.2 Analytical Texts

Analytical texts deal with the musical analysis (typically formal and/or harmonic, melodic and compositional) of one or more pieces of music. As such, these texts pay a lot attention to musical details within the piece(s) and are mostly written in strict and precise sentences in present tense, with the characteristic, often and abundant use of the passive voice. At the same time, they are full of symbols and signs, starting from those for keys (a minor, E major etc) or tonal functions (D as the dominant or T as the tonic chord in the key) to the specific (uppercase or lowercase) letters (or groups of letters) that present the formal parts of a piece (musical sentence, period, binary or ternary form etc). An important feature of almost every text on musical analysis is the fact that they are more or less based and dependant on a scheme (table or graph), which gives a symbolic representation of relevant parameters of musical analysis in a graphical form (as seen in analyzed piece or pieces of music), so that the analytical texts, in most cases, are simply the textual explanation or verbalization of what can be seen in the scheme. The analyses may also contain relevant examples from the score of what is analyzed with additional textual explanations where necessary.

There are some other important features of analytical texts. According to the way in which they have been written, the texts are easy to read, but can be really difficult to follow if the reader is not familiar with what has been analyzed in terms of knowing the score or sound. It is more or less the same with the way in which the analysis has been performed, because the level and type of musical analysis that is common for students studying at different departments may also differ. For most

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analytical texts it is sometimes a common thing to contain brief historical textbook or encyclopedic references, in terms of epochs, names and biographical data, or definitions of musical terms. That is usually done before the beginning of an analysis or in the conclusion.

Here comes an excerpt from an analytical text:

“The tonal structures of both phrases can be considered as comprising a single harmonic movement. Phrase I moves from i to III, phrase 2 from III to i, brought to a close with V-i. The first fourteen measures of the example can be understood in the light of the whole passage as an extended chord succession, i-III-i, preceding the final cadence V-i.” (Green 1979, 55)

2.3 Encyclopedic Texts

Encyclopedic texts can be found in musical encyclopedias and specific, dedicated dictionaries of music. In their shortest form (in concise music dictionaries and encyclopedias), they contain only the essential information on the topic (person, instrument, epoch, term etc), sometimes even in the form of incomplete (present or past) sentences (theses) that simply carry the relevant facts (names, years, places, terms etc). The use of participles in the purpose of verbal economization and sentence shortening is very common. On the other hand, the texts found in comprehensive music dictionaries and encyclopedias may contain much more information on a single topic, starting the same as the short ones, with a brief and precise definition, explanation or characterization, which gets further developed and supplied with additional information in the continuation of the text (unit) which are given as the briefer and more economic version of historical texts, with clear sentences in present and past and an often use of the passive voice, containing lots of concentrated information.

This is an excerpt from an encyclopedic text:

“**Development section.** The middle section of sonata form. It may be based on the thematic material of the exposition, or may introduce new themes. The possible ways in which the material may be developed are almost infinite.” (Cooper 1971, 114)

2.4 Textbook Texts

Textbook texts are the ones that have been used in “official” textbooks for different musical subjects (Harmony, Counterpoint, Musical Forms, Musical Analysis, History of Music, Solfeggio etc). In a way, they may be treated as a combination of the previously mentioned text types. To a certain degree, in the aspect of writing about the historical development of a given topic, they are similar to the historical texts, and share their common features. On the other hand, when there is a need for presenting something practically, through the analytical example, these texts are similar to the analytical ones. However, according to the fact that the textbook texts are primarily made for learning and studying, they contain lots of rules, definitions and conclusions, which are given, basically, in the form of encyclopedic texts that are grammatically developed and possess stronger semantic and logical connections between sentences and paragraphs, what makes the discourse easy to be followed, understood and learned, both at microstructure and macrostructure level. Analytical and historical parts embodied within them mostly do not take larger portions of text but serve as additional information or exemplification of what has been presented theoretically. That is what makes the textbook texts to stand out as a special type. It is also a common thing for them to contain a lot of references and direct quotations from other texts relevant to the topic they discuss.

Here is an excerpt from a textbook on Harmony:

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“When two parts move in similar motion to a unison, perfect fifth, or perfect octave, that movement is called Hidden or Covered. Hidden unisons are forbidden. Hidden perfect fifths and perfect octaves may occur at any time except between the Soprano and Bass voices at a change of chord with the Soprano moving by disjunct motion.

Parallels by contrary motion occur when two voices move harmonic by contrary motion from one interval to the same harmonic interval. Parallel perfect octaves and parallel fifths by contrary motion must not occur. An octave to a unison has the same effect.” (Unknown author, 1990, 13)

2.5 Musicological Texts

Musicological texts deal with various aspects of musicology, being the systematized study of the science, history, forms, and methods of music. Such texts observe the music from the more advanced level of knowledge, embodying, at one side, the knowledge of different aspects of music and, at the other, of other branches of human and social sciences and arts, such as literature, philosophy, history or painting. Because of that, such texts mostly consist of rich and complex sentences and are dedicated to the specialized, professionally, educationally and culturally enabled (trained, educated and prepared) readers.

This is the beginning of a longer musicological text:

“Like his younger contemporary Vladimir Nabokov, with whom there are some intriguing biographical parallels, Stravinsky did not care to be pigeon-holed or linked with any particular artistic trend after he left Russia. Above all, because of a sense of cultural inferiority which stemmed from the fact that Russia’s musical tradition was so much younger than that of other European nations, he came to disavow his own musical heritage, which necessitated embroidering a complex tapestry of lies and denials. So proficient was Stravinsky in creating an elaborate smoke-screen about who he really was, in fact, that the highly controlled image he projected of his artistic independence remained largely intact for over two decades following his death in 1971.” (Cross 2003, 3)

2.6 Critical Texts

Critical texts (critics or reviews) are the texts written by experts or professionals on certain musical topic (composition, performance, concert event, book etc). Such texts may appear in specific magazines, newspaper pages on culture, conference proceedings, online or, when possible, together with what they have been dedicated to. In the form and construction, they are similar to musicological texts, but they differ from them in a few important things. As first, the critical texts are written as a subjective opinion of an author about something, based on general and specific knowledge of the topic and on personal impression about it. Secondly, critics or reviews are usually briefer than musicological texts because they are precisely concentrated on the topic. Finally, critical texts are the texts that have the greatest effect in the moment of publication, because they refer to a composition, performance, concert or book being actual in the moment of their publication, although there is no doubt that even after that they retain some of their importance and relevance for anyone interested in the topic.

There is an extract from a critic of a performance:

“Pierre’s recording is particularly disappointing in light of his long association with Debussy and the fact that the composer entrusted the premieres of *Iberia* and *Jeux* to him. The flautist mars the opening solo by taking a deep breath in bar 3 after the e2. Although this is sanctioned by a pencil marking in Debussy’s corrected score of c. 1908, flautists generally try to play the four bars in one breath, as in the six other recordings compared here. Pierre’s supporting winds are too loud in bars 4–

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16 and he imposes a considerable accelerando in bars 17–19 and an equally considerable rallentando in bar 25. (Trezise 2003, 271)”

3. ESP TUITION AT THE ACADEMIES OF MUSIC

There are a few important issues that should be covered in the process of teaching English to students at the Academies of Music. Having in mind that all the students who attend the courses in the subject have learned the English language during their elementary and secondary education and that they probably do not share the same amount of knowledge, a part of the course should be dedicated to the renewing and equalization of their general knowledge in English in terms of grammar, reading, vocabulary, listening and speaking on general topics. However, the greatest part of the course should be dedicated to learning and adopting musical terminology, in terms of important words and characteristic expressions, frequent sentence patterns (if any!), and gradual development of students' ability to read, understand and be able to talk about different types of texts on music and musical topics. However, besides the general English knowledge that each particular student possesses, and the learning and adaptation of essential (or even advanced) musical vocabulary, there is a great difference in their possibilities to understand particular texts that is based on the Academy department or course they have been studying at. The students from the Musical-pedagogical-theoretic Department and its courses have a better understanding of more theoretical (analytical (in terms of form, harmony and compositional techniques) and musicological) texts, while the students from the Vocal-Instrumental Department and its courses are usually better in understanding and dealing with critical texts and analytical texts on performance and playing technique. It is mostly the same with their abilities to speak or write on certain relevant music topics and it is certain that such a situation is strongly connected with their background knowledge in music.

4. ESP TUITION AT THE ACADEMY OF MUSIC IN EAST SARAJEVO

At the Academy of Music in East Sarajevo, the tuition in the English Language is organized in four semesters (first two years of studying) and it is compulsory for all the students, regardless of the department/course they study at. The subject is divided in two, English Language 1 (first year of studies) and English Language 2 (second year of studies), and each of them lasts for two semesters. The exam consists of four tests that the students can take during the semesters and the final (oral) exam that can be taken at the end of the second semester. The students have 90 minutes of tuition per week. The renewal and equalization of knowledge in basic concepts of general English is a permanent part of tuition and exams both at English Language 1 (elementary to pre-intermediate level) and English Language 2 (intermediate to advanced level), and that is done on the basis of different grammar practice books (“Good Grammar Book” by M. Swan and C. Walker, “Grammar in Use” by R. Murphy and R. Altman, “Grammar Practice for Pre- intermediate Students” by V. Anderson et al. and “Grammar Practice for Upper Intermediate Students” by D. Powell et al.) and various materials available online. However, the process of learning and adopting of musical vocabulary and terminology through musical texts starts at the very beginning of the tuition and runs parallel with the general English renewal. There are four “official” textbooks used in that purpose. In the first year of studying (English Language 1) the two books that are used are “Engleski jezik za muzičare” by Jelica V. Marković and “Jazz Up Your English 1” by Milijana Grkajac, while in the second year there are the books “Jazz Up Your English 2” and “Waltz Through Your English”, also by Milijana Grkajac. The first of them consists of 32 units, made of (mostly) shorter texts and accompanying reading comprehension, discussion and vocabulary exercises. All the texts that have been used are “original” textual materials taken from various sources (books and texts on music) and they are carefully selected

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so that they consist of clear and understandable sentences suitable for different levels of knowledge. The texts are mostly historic, but there are also some that are textbook, analytical and even musicological, together a few interviews and songs on music. Besides the texts, each unit contains a vocabulary part (not being strictly connected with the preceding) text that introduces some musical terms and gives practical or graphical examples of their use. The book also contains Revision exercises, musical vocabulary and dictionary, pronunciation of proper nouns and lists of musical terms and symbols. The books "Jazz Up Your English 1 and 2" contain 15 units each, and each unit contains a text, reading comprehension exercises and discussion points, some word building rules and examples and a review of certain grammar fields with exercises. The texts are much longer than in the previous book, and are mostly musicological, what means that they are far more difficult, both for understanding and translation and for discussion. At the appendix of both books there are various lists of musical terms and the dictionary of music terms used in the texts. The fourth book, "Waltz Through Your English" is similar, with some differences: the texts are longer and more difficult for students, often requiring a lot of general and specifically musical knowledge to be clearly understood (besides the very good knowledge in English). Some of the texts are related to certain musicological issues while some other are ethnomusicologically oriented, dealing with the issues regarding the features of Serbian music, especially the traditional one. The book has a separate part with grammar exercises, as well as many texts for additional reading.

In practical work with students regarding the musical ESP, the textual materials that appear in the named books can be truly useful only to a certain point. All of them are, without any doubt, extremely useful in their part dealing with music vocabulary, offering the students an opportunity to learn the fundamentals of musical terminology very fast. However, when there is a talk about the mere text found in the textbooks the situation is different, because their topics are often distant and not so fresh and interesting to all students, and in many situations seem out-of-date and without any practical purpose besides the simple reading and comprehension. The reason for that lays in two key points.

The first key point is the fact that has already been mentioned in the text, according to which the students who deal with theoretical musical subjects generally deal better with certain types of texts, while the instrumentalists and vocalists are better in some other. There are also the objective needs of being familiar with certain types of text that vary at students on the basis of their departments and courses in terms of relating the other, professional subjects with the texts in English, what also influences their interest (or the lack of interest) in particular texts.

The second key point are the practical skills that the students of music should have acquire during a musical ESP course. Among the skills, the most important one is the ability of verbal and written communication in English on various musical topics, in a way that demonstrates the understanding and connecting of facts together with clear expressing of opinions and attitudes. Another skill, which is of practical use to students both in English lessons and in many of their vocational, musical subjects, is translation of texts, primarily from English to Serbian, but also from Serbian to English when there is a need for that. According to the fact that the English language is, in a way, a communication standard of the entire world, probably the greatest number of professional texts and book dealing with all possible aspects music that appear at the moment is written and presented in English. To be up-to-date with relevant, accurate and fresh information, it is necessary for a music student to be able to read and understand the multitude texts on music written in English, and, when there is a need for that (in the case when a text is used as the literature for a term paper, scientific paper, diploma (final) work or master thesis), to be able to translate it accurately in Serbian in such a way that the text seems natural and easy to understand.

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If the texts from the mentioned books are used as the only textual material for reading comprehension, discussions, written and oral translation and writing assignments, their reception greatly differs from student to student (on the basis of both linguistic and general or music knowledge), and the consequence of that is the difference in their usefulness in terms of practical skills to be gained by students. Some may find them useful, some completely irrelevant, and some might even treat the texts as any other general English text, without trying to enter into its musical basis. That is why it is an important thing for a teacher to monitor the students' objective needs and interests, and deliver them fresh, updated texts on different and, as much as it is possible, relevant and actual musical topics, ensuring that each of the mentioned textual categories is represented among the texts and that the texts cover the topics adequate for students from different courses and departments. Such diversity, if conducted in a proper, carefully planned manner, with teacher's guidance and assistance whenever necessary, maintains the students' interest in the subject and, at the same time, greatly contributes to the development of their practical English language skills.

5. USE OF DIFFERENT TYPES OF TEXTS ON MUSIC IN ESP TUITION

Historical texts are probably the most suitable texts for all students of music, because of the fact that history, in general, with all of its facts and characters and the clarity in writing is an easy and logical thing to be understood and discussed. It is also easy to connect the knowledge acquired through musical education with the information given in a specific text in English. That is what makes historical text an excellent material for discussions, various written assignments (essays, compositions, many vocabulary exercises based on indirect test items etc). Regarding the exercises in translation, the historical texts are an excellent way for introducing the students to the basic principles of translation from English into Serbian because of the consistency of their sentences and a general familiarity of students with historical texts in Serbian that should make their translation to be smooth and natural.

Similar things can be said for encyclopedic and textbook texts, because, through them, the students simply connect the knowledge of terms and definitions in their mother tongue with the same knowledge in English, and the base of such a general knowledge is more or less the same for all the students. Through acquiring the definitions and rules in English, they learn and adopt the basic principles of sentence and musical discourse formation in general.

All the students of music at all their departments and courses deal with some kind of musical analysis during their studies, related to different components and parameters of a piece of music. Besides some differences that exist between the common Anglo-American and our (Russian and German based) approach to formal and harmonic analysis, mostly in terms of symbols, terminology and the degree of thoroughness in analysis (that are easy to notice or to be emphasized or explained by the teacher), it is very useful for students to be able to see, understand and compare the musical analyses made in English with their own analyses, as well as to be able to present their own analytical results in English. According to the fact that there is always more than one approach to music analysis, it is sometimes very useful to observe something from different perspectives, and due to the abundance of analytical texts that exist in English in various books, articles and all over the Internet, they are an excellent means for that. The texts should not be too long and should be, whenever it is possible, related to the pieces of music that have been introduced and presented to students by means of audio, video or, at least, score before they actually get in touch with the texts of the analysis. The analytical texts are not so interesting materials for translation, except in terms of noticing and converting the mentioned differences from one system to the other, but can be a good basis for written assignments in which the students are asked to make a written analysis of shorter pieces of music that they play, sing or analyze within the other teaching subjects.

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Musicological texts are probably the text the use of which is the most difficult and problematic in English language tuition, due to the fact that they are usually written in a rather complicated manner, with complicated terminology, sentence structures and language in general. At the same time, they cover a wide area of topics and provide a way of thinking on music that is often pretty distant from the way in which the students do that. It is especially difficult to use them if (as it is the case with the Academy of Music in East Sarajevo), the faculty has neither a course nor a subject on Musicology that would introduce the students to the musicological way of thinking in their own mother tongue. That is why such texts can and should be used sparingly, being not too long and carefully prepared and introduced to students. Only the teacher is sure that the students have managed to cope with a text in a proper way, it can be used as a base for a written assignment. On the other hand, musicological texts are an excellent exercising material for practicing written translation into Serbian on a more advanced level.

Finally, more or less the same as with the analysis, every student who finishes the Academy of Music may be asked, at some career point, to write a critic or a review on something, very often in the English language being the “universal” language of the world. That is why it is very important for students to get in touch with various critical texts and thus adopt the basic principles of how they are written. It is not (so) important that the students are familiar with the matter that is the subject of the critic or review, the major thing for them is to adopt the means of expression and sentence patterns of such texts. That can be done through translation exercises and practical written assignments in writing critics and reviews and their practical oral argumentation in front of the class.

6. CONCLUSION

There are various types of texts on music, and all of them can find their use in the English language tuition at the Academies of Music. The amount in which a particular type of text will be used depends on various factors, and should be carefully planned by the teacher. The department or course at which students study greatly defines and directs their practical needs, affinities and interests and in specific types of texts in English, what further influences their understanding of particular texts and ability to speak and write about them, and, finally, affects the practical skills they acquire during the ESP tuition. It is a good and necessary thing to use some special, dedicated books (collections of texts and exercises) as a general basis for the tuition, but in order to make it truly interesting, dynamic and fruitful, the selection of additional texts to be delivered to students and discussed with them in the classroom needs to be made, together with a carefully designed set of additional information, activity plan and exercises and assignments given to students.

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**On History and Etymology of Colour Terms: The Colour Red
(On why the Spanish guarded jealously the secret of the "holy blight", what
Tintoretto had in common with the English Redcoats and what has blood to do
with all that)**

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Abstract: The study of colour terms is essential to building art historical discourse. This paper looks into the history and etymology of colour terms for red. Also included are the narratives behind/accompanying the etymologies: they make for a captivating study per se as well as, from the methodological point of view, helping raise students' awareness of language, adding interest to the subject in hand and, ultimately, increasing students' motivation for studying.

Key words: colour terms for red, etymology, related narratives, art historical discourse

The study of the staples of visual expression, such as colour, tonal qualities, line, light, composition, form and texture, is essential to building an informed art historical discourse. Exploring colour in English with Serbian students always poses something of a challenge, not least because for many colour terms there exist no standard translations in Serbian (e.g. the cases of linguistic creativity or purely technical usage). Furthermore, even if standard translations do exist, the terms occur with different frequency in English and in Serbian – a fact that can somewhat affect the reception of these colour terms in context. Since translation equivalents of colour terms merit special attention, the author may only occasionally make references to some of them as they appear in the broader context of this paper, while mainly focusing on the history and etymology of select colour terms (or, in some cases, the pigments that produced them). Also included are several short narratives behind/accompanying the etymologies, little colour cameos bearing witness to human ingenuity, chance or merely oddity, immortalized in these colour terms and living on through them, long after the protagonists of the stories have perished and the original pigments after which the colours were named have gone out of use.

Due to limitations of space, the paper has confined itself only to the colour red (whilst the others, by no means less interesting, the author hopes to explore in the next instalment) i.e. the terms for various hues and pigments of red, without which art history and yes, the history of mankind, would have a very different face today.

The Colour Red

The word *red* derives from the Old English *rēd*, which can be traced to Proto-Germanic *rauthaz* and the Proto-Indo European (PIE) root *reudh-*. In fact, red is the only colour for which a definite common

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PIE root has been found (Harper 2012). A similar word in Sanskrit, *rudhira*, means blood, which is why it has been suggested that the colour red derives its name from the word *blood*.

Indeed, blood has been used for centuries in the process of obtaining certain kinds of red. This fact is evident from the etymology of *carmine* and *crimson*:

carmine [Fr *carmin* < ML *carminium* < Ar *qirmiz*, crimson (< Sans *krimiṣā*, insect-produced < *krmi*, worm, insect: the dye comes from crushed insects: see *cochineal*)] (Neufeldt and Guralnik 1984, 213). *cochineal* - a red dye made from the dried bodies of female cochineal insects: used esp. formerly, in colouring foods, cosmetics, etc. (Neufeldt and Guralnik 1984, 268). Note that the Serbian word *crven* also derives from the Serbo-Croatian *crv*, or the Proto-Slavic *čьrvь* (this particular derivation being associated with the so-called Polish cochineal, later mentioned in this paper), which, in turn, can again be traced back to Sans. *krmi*.

The story of *cochineal* (Serbian *kocinal/kočinal*) is such a fascinating one that it merits more space than just a mere mention as a dictionary entry. "For centuries it was the treasure of the Incas and the Aztecs, and for centuries after that it was the treasure of the Spaniards, who guarded their secret crop jealously. It has been used on the robes of kings and cardinals, on the lips of screen goddesses, on the camel bags of nomads and on the canvases of great artists" (Finley 2003, 136).

Cochineal, or the so-called Spanish Red, is a red dye made from crushed and dried bodies of the females of the cochineal insect, *Dactylopius Coccus*, which lives on pear cacti (genus *Opuntia*) and is native to tropical and sub-tropical South America and Mexico. It is believed that both the Incas and Aztecs had whole agricultural systems based on cochineal, and they valued it second only to gold and silver. After Columbus' discovery of the New Land, the dye was introduced to Europe (in 1523 Cortés sent the first shipment to Spain), but the Spaniards kept the true origin of the pigment, "the holy blight" (Finley 2003, 137), secret until the 18th century, when a young botanist managed to, at a great risk to his life, smuggle some insects out of Mexico, which were, alas, short-lived. In an attempt to protect their trade, the guilds of Venetian dyers initially banned the cochineal, but such was the demand for this new brilliant colour, that they soon had to lift the ban. In the 17th century, cochineal was second only to silver as the most important exported commodity from Mexico. The robes of the highest-ranking church officials and of the wealthiest laymen, and in later centuries, even the uniforms of the famous English Redcoats, were dyed with cochineal (though these were also dyed with a cheaper paint, made from the common madder plant). The vibrant red dye was in such high demand throughout Europe that its price was regularly quoted on the London and Amsterdam Commodity Exchanges. Oddly enough, the use of cochineal was not only confined to dyeing and painting. For centuries, it was believed to have healing properties. For example, "when Philip II of Spain was sick he would get a mixture of ground beetles and vinegar served to him on a silver spoon." (Finley 2003, 153)

Almost all major artists from the Renaissance onwards (including Rembrandt, Vermeer, Rubens, Velasquez, Boucher, Gainsborough, Turner, Serat, Braque, Dufy, etc.) used cochineal. The son of a dyer, Tintoretto (from Ital. *tintore* "little dyer" or "dyer's boy") was especially partial to Carmine Red Lake pigment and used it generously both for the robes of wealthy bankers, merchants and cardinals, and for those of Early Christian martyrs. In spite of its extraordinary brilliance, this colour can easily fade if not fixed properly, and it is especially in watercolours that it has extremely poor lightfastness, a fact which Turner either did not know or, more likely, did not care much about. In either case, when we today look at J. M. W. Turner's "Waves Breaking against the Wind", we see that "the carmine pigment, like the day the artist was imagining, has disappeared into memory" (Finley 2003, 34). In the 19th century, after the invention of synthetic pigments and dyes such as *alizarin* (also

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alizarin in Serbian), the cochineal market went into sharp decline, only to be revived recently by a growing demand for natural food colourants (cochineal is labelled as colour additive E120) and cosmetics dyes (e.g. lipsticks). Last year, following protests by vegetarian consumers, Starbucks declared that it will no longer use cochineal extract in their food.

Whilst Tintoretto quickly grew addicted to the New World colour, cochineal, only a few decades earlier, Lorenzo Lotto, as well as many other Italian painters of that time, had to make do with another dyestuff, also called *carmine*, obtained from an Old World insect of the genus *kermes* (*kermes vermilio*) chemically related to cochineal but with a much weaker concentration of colour: in comparison with the three Old World dye insects that contain carminic acid, cochineal has the largest quantity, "fifteen to thirty three times as much" (Bohmer 1997,157)." From its Sanskrit name, *krim-dja*, came the words *carmine* (Serbian *karmin*) and *crimson* (Serbian *grimiz*). And today's Persian speakers still use the word *kermes* if they want to describe red ". (Finlay 2003,145)

Instead of being sun-dried like *cochineal*, *kermes* insects were usually immersed in vinegar. The dye was produced from as early as the Neolithic period, and was used abundantly by the ancient Persians, Mesopotamians and Egyptians, as well as being mentioned in the Bible, where, God demands from the Israelites an offering including "a veil of blue, and purple and *scarlet*" (KJV, Ex.26:31). In medieval Europe, scarlet was a new kind of very fine, fashionable and expensive cloth, imported from central Asia. Interestingly, scarlet was not always red, but also blue, green and black. However, the kermes red-dyed cloth seems to have been favoured by the rich and mighty, and in time the term scarlet in English shifted its meaning and came to denote the fashionable vibrant red hue. Thus, "a 'scarlet woman' actually means a 'woman of the cloth', which would be particularly galling to some members of the Christian Church, accustomed as some of their scarlet-clad bishops are to denouncing the world's oldest profession." (Finlay 2003, 147). But the word used for *scarlet* in the 4th-century Latin Vulgate version of the above Biblical text is *coccumque bis tinctum*, which means "colored twice with *coccus*." *Coccus*, derived from the Greek word *kokkos*, meaning a small berry or grain, was used, obviously metaphorically, to denote the *kermes vermilio* insect from which the kermes dye was obtained. In Roman times, both Pliny the Younger and Dioscorides refer to it as (oak) berry or grain. Thus, the expression "dyed in the grain", that is "to ingrain", can be traced back to the kermes and subsequently, cochineal insect [from ME *engreinen* < OFr *engrainer*, to dye scarlet < *en* + *graine*, seed, cochineal dye (Neufeldt and Guralnik 1984, 451)]. The Romans loved kermes so much that sometimes they demanded their taxes be paid in it. For example, half of Spain's taxes to Rome were in the form of kermes, called *grana* in Spain. By the Middle Ages, kermes was one of the most sought-after dyes in Europe.

Made from related insects, Polish carmine scales, but of higher quality and more expensive, was *Polish kermes* (*Coccus polonicus*), also called "Blood of St John" (the female larvae reached maturity and were harvested around June 24th, St John the Baptist's Day). It is to Polish kermes that we probably owe the word for red in most modern Slavic languages (derived from Proto-Slavic *čьrvьbь*). In Poland, the trade in Polish kermes was mostly plied by Jewish merchants, and it flourished until the introduction of cheaper Mexican cochineal, after which it fell into relative disuse. The same destiny befell the *kermes of Armenia*, which yielded an even finer and more expensive variety of red.

Although kermes was immensely popular in cloth-dyeing and there are also records of painters buying and using it [e.g. records exist of Lotto buying, in 1541, 6 ounces of kermes, worth 6 ducats an ounce, a pretty large sum for that time (Chambers and Pullan 1992, 439)], many Renaissance artists were well aware of its reputation for being a fugitive dye. What then alternatives did artists like

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Carpaccio (think *Carpaccio red*) Lotto, Titian (think famous *Titian red*) and their contemporaries have (apart from the expensive new *cochineal* or *carmine* which did not really take root in Italy before the second half of the 16th century)?

For starters, they had *vermillion*. Theirs was an improved version, but the dye had been in use for centuries. Vermillion is a bright red pigment obtained from the mineral *cinnabar* (mercuric sulfide), the latter often having been used as a synonym for vermillion though its use nowadays is mostly restricted to the unground mineral, whilst vermillion itself is usually called China red. Technically speaking, *vermillion* is translated into Serbian as *cinober*. But tracing etymologies is such a complicated business: just at the moment when we have moved on to minerals, and with a sigh of relief propose to leave the unsavoury subject of bugs and blood behind us, here they pop up again, like some ancient nemesis, or an ingrained memory of man's dark passions and obsessions.

The term *vermillion* (also spelled *vermilion*) is derived from OFr *vermeil* (meaning red colour) which, in turn, was derived from LL (Ec) *vermiculus* (meaning *kermes vermilio*), that is, from the Latin diminutive of *vermis* (worm), (Neufeldt and Guralnik 1984,1482). The memory of the insects' bright red blood was also recorded and preserved both in Portuguese and Catalan words for red, as *vermelho* and *vermell* respectively. The first recorded use of the term in English was in 1289 (Maerz and Paul 1930, 206).

Since prehistoric times, cinnabar pigment was used in Spain, India (where Hindu women still use it, under the name of Sindoor, along the hair parting line to indicate that they are married) and China, where the famous Chinese red was characteristic of exquisite Chinese carved *lacquerware*. Speaking of which, and while we are still on the subject of worms and insects, the temptation to look into the origin of *lac* (and *shellac* as refined *lac*), so important to artists and artisans for centuries, is irresistible: "a resinous substance secreted by various scale insects, esp. a species of India (*Laccifer lacca*), that live on certain fig, soapberry and acacia trees; when melted, strained and rehardened, it forms shellac" (Neufeldt and Guralnik 1984, 753). Furthermore, some linguists believe that the word *lac* is also derived from Sanskrit *lākshā* "red dye" (Harper 2012).

The fact that the Romans referred to *vermillion/cinnabar* as *minium* (Serbian *minijum*) has given rise to considerable semantic and etymological confusion, but this paper will return to minium later. The Romans valued *cinnabar* so highly that it was ten times more expensive than red ochre, another red pigment in use at the time. They coated the faces of their victorious generals with it as well as employing it in the fresco decoration of their villas, such as those in Pompeii (recent study, however, has shown that the famous Pompeii red was more often than not obtained by heating up yellow ochre, whilst the expensive cinnabar was used only on the walls of the most splendid villas). The pigment mostly came to Rome from Spanish mines, most notably Almadén, which today is still the world's most productive mercury mine. Mercury being highly toxic, the slaves and prisoners who worked on the extraction of the ore were, practically, sentenced to death by poisoning (and in 16th century Spain, convicted criminals were either sentenced to working on the galleys or at Almadén; those who got the galleys could consider themselves lucky, for those who went to Almadén faced, within several years, a certain and unpleasant death). As Pliny the Elder recounts in his "Natural History", cinnabar emerged as the result of an epic struggle between an elephant and a dragon. The dragon eventually prevailed, but as the dying elephant fell, it crushed the dragon with its weight and their blood merged, thus creating cinnabar.

The semantic confusion concerning the word *minium* (probably originating from the Minius River in Spain where the ore was first mined) stems from the fact that in Latin it was used to denote

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both cinnabar/vermillion and, to a lesser extent, a reddish lead oxide, perhaps because cinnabar was often adulterated with red lead. Several centuries later, Cennino Cennini, an early Renaissance painter to whom we are greatly indebted for our knowledge of the techniques and technologies employed by his contemporaries, refers to minium in the following way: "A color known as red lead is red, and it is manufactured by alchemy." (Thompson 1932-3,25). Though less colourfast, red lead was used as a substitute for original vermillion because it was cheaper. Needless to say, the possibility of inhaling the pigment powder or ingesting it in some other form, made working with red lead a great health hazard. In the Middle Ages it was widely used in manuscript illumination. The word *miniature* itself is more likely a reference to the red lead pigment *minium*, rather than to the actual size of the illumination: 'from It. *miniatura* "manuscript illumination or small picture," from pp. of *miniare* "to illuminate a manuscript," from L. *miniare* "to paint red," from *minium* "red lead," used in ancient times to make red ink' (Harper 2012). As for size, Indian and Persian miniatures from the 17th to the 19th centuries, which also made abundant use of red lead, were by no means always small.

Even though today most people will have heard of *Venetian blue* (a lovely romantic nondescript term usually taken to denote anything from cobalt blue to greenish blue) rather than of *Venetian red*, the latter is far more relevant to the history of colour. In the Renaissance, Venetians actually made their own expensive bright red dye derived from nearly pure ferric oxide of the hematite type, enriched with arsenic, a secret ingredient added to enhance the brightness [The first recorded use of Venetian red as a color name in English was in 1753 (Maerz and Paul 1930)]. Incidentally, that the production of dyes and beauty generated by them involved not only hard and unpleasant work but could sometimes be even lethal is also demonstrated by the following facts: arsenic sulphide was also an ingredient of Orpiment (Serbian *orpiment*), a rare orange to yellow mineral (derived from Latin *auripigmentum*, "pigment of gold") yielding a lovely golden colour, considered the most lethal of all. Whilst the high toxicity of vermillion and minium has already been mentioned, it should be said that harvesting cochineal had to be done with utmost care lest the fine spines from the cacti got on the skin or into the eyes, when they had been known to cause blindness. The worst-smelling dye was probably *verdigris* (lit. "green of Greece", from obsolete French *verd* and Latin *viridis*; the reference to Greece remains unexplained), as the process by which it was obtained often involved suspending copper over urine. Urine was also used to fix *woad* (Serbian *sača plava*) and *indigo*; from about 200 B.C. there remains, for example, a Roman description of a dyer with foul-smelling hands. But the worst nightmare of every Early Renaissance apprentice was perhaps another red dye, called *madder red*, because the pigment had to be ground for a long time: the longer it was ground, the brighter it became.

Madder red (Serbian *kraplak*), extracted from the root of the madder plant */rubia tinctorum* (Serbian *broć*), is one of the oldest dyestuffs known to us. Depending on how long it had been pounded and on the mordant used, it yielded a variety of reds, ranging from bright orange ones to pink, brownish and purplish. Pieces of fabric dyed with madder and dating from the 3rd millennium B.C. have been found in the ruins of ancient India, in Egyptian tombs and at the archeological sites of classical Greece and Rome. Throughout the Middle Ages people were "mad about madder" (Finlay 2003,183), so much so that Charlemagne himself in his *Capitulare de villi*, a chapter on the management of his estates, requested that madder be grown within his domain. It was used, alongside cochineal, for dyeing the historic uniforms of English and later British soldiers, from which they derive the name *redcoats*. In the 18th century, one of the most popular colours was Turkey red (it probably originated in India and subsequently spread to Turkey), famous for its brightness and steadfastness, obtained from madder root through a complicated process involving "sumac, oak galls, calf's blood, sheep's dung, oil, soda, alum, and a solution of tin" (Goodwin 1982, 65). Since the chemical name of the pigment is *alizarin*, [etymology: Fr.& Sp *alizari*, dried madder root <Ar *al*

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Sušārah the juice < *Sašāra*, to press (Neufeldt and Guralnik 1984, 34)] madder lake has often been referred to as alizarin (Serbian *alizarin*), or alizarin crimson. In the 19th century, after the invention of a much cheaper and readily available synthetic alizarin, the market for madder collapsed almost overnight; in 1868 the price of madder in London was thirty shillings a hundred-weight; in 1869 it was just eight.

Finally, there is perhaps yet another, purplish red colour, which, though synthetic, merits mention in this historical overview of colour terms. *Magenta* holds a special place in colour terminology, both for its importance today in colour-printing (as being one of the essential four inks comprising the CMYK colour model) and for its etymology. The name commemorates the 1859 Battle of Magenta in northern Italy (the town itself was probably named after the Roman general and emperor Marcus Aurelius Valerius Maxentius who, supposedly, had his headquarters there), fought on the wave of Italian Romantic Nationalism, which brought a decisive victory to the French Sardinian forces in their fight against the Austrians, and further paved the way for the unification of Italy. The victory having resonated throughout Europe and in the hearts of the like-minded liberals, nationalists and romantics, the dye magenta, also called fuchsine, invented along with a less famous but similar colour *solferino* (commemorating victory at the Italian village of Solferino), was romantically named after this event, and evokes, at least metaphorically, the blood spilled for a great idea on the battlefield. And there was a lot of blood spilt in both battles - in fact, so cruel was the battle of Solferino that Henry Dunant, a Swiss businessman and social activist who arrived there on the day of the battle to see thirty eight thousand wounded, dying or dead left unattended on the battlefield, felt compelled to write *A Memory of Solferino*, a book that was to inspire the creation of the International Committee of the Red Cross in 1863. Thus, one cannot help feeling that, in this red colour overview, things have come full circle: blood was there at the start and blood is there at the end. But so are human creativity, beauty, passion and compassion.

With magenta, the list of basic red colour terms that have artistic and historical significance, as well as holding linguistic, especially etymological interest, has been mainly exhausted. However, this paper would be incomplete if some relevant methodological points were not reiterated in the conclusion. The study of colour terms is essential to building art historical discourse. The etymologies and the narratives behind them or accompanying them make for a captivating study per se as well as, from the methodological point of view, helping raise students' awareness of language, adding interest to the subject in hand and, ultimately, increasing students' motivation for studying. Even though the subject of the above paper falls within art history studies, the principle and rationale behind this approach applies to teaching English in virtually all specialized fields of study. Naturally, this kind of approach entails the specialization of the teacher as well as that of students.

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Undergraduate Engineering Students' Perception of Framework of ESP Courses at University Curriculum

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Abstract: The curriculum of the Latvia University of Agriculture (LUA), a regional university, includes content-based courses of *Professional Foreign Language* studies in the first years, which are mostly implemented in English (English for Specific Purposes, ESP). ESP courses at the Latvia University of Agriculture are designed on the basis of: 1) the needs analysis of learners, employers, graduates; 2) the documents on education and language teaching and learning issued in the EU and in Latvia, Professions' Standards of the Republic of Latvia; 3) implementation of the latest trends in ESP research in the field. The aim of the paper is to find out the students' perception of the framework of ESP courses at the Latvia University of Agriculture. The study was conducted in three faculties. One hundred and fifteen students were surveyed. The survey findings revealed the respondents' opinions regarding the necessity of ESP acquisition at the LUA, the optimum duration of the ESP course, and the strengths and weaknesses of the organization and content of the course.

Key words: ESP, needs analysis, course content

1. INTRODUCTION

The European Commission actively promotes multilingualism in diverse spheres of life as considers it to be an essential asset for the development of Europe to preserve linguistic diversity in the European Union (EU); its website states that a long-term goal is "to increase individual multilingualism until every citizen has practical skills in at least two languages in addition to his or her mother tongue" (European Commission). Therefore, new challenges for foreign language acquisitions exist also in Latvia, and teaching and learning English for specific purposes (ESP) are among them.

1.1 Problem of research

The knowledge of foreign languages plays a significant role in economics and science therefore it should be an essential part of education, especially at the university. Contemporary education envisages increasing students' and young professionals' mobility within the European Union borders and beyond. As regards ESP courses at the Latvia University of Agriculture, they are designed on the basis of the requirements for specific professions and occupations determined in the regulations of the National Occupational Standards adopted by the Cabinet of Ministers of the Republic of Latvia. They

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state that most of the professions and occupations require general knowledge of one or two foreign languages and also the terminology of the subject field in one or two foreign languages. Besides, universities in Latvia should prepare specialists with proficient foreign language knowledge as the labour market in our country requires specialists with outstanding foreign language skills (Grasmane and Grasmane 2011, 192-201). Alongside with the identification of the requirements of the working environment, it is also very important to identify students' individual needs and their attitudes towards foreign languages as means for development of their professional, intellectual, cultural and social competencies.

Concerning the organization of the study process of ESP at the Latvia University of Agriculture (LUA), the following problems were identified: the average foreign language entry proficiency level of the students was less advanced than in the country on the whole (Ozola and Zeidmane 2012, 380-8), the number of credit points were reduced in some study programmes, the number of students in one group increased, the language proficiency levels were very diverse in one group, students autonomous learning skills could be more developed, etc. The aim of the present paper is to analyze students' opinion regarding the quality of ESP classes at the university and the necessity of ESP acquisition, the optimum duration of the ESP course, and the strengths and weaknesses of the course.

1.2. Method of research

General methods of research are used: comparative analysis, synthesis, survey. Undergraduate students of the LUA (n=115) of the Latvia University of Agriculture were surveyed. The questionnaire contained 6 questions in which students had to express their opinion regarding the quality of the organization of the English language study process and the relevance of the ESP course to the labour market demands.

2. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

ESP researchers (Dudley-Evans and St. John 1998; Hutchinson and Waters 1987) define ESP teaching/learning as a study course that is designed to meet specific needs of adult learners and is related in content, methodology and activities to a specific subject field or occupation focusing on those language aspects of syntax, vocabulary, text structure, semantics, and so on, that are appropriate to such content. ESP study courses are goal-oriented and they are designed for intermediate or advanced students. The majority of authors writing about ESP emphasize the importance of the necessity of on-going needs analysis and the final assessment of the mastered language skills. Since ESP course is taught in the 1st and 2nd year of the undergraduate programme of the Latvia University of Agriculture, the undergraduate students could be classified as pre-experienced learners that have just arrived from the secondary schools. This should be taken into account when setting the aims and designing syllabus for the ESP course, choosing linguistic and professional content and methodology used in the classroom.

The teaching of the foreign language for specific purposes for non-philologist students at the tertiary level should be aimed at developing competences necessary for the world of work. The

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Latvian researcher Luka 2007 considers that the competence of foreign language for specific purposes consists of communicative, intercultural and professional activity competences, the components of which interact in a definite socio-cultural context. ESP study course should be designed according to the needs analysis and mostly are content-based. Students at the university improve their language skills, acquired during secondary school, and gain new skills and the knowledge necessary for their future career and the academic environment. The focus is on the development of knowledge and skills necessary for the reception of scientific and professional texts, and production skills, speaking and writing, are also concerned with scientific and professional activities.

Academic staff in technical universities have to comply with the features of the information era and labour market demands as well as regular changes in the production process due to the transformations of product specifications, management system, technological processes, quality control system, etc. As it is widely known, universities are not able to provide the student with the whole amount of the scientific knowledge and skills necessary for the whole working life. Universal and sustainable skills, which will be useful for various areas of professional activity in the long-term period, are important both for production and the university education. The objective is to develop relevant competences in engineering students providing them not only with relevant knowledge, but also developing problem solution abilities, independent thinking, information processing skills, enabling them to perform the tasks necessary in the world of work (Radcliffe 2006).

The knowledge of foreign languages is necessary for obtaining versatile scientific information online. The European Reference Framework has included communication in foreign languages among eight key competences for lifelong learning stating that essential skills for communication in foreign languages consist of ability to understand spoken messages, to initiate, sustain and conclude conversations, and to read, understand and produce texts appropriate to the individual's needs. Some of the most important documents, concerning language learning within the European Union, include "The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment (CEFR)" and "Common Reference Levels" with the description of levels and skills appropriate to a certain level which are used as a point of reference uniformly across Europe.

The curriculum of the Latvia University of Agriculture (LUA), a regional university, includes content-based ESP courses in the first and second years of undergraduate studies which are integrated in the whole study process, stressing the interdisciplinary approach when preparing specialists for agriculture and engineering. The interdisciplinary cooperation at the university and the connection between the ESP courses and special subjects might be strengthened by the approaches in which students have to use their English knowledge in real situations. The Latvia University of Agriculture practices the application of the method of CLIL (Content and language integrated learning) and arranges regular international student scientific conferences, requiring students to apply academic English language skills (Malinovska et al. 2012, 152-7).

3. ANALYSIS OF RESULTS

In Latvia, foreign language learning starts from the primary school as set in 2008 by the National Standards for Secondary Education, including foreign language proficiency. According to this regulation, pupils are expected to reach B2-C1 of CEFR at the Centralized Foreign Language Examination (CE) in Form 12, if they study English as their first foreign language. As regards the

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proficiency level of a second foreign language that they start from Form 10, upon finishing school, pupils should reach level B1. However, misunderstanding could be caused by the fact that the use of the symbols and descriptions of criteria at CE in Latvia differ from those of the CEFER. The proficiency levels in Latvia are evaluated by Levels from A to F. However, Level A characterizes the most advanced English proficiency level, but Level F – the least advanced proficiency level. Starting from 2013, the results of the CE will be expressed in percentage thus, hopefully, making the comparison of the examination results more understandable.

With the aim to clarify the students' perceptions of the quality of teaching English for Specific Purposes (ESP) at the Latvia University of Agriculture (LUA), at the end of 2012, a research study was conducted in three faculties: the Faculty of Civil Engineering, the Forest Faculty and the Faculty of Engineering. One hundred and fifteen undergraduates were surveyed. The main survey findings revealed the respondents' opinions regarding the necessity of ESP acquisition, the optimum duration of the ESP course, and the strengths and weaknesses of the course.

In order to design a course relevant to students' needs and the language proficiency level, it was important to clarify the English language proficiency level of the students (Fig.1).

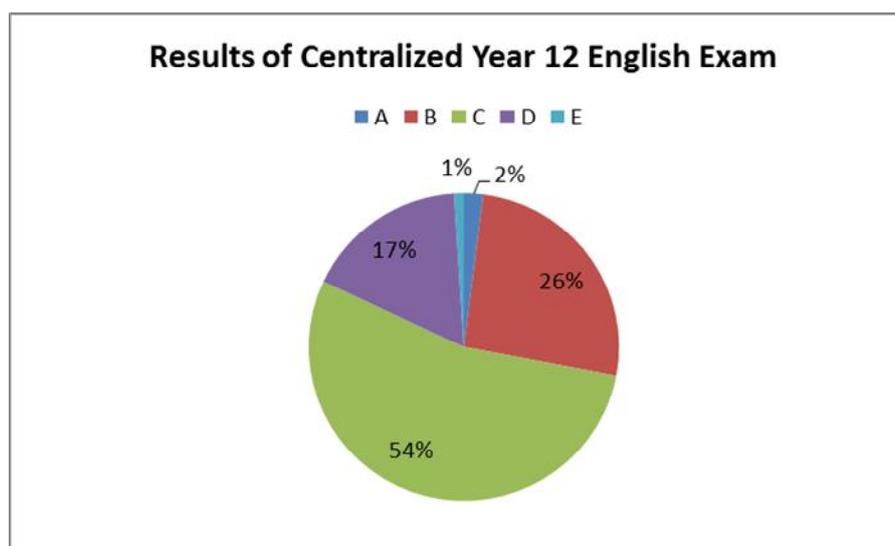


Fig.1. Results of Centralized Year 12 English Examination

Only 2% of the respondents had reached the highest A level at the Centralized Foreign Language Examination. More than half of the students had reached the average C level. At the same time, there is a quite large number of students with level D, and some even with level E, whose language knowledge is not sufficient for learning academic and professional language on a tertiary level. The diversity of foreign language proficiency levels in the group was also one of the negative aspects marked by the students in the survey.

The survey was conducted in December, 2012, when the first term was almost over and, since the respondents were the second-year students, they were experienced enough to assess the organization of the ESP course study process and point out its strengths and weaknesses. All respondents are of the opinion that the knowledge and skills acquired during the ESP classes will be

useful for their future career (Fig.2). No one considers ESP classes useless, which means the designed content of the ESP course was adequate to meet the students' needs for their future career.

Acquisition of professional terms, the obtained knowledge about the profession, the latest information about the subject field, educative and interesting materials were indicated by almost all respondents as the most useful gains of the ESP study process. Students equally highly valued the acquired presentation skills and the developed speaking skill in relation to professional topics.

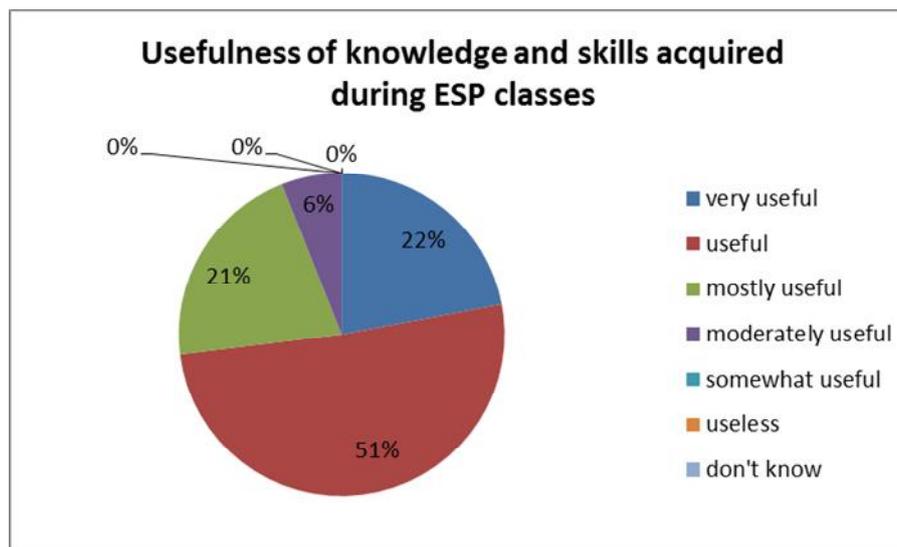


Fig. 2. Usefulness of knowledge and skills acquired during ESP classes

Among the main drawbacks and shortcomings the respondents mentioned such aspects as big groups, a small number of classes per week, insufficient amount of time allocated for development of the speaking skill, inadequate amount of practical tasks providing additional opportunities to practice the complicated professional terms .

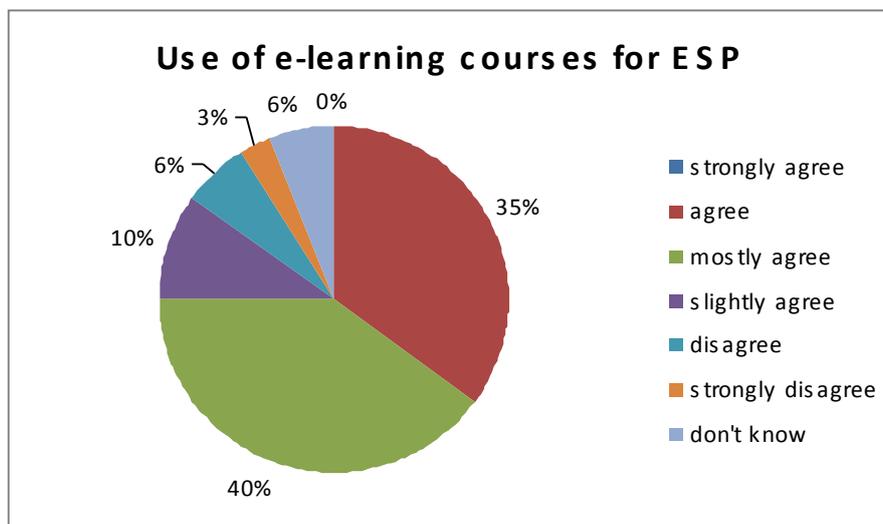


Fig. 3. Use of e-learning courses for ESP

One of the solutions to the above-mentioned problems could be a wider application of the e-learning environment in the study process. The majority of respondents support the use of e-learning courses as modern technologies are entering our lives more and more quickly (Fig.3). It was generally agreed that e-learning adds interest and diversifies the learning and teaching methods. It allows students to plan their time and helps them to improve their knowledge. However, there are students who hold the view that computers are bad for health. Several respondents give preference to face-to-face contact with a tutor, emphasizing the importance of developing speaking skills.

In order to clarify what language aspects should be included in the course content, the respondents were asked to rank various language skills and functions according to the importance of their acquisition in the ESP study course. A clear majority (66%) indicated acquisition of the specialized professional terminology as the most important one. The next priorities included the development of the reading skill for the reception of scientific texts, articles or publications connected with the chosen profession (33%), and the development of business communication skills for getting acquainted, being able to participate in discussions, interviews, telephone conversations, etc. (33%), which was followed by preparation of a speech, making and delivering of presentations (32%). The respondents stated that revision of grammar topics (22%) and listening to lectures, speeches, broadcasts in order to understand the basic idea and comprehend the necessary information were a little less important (21%).

4. CONCLUSIONS

1. The findings of this research study show that students of a regional university are willing to develop their English language skills and ESP vocabulary knowledge, they consider that communication skills developed during the ESP classes will be necessary for their carrier.
2. According to the students' evaluation, it is necessary to revise the organization of the study process by allocating additional possibilities for students to acquire ESP and by designing e-courses with additional exercises.
3. Among the greatest strengths of the ESP course at the LUA, students have indicated acquisition of professional terminology. It is necessary to note that students consider important the development of

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professional literature reading skills, business communication skills, presentation skills and enhancement of business and academic English knowledge.

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Teaching EST in Algeria: Training or Retraining Language Teachers?

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Abstract: In this new millennium, learning English to fulfill communicative purposes becomes a worldwide concern, and Algeria is one of the interesting nations in developing the status of English regarded as a key to scientific and technological development. To meet such a challenge, the educational authority in Algeria implements the use of English mainly at all tertiary-level institutions. ESP courses are provided in different departments to meet learners' specific objectives both academic and occupational. In this respect, teaching English for Specific Purposes (ESP) at the university level seems to have its own challenges and requirements in Algeria. This is, particularly, on the part of the language teacher and to ensure learners' success, teachers' qualifications, attitudes, and attributes have to be taken into consideration along side with the learners' needs and desires. In this line of thought, our General English teachers often express their inadequacy for such positions; this may occur because of their fear of being unable to cater for their learners' specific needs. As a result, being unprepared for teaching ESP, language teachers often find themselves obliged to rely on their own experience to teach those classes, as well as, to create their own teaching materials with respect to their students' discipline and needs, too. Therefore, the main aim of the current paper is to present, discuss and reflect upon the actual situation of the language teachers who have been trained in linguistics, phonetics, civilization, etc, and who are recruited to teach EST at the physics department within the faculty of Exact Sciences of Tlemcen University, and to search for the possible ways to increase the competence and confidence of those EST practitioners through a moderate call towards retraining them in other areas of interests.

Key-words: *ESP, EST, language teachers, qualifications, situation, training.*

1. INTRODUCTION

In this new and unique millennium where the world is struggling to interconnect mainly under Globalization, a wide variety of changes are, chiefly, taking place. In this sense, our first concern as individuals in that large-scale context is not only to outline those impacts of this process upon the world political, economic and commercial systems, but also to go beyond to mark out its immediate effects on a set of countries which are seeking change, essentially, for a better future. In this line of thought, Algeria, the nation which is looking for an internal recovery and international comeback has and still is endeavouring to reform all its systems including the educational one.

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1.1 Problematic

As an interesting part of those Algerian reforms is the adoption of different strategies and systems in a hope to achieve a better teaching/learning process at all levels of education. At the tertiary level, our ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research has called for the implementation of the 'LMD' system as a new-fangled policy for a change, besides the ESP courses.

In ESP context, language teachers who are considered to be responsible for the teaching and learning process, supposed to deliver suitable content and valuable guidance for their learners, they themselves prove to encounter serious difficulties preventing them to adequately function for the required purposes as so much focus is given to the learner and almost neglected the teachers' professional needs to cope with the actual requirements. In this vein, our first concern as researchers is to try to shed some fresh light on our higher educational settings while implementing ESP courses, to reflect upon a set of facts in the eyes of both key parameters notably; our learners and their teachers, to outline their current situations and future perspectives is believed to be of worthy significance.

Hence, our enquiry would be mainly articulated in the following way: *What are the main difficulties our teachers, besides, their learners are fundamentally faced to? What are their major prospects? Can someone speak about a better professionalization of the teaching/learning process without reconsidering our ESP lecturers' preparations?*

1.2 Context Description

Algeria, as the rest of the globe, endeavours to implement and therefore, develop the use of English to insure better communication, as well as easy access to knowledge for students, workers, researchers, etc. At the tertiary level, English is introduced in different curricula at different departments nationwide, either as a main subject at the English department and by which students are required to attend the following modules: Literature, Civilization, Linguistics, Phonetics, Oral Expression, Written Expression, TEFL and so forth; or simply as an additional but 'compulsory' module. At this department, i.e., English language and Literature Department, the majority of teachers who are in charge of these courses are full time teachers and who hold either Magister or PhD degree. Part time teachers can also teach and they often hold a License in English and are either first year or second year Magister students.

As mentioned above, apart from the English Department, English is also introduced in other departments and it holds the status of an additional module but 'compulsory'. Students who belong to one of the following specialties: Mathematics, Physics, Chemistry, Sciences, Engineering, Economics, Political Sciences, etc, are required to follow ESP courses, depending on their area of research and their needs, as well. Hence, different ESP courses are provided nationwide under different labels. The most common ones are: EST 'English for Science and Technology', EBE 'English for Business and Economics', and ESS 'English for Social Sciences'. As a result, English as a component is studied alongside their current modules.

The vast majority of these teachers are part time teachers who are engaged in other situations and who have other duties, besides their permanent jobs such as teaching at other departments; the English department for instance, or teaching at other levels; secondary or middle school.

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1.3 Situation Analysis

The need to learn English is, basically, associated with the need to form language teachers who are able to teach English either for General or Specific Purposes. At Aboubekr Belkaid University, ALGERIA the situation under investigation, where a rapid growth and expansion has gradually taken place these recent years, English is taught in a separate department within the Foreign Languages Faculty as a main subject. At this department and after accomplishing either four years (in the classical system) or three years (in the LMD system) students are rewarded with a BA degree in English, and by which they are able to work as English teachers.

Hence, once they get a position as teachers they hold the status of EFL teachers; this is mainly due to the fact that during their training, they had no ESP teaching methodology. Therefore, one may say that an ESP teacher is originally a General English teacher who is recruited to teach ESP courses, and by which he can apply for positions in different departments including the English one. At this level, it should be stressed on the fact that those teachers are facing a lot of contextual hindrances.

To move a step further, I deeply believe in the fact that, language teachers who are asked to provide and run ESP courses do not have any special training or instruction that may help them better cope with the requirements of the particular situation they are involved in before starting their careers as ESP teachers. As a result, they may encounter a difficulty of being not well prepared or as has been stated by Hutchinson and Waters (1987:157): “... *a new environment for which they have generally been ill-prepared.*”

In this regard, it is generally presumed that the common two features of ESP teaching are notably; time allotted for English teaching which is only a period of one hour and half per week; the second common feature is the nature of the job; language teachers, in almost all cases, are, only, part-time practitioners.

To put it differently, ESP courses are generally planned as the last course of the day, or even the last course of the week. This fact may have negative impact on learners' attendance, motivation and achievements. The insufficient time may affect, also, the content of the course since the ESP teacher needs to reach a set of goals he/she planned before starting his/her course. As a result he/she is required “*to teach them only the bits of English they need.*” (Bastrkmen 2006:18)

Apart from the time allocation, teachers in ESP situations often claim about the group' size, i.e., the number of students in each class; He/she is often obliged to deal with large classes with mixed abilities and of heterogeneous needs. Moreover, ESP courses are considered as less important and of a secondary value and position. This fact is proven by a series of reasons:

First of all, no attention was given to ESP; since curriculum developers who are most of the time the language teachers in charge of these courses did not provide clear courses' objectives, content, as well as a clear methodology. As a result, teachers are free to decide about their courses and they teach whatever they may judge as useful and appropriate for their students.

A grammar-translation method is often used in ESP classes as a result no communicative activities are used; the focus is on activities and tasks of grammar nature. Though in some cases, teachers may conduct some discussions which will be of general interest under the corroboration of improving students' communicative needs.

Because of learners' background in English which is in most cases a poor one and due to the fact that the majority of these lessons do not match learners' needs, a negative attitude from the learners' part could appear either by talking to each other and neglecting the teacher's presence or simply by leaving the course.

As a reaction to this situation, the teacher who is already stressed, who has received no special training as an ESP teacher, who has no orientation and who receives no help from his colleagues, often

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leaves his work for the reasons cited before, in addition to the nature of the job which is of a part-time nature and which is not motivating financially.

1.4 Learners' Prospects in the New Millennium within our Higher Educational Contexts

In ESP teaching/learning situation, it is of paramount importance to have a careful and deep look at the difficulties, besides the prospects of our learners since needs analysis is regarded as the foundation stone that may help ESP practitioners to respond correctly and accurately to those wants, lacks and perspectives, as well.

Depending on both parameters; the learners' answers provided in the questionnaire, besides the teacher's observation process, the following difficulties have been outlined on the part of the learners:

- ✓ Lack of motivation; English is not important for them;
- ✓ Low level of language proficiency. Hence, they encounter a set of problems at different levels: Grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, sentence structure and so forth;
- ✓ Lack of appropriate terminology for their fields of study, i.e., physics.

Based on the outlined difficulties, the learners have suggested translation as a main remedy for those issues. To include translation for them may help them express better their ideas, transfer the amount of information they have from their L1 to L2. They have, in fact, mentioned translation from Arabic, or French to English and vice versa to learn more specialized terms.

To go a step further and apart from including specialized translation in our contexts, it should be revealed that ESP apprentices are already adult learners aiming at achieving a particular target namely; improving their level of English language proficiency which may facilitate for them, later on, different tasks including publication of papers in the target language and taking part in seminars and workshops, etc. In this case, it could be mentioned that, our learners are still claiming about the content provided for them in ESP courses as this latter does not match their real needs. At this level, I may dare to say that there is a gap between the knowledge afforded and that expected in such context, this may be due to the fact that those language teachers responsible for running such type of courses have no previous specialized training in the area they are currently taking part in.

Students, in this case, have called for a thorough consideration of their wants, lacks and outlooks including fundamentally the following points;

- ❖ To design courses based on their real needs;
- ❖ To take part in the process of determining the content of the course;
- ❖ To provide real-life tasks which may help them function adequately while involved in authentic situations;
- ❖ To afford a wide range of tasks aiming at enhancing their level of English language proficiency besides, their motivation, too.
- ❖ In addition to the already mentioned key-element which aims, basically, at including specialized translation within their context.

As an ESP practitioner, I may say that that including specialised translation in our scientific context aiming at improving our learners' level of English language proficiency is considered to be of creditable importance. In EST milieu, translation is no more seen as a separate trend but as an integrated activity, and skill aiming at facilitating the way for our learners to better grasp the content of their courses and, later on, function adequately in their target situations. Specialised translation, in this case, is, therefore, seen as a vocabulary builder tool, a way to mediate culture and an instrument which may help our learners expand their knowledge, evaluate and assess their performance, too.

1.5 Reflections on Teachers' Preparations in the Light of their Qualifications

Based on a personal experience while investigating the area of ESP at the level of Aboubekr Belkaid University, Tlemcen, ALGERIA, it has been noticed that the ESP teacher who constitutes a key-parameter in the teaching/learning process has been neglected. This may be considered as the main reason for such a failure in this process, regardless learner's needs, wants and lacks, and their levels of proficiency, as well.

As the central issue of the current work revolves, therefore, around the ESP context with all the particularities that may underlie, it can be stated that improving the ESP teaching/learning practice, could not be reached unless a careful examination of teachers' preparations, roles and qualifications is, almost, provided and, deeply, discussed. In other words, and derived from the results of the already conducted needs analysis, our language teachers need, fundamentally, to be retrained to respond positively to the requirements of their target situations besides, their learners' expectations.

As a first stone in providing, more or less, an accurate evaluation which may help us later on suggest a set of remedies, it can be stated that training as a process which is '*the formal preparation of prospective teachers*' may entail two phases, namely pre-service and in-service training courses. Taking the ESP teachers as a case study, it can be assumed that, an ESP practitioner needs to be trained before being involved in the ESP teaching situation first as a language teacher. Later on, while he/she is involved in such a situation he/she may need to undergo an in-service training which should suit his/her needs and the field he/she is involved in.

Believing in the fact that, the main aim which stands behind undertaking a pre-service preparation is "*to help them [future teachers] enhance and improve language abilities, pedagogical skills, and cultural knowledge.*" (Song, et al, 2011: 100) to function adequately as a teacher, an ESP practitioner should, first of all, undergo a pre-service general training phase by which he is required to attend the following lectures, including a variety of sciences which revolve around the Teaching of English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) as it is its case, here, in Algeria. In this phase, a prospective ESP teacher should be well equipped with a sound training which includes: phonetics; linguistics; psychology; pedagogy; methodology and so forth. Furthermore, he or she must undertake a 'specialized training' where other areas such as needs analysis; syllabus design; materials production; specialized language 'terminology', must be, carefully, addressed. At last but not least, practice is almost needed.

Joining this idea, and as a main part of their preparations, language teachers are supposed to acquire a set of qualifications which are considered to be a prerequisite. These latter will help them function adequately in any teaching situation. In this regard, the ESP teachers; like the general language teachers, need first to acquire three types of competences, notably Language Competence; Pedagogic Competence and Language Awareness. In addition to another element which is related to the specialised knowledge depending on the learners' area of specialism. The following diagram is an attempt at summarizing this view:

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Fig. 1. Teachers' Qualifications (Adapted from Thomas 1993)

In other words, if a teacher lacks one of these competences, he or she may not be able to function appropriately as a language teacher. Accordingly, these four competences are believed to be of vital value for those instructors. Joining this idea, and though our Algerian language teachers may be well equipped with the three first competences notably, language competence and awareness, pedagogic competence, they, in most of the cases, lack the fourth element which is specialised knowledge. This latter is believed to be of worthy significance for them to facilitate the task of teaching and hence, functioning adequately in their target milieu.

According to Thomas (1993), Language Competence is a pre-requisite for the language teacher. Taking into consideration that an Algerian ESP teacher is not a native speaker of English, this does not imply to have a native-like competence. His role, in contrast, is to help learners to function effectively in their target settings.

On the other hand, pedagogic competence implies the ability to teach effectively. This is commonly due to the fact that, one may have a good command of a language but this does not mean that he/she is a good teacher. (Richlin, 2006) To achieve this end, the teacher should keep in touch with the current research works about teaching/learning process. Attending conferences and workshops may also constitute a great help for the instructor.

One of the teachers' duties is the ability to supervise both processes namely, language use and learning in the classroom. This can be achieved through conscious reflection on language which could be accomplished by going beyond the ability to only use the language. In this regard, language awareness is a key-parameter in ESP teacher training because of the fact that "*the language content of the ESP courses usually differs from that presented on general language courses*". (Lomax et al 2002: 131)

In addition to those competences cited above, I have felt the need to introduce another element to better cope with the requirements of an ESP teaching situation. This latter is theoretically known as 'a specialized knowledge'. In this line of thought, ESP is often defined as the teaching of English for a "*clearly utilitarian purpose*" (Mackay et al, 1978), depending on the learners' field of study; current; and future situation and needs, as well. Hence, an ESP teacher is often faced with adult learners who are supposed to have specialised knowledge of the field and scope of research, and who seek to learn the kind of English which is believed to be encountered in their educational context. As a consequence, the role of the ESP teacher is considered to be about helping students to communicate effectively in the target language while using their knowledge related to the field they are, fully, taking part in. To achieve this purpose, a certain level of knowledge of the learners' area of study is required. However, it is to be stated at this point that the primary concern of those teachers is to teach language and not the speciality. This idea has been clearly articulated by Bojovic (2007:493) "*ESP teachers are not specialists in the field, but in teaching English, their subject is English for the profession but not the profession in English*".

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To move further in evaluating and, hence, assessing the effectiveness of our teachers' preparations, it can be proclaimed that any prospective practitioners may feel inadequate if they seek to rely on what they have learnt in theory, they, then, need to find a way to practise what they have acquired in the theoretical phase. This latter can be achieved through observing other teachers, and later on, they may be asked to run the course under their trainers' monitoring. Trainers' supervision may constitute a great help for a prospective teacher who does not only need supervision but a feedback on their performance, as well.

As it has been discussed above, pre-service teacher training is of paramount importance for prospective teachers. On the other hand, and for those who are already involved in ESP teaching situations, in-service teacher training may constitute a great help for them. This can be achieved through attending workshops and seminars by which they seek to cater for a better professional development. In the same line of thought Savas (2009:402) writes:

Language teachers and prospective language teachers can attend professional development workshops to let themselves acquire a second field of expertise, such as medicine, engineering or law.

While taking part in such training, ESP teachers may benefit a lot; "new teachers learn from veterans. They become oriented more quickly and effectively." Buckley (2000:12)

Believing in the fact that, ESP is still in its infancy here in Algeria and our Algerian ESP practitioners lack expertise in their teaching field and do not have enough preparation as they did not undergo an adequate training for the field they are either already involved in or aiming to take part in, and lack a specialised knowledge to perform those outlined tasks, in this case, teaching EST groups is considered to be a difficult assignment or even their nightmare. Retraining them, in this case, in a wide range of areas will facilitate not only the task of teaching for them and but also help them better respond to their learners' needs.

2. CONCLUSION

Ultimately, to provide a set of hopefully useful recommendations and suggestions is mainly done as a path toward filling the existing gap between the requirements of the actual situation and the needs of those key-parameters namely our teachers and their learners for their own benefits. Nevertheless these pedagogical, as well as administrative reforms remain only theoretical unless a radical change in addition to serious actions put into practice by those who are considered as the decision makers first at the university level then to a higher level by the ministry itself.

This could be done mainly for the sake of maintaining balance between the requirements of different situations; being academic or professional and the increasingly developed demands of technology, economy and sciences through preparing teachers whose main aim is to promote the ESP teaching situation and who are absolutely aware of the requirements of their different teaching situations, who have knowledge of the main principles ESP is based on, and who are ready to accept change by adopting positive attitude toward the fields they are teaching and, before all, who can better articulate and respond to their learners' actual needs and future prospects.

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Investigating Reading Comprehension Competencies of Pakistani Students in ESP Situations

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Abstract: The Bahauddin Zakariya University is a leading public sector university in Pakistan. The university has more than twenty thousand students. Earlier empirical studies reveal that the university students have inadequate competence in English with reference to their respective fields of study. To address this problem, the university authorities intend to introduce English for Specific Purposes (ESP) courses. In this context, I carried out a thorough investigation of students' needs in the light of their academic situations. This paper is an attempt to judge students' competence level with reference to reading comprehension. Taking insights from literature related to EAP readings, I focused on Present Situation Analysis (PSA) to judge the students' existing level of competence in reading skills. The study is limited to the students of three departments: Department of Economics, Department of Mass Communication, and Department of Education. Population size was one hundred and fifty: fifty students from each of these three departments. Test was taken as a tool. The test comprised of a reading comprehension text followed by a variety of questions related to reading comprehension. The test was administered amongst the students of the said departments. Data was analyzed quantitatively. This was followed by the presentation of detailed findings and discussion. The research is significant as it provides useful insights to the stakeholders: researchers, policy makers, teachers and material designers.

Key words: Needs Analysis, Present Situation Analysis (PSA), Reading Comprehension, English for Academic Purpose (EAP), English for Specific Purposes (ESP)

1. INTRODUCTION

The Bahauddin Zakariya University is a public university located in the Southern part of the province the Punjab of Pakistan. The university is one of the leading universities of Pakistan and caters to the academic needs of more than 20 thousand students including its distance learning program. The university has a wide range of disciplines both in sciences and social sciences. The students come from multiple academic backgrounds i.e., from English medium and Urdu medium educational institutions. Similarly, in their past, they have been recipients of English language teaching programs of multiple kinds, i.e. through Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) and Grammar Translation Method (GTM). Majority had studied through GTM.

In the year 2009, the Bahauddin Zakariya University made a major policy change with reference to the medium of instruction in the social sciences' disciplines. With the exception of a very few disciplines like Islamic Studies and Arabic etc., English was adopted as a compulsory medium of instruction for the Masters' level degree programs. In this context, an English Language Centre was established that provide assistance to the students of these departments with reference to their English

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language skills in academic settings. However, empirical evidence related to the students required competence and the existing competence is not available. To fill this gap, the present research has been carried out. This paper takes into account students' level of competence in the context of reading skills. Therefore, the research question was:

- What is the students' present level of competence with reference to reading comprehension?

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

With the growth of English as the lingua franca of work and study, many non-English speakers find themselves needing to attain some level of proficiency in English in order to function in jobs and courses (Cobb and Horst, 2001: 315).

Students read textbooks and general articles with the goal of extracting relevant information and ideas for writing up assignments, examinations and dissertations etc. as pointed out by Flowerdew and Peacock (2001). Further, they provide examples of reading tasks like distinguishing relevant from irrelevant information, note-taking skills, skimming and scanning skills, understanding connections between paragraphs and between sections, use of cohesive and other markers and interpreting the writer's point of view. Grellet (1981) mentions that EAP reading involves a number of specific difficulties. Moreover, the aims of reading, for Grellet, are different: reading narrative may be for enjoyment, but in subject areas, students often read to perform different tasks like to learn about something, to get information, and to learn how to do something or draw material for argument etc. This dichotomy is highlighted by Johns and Davies (1983) in the mnemonic for dealing with texts in the classroom, Text as a Linguistic Object (TALO) and Text as a Vehicle for Information (TAVI).

Munby (1978), De Escorcía (1984), Nuttall (1996) suggest that there are some macro and micro-level reading skills that EAP students need to acquire. For macro level, the list includes: to make use of existing knowledge, to make sense of new material and fit new knowledge into their schemata. They need skill of getting an overall idea and the skills of understanding primary and secondary information. Students also need skills related to prediction, to learn how to select and organize information, to distinguish important from less important, and the ability to evaluate and see the implications of the text etc.

On the other hand, macro-skills include recognizing logical relations, coping with vocabulary, understanding field-specific terms, prioritizing important and unimportant words with reference to getting meaning out of the text. Also, Carrell and Carson (1997) take under consideration intensive and extensive reading.

3. RESEARCH METHOD

In this study, students' competence in the skill of reading was to be measured. To judge the skill, subjects were given a reading comprehension test as a tool. The test had a reading passage followed by comprehension questions. Comprehension questions were ten in number. Through these questions, a variety of skills related to reading comprehension were checked: inferring, judging the meaning from the text and main idea etc. The reading comprehension passage was taken from Barron's TOEFL by Sharpe (2007).

The test was conducted in three departments of the BZU: Department of Economics, Department of Mass Communication and Department of Education. The number of students who took

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the test was one hundred and fifty. From each department, 50 students took the test. The time given for the test was 30 minutes. The researcher herself conducted the test and gave instruction to the students. The test has been enclosed in the *Appendix*. The test results were analyzed quantitatively.

4. ANALYSIS

This analysis has three sections, Section-1 reports the findings that relate to the Department of Economics. In Section-2, the findings related to the Department of Mass communication have been reported. Section-3 provides information with reference to the Department of Education. Section-4 takes into account an overall discussion in the light of statistical analysis to conclude the study.

4.1 The Department of Economics

In this section, the findings related to the Department of Economics have been presented. The reading comprehension test that was given to the students comprised of a reading passage along with comprehension questions. The following are the findings related to each question.

Table 1.1: Showing participants' responses in percentage regarding reading skills

	Correct Responses	Incorrect Responses
Question No. 1	40%	60%
Question No. 2	70%	30%
Question No. 3	34%	66%
Question No. 4	64%	36%
Question No. 5	90%	10%
Question No. 6	82%	18%
Question No. 7	34%	66%
Question No. 8	48%	52%
Question No. 9	36%	64%
Question No.10	30%	70%

4.1.1 Interpretation

Question No.1

Out of the total of 50 students, the response of 40 % (n =20) participants was correct while attempting this question, whereas 60% (n =30) participants responded wrong. It revealed that majority students had inadequate competence.

Question No.2

The test attempted by the students indicated that 70% (n = 35) participants were correct whereas rest of the 30% (n=15) volunteers answered wrongly. It is observed that majority of the students were competent to choose the right answer.

Question No.3

By inferring the responses of the participants, it was revealed that 70 % (n = 35) participants were correct, whereas 30% (n= 15) responses were incorrect. It shows that majority responses which shows students' competency.

Question No. 4

It was observed that 62% (n =31) volunteers ticked the right mark whereas the rest of the volunteers i.e. 38% (n=19) responded wrongly. It shows that most of the students had adequate competence.

Question No.5

It is seen that 90% (n =45) participants responded correctly, whereas the rest i.e. 10% (n=5) respondents responded wrongly. It shows much difference between accurate and inaccurate answers: a vast majority has adequate competence.

Question No. 6

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As far as this question was concerned, a vast majority i.e. 82% (n = 41) respondents ticked the right answer. On the other hand, 18% (n= 19) respondents put the mark in the wrong option. It shows that most of the students' competence was up to the mark.

Question No.7

On the whole, 34% (n=17) students ticked the right choice while 66% (n=33) students marked the right choice regarding this question of comprehension. It indicates that there is significant difference between right and wrong responses.

Question No.8

For this question, correct response is scored by 48% (n=24) subjects and incorrect response is scored by 52% (n=26) subjects. It shows that there was not a significant difference between the wrong and right choices.

Question No.9

The results shown by the participants revealed that (n = 18) 36% responses were correct and 64% (n=32) responses were incorrect. It means that there was a great difference between accurate and inaccurate choices.

Question No.10

In order to mark the appropriate answer, 30% (n=15) students put a mark in the correct choice and 70% (n=35) students stroke inexact. It manifests that most of the students were incapable to attempt the right answer.

In a nut shell the overall responses of the Department of the Economics are shown in a given chart.

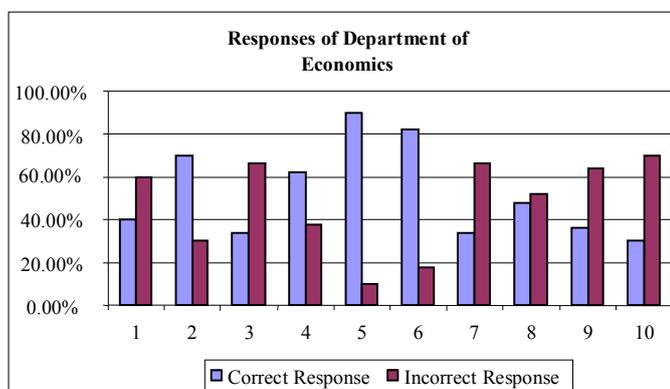


Fig 1.1: Bar Graph

The following are the results the Department of Economics in respect of reading skills in a single whole:

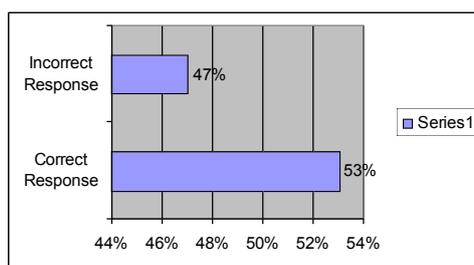


Fig 1.2: Bar Graph

4.1.2 Overall Analysis

The above mentioned analysis reveals that 53% responses were correct whereas 47% responses were incorrect. This means that majority responses were correct. However, the difference between correct and incorrect responses was little i.e. 6%.

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4.2 The Department of Mass Communication

The section-2 also reveals the findings regarding reading skills. The same passage along with comprehensive questions was given to the 50 students of Mass Communication to check the student's proficiency. The following table reveals the results of all the questions

Table 1.2: Showing participants' responses in percentage regarding reading skills

	Correct Responses	Incorrect Responses
Question No. 1	28%	72%
Question No. 2	90%	10%
Question No. 3	40%	60%
Question No. 4	48%	52%
Question No. 5	70%	30%
Question No. 6	80%	20%
Question No. 7	46%	54%
Question No. 8	36%	66%
Question No. 9	40%	80%
Question No.10	18%	82%

4.2.1 Interpretation

Question No. 1

In order to attempt the comprehension questions (n=14) 28% participants marked rightly regarding this questions, whereas 72% (n=36) participants put the mark in wrong choice. It reveals that most of the participants are incompetent in order to attempt this question of comprehension.

Question No. 2

In relation to this question, 90% (n=45) respondents responded correctly, whereas 10% (n=5) responses were incorrect, showing low proficiency regarding this question. This shows that most of the students were competent.

Question No.3

In this question, 40% (n=20) contributors ticked the right mark, whereas 60% (n=30) contributors marked the incorrect answers. This shows that majority of the students had insufficient proficiency.

Question No.4

In the perspective of this question, 48% (n=24) respondents marked the right choice, whereas 52% (n=26) marked the wrong one. It shows that there is a little difference between correct and incorrect responses.

Question No.5

In order to accomplish this activity, 70% (n=35) students opted the right choice, whereas 30% (n=15) opted the wrong choice. It shows that most of the students were able to choose the correct answer.

Question No.6

With the reference of this question, 80% (n=40) respondents marked the right option while the rest of the respondents answered wrongly. It indicates that most of the students' responses were correct.

Question No.7

In order to discriminate the responses of the students regarding this question 54% (n=27) participants recognized the accurate option. It reveals that more than average participants had ability to answer. On the other hand, 46% (n=23) participants marked the wrong answer. This shows that there is a little difference among the responses of the students.

Question No.8

The executed test in relation to this question indicates that 36% (n=18) responded the accurate option while the remaining 64% (n=32) marked the wrong option. It shows that majority had inadequate competence.

Question No. 9

By analyzing the responses of comprehension question, it is observed that 20% (n=10) respondents were accurate to tick the option while remaining 60% were inaccurate. This shows that mostly students were unable to solve this question properly.

Question No.10

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To discriminate the responses between the right and wrong choices, 18% (n=9) of the students opted the right option, while 82% (n=41) opted the wrong option. It means most of the students had no sufficient reading skill to tick the right choice of comprehension question.

The following graph illustrates an overall picture of all the questions with reference to the Department of Mass Communication.

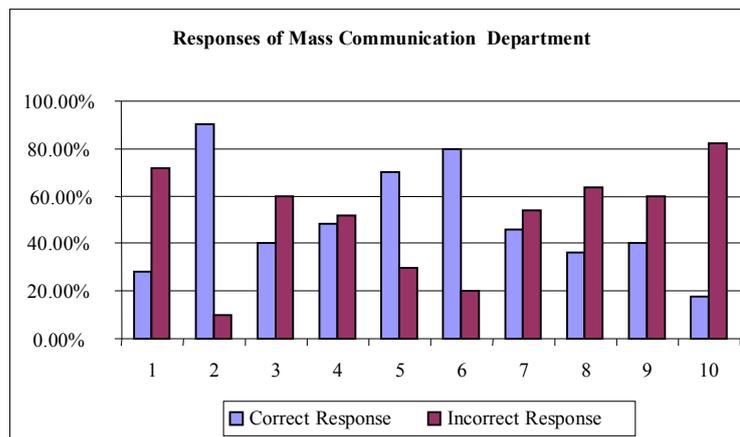


Fig 1.3: Bar Graph

The following are the findings of the Department of Mass Communication in relation to reading skills in a single whole:

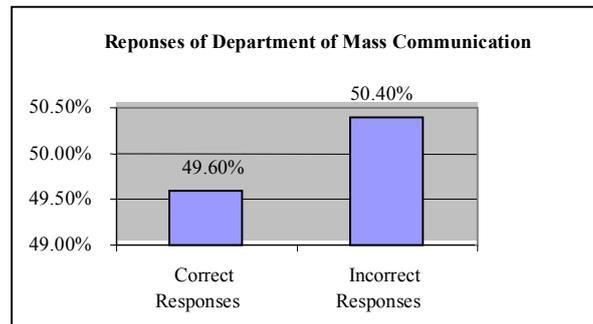


Fig 1.4: Bar Graph

4.2.2 Overall Analysis

The above mentioned analysis reveals that 50% responses were correct and 50% responses were incorrect. It means that responses were average. However, the difference between correct and incorrect responses was not significant.

4.3 The Department of Education

This section deals with the findings related to the Department of Education. The reading comprehension comprised of a reading passage along with different multiple questions. The following responses are related to each question.

Table 1.3: Showing participants' responses in percentage regarding reading skills

	Accurate Responses	Inaccurate Responses
Question No. 1	20%	80%
Question No. 2	70%	30%
Question No. 3	26%	74%
Question No. 4	50%	50%
Question No. 5	66%	34%
Question No. 6	50%	50%
Question No. 7	34%	66%
Question No. 8	26%	74%
Question No. 9	48%	52%
Question No.10	22%	78%

4.3.1 Interpretation

Question No.1

The result indicated by the students revealed that 20% (n=10) responses were accurate and 80% (n=40) were inaccurate. This indicates that most of the students were not capable to understand it.

Question No. 2

This question attempted by the 70% (n=35) respondents accurately while 30% (n=15) students marked the wrong option. It means that there was a great difference between the right and wrong responses. Therefore, it can be inferred that majority of the students were competent.

Question No.3

In the perspective of this question, 26% (n=13) participants had correct answers, whereas 74% (n=37) had incorrect ones. Hence, it could be observed that majority of the participants were unable to tick the right choice.

Question No.4

For this question, 50% (n=25) respondents answered correctly while rest of the 50% (n=25) respondents had incorrect answers. It shows that the situation of the students regarding reading skills is average; there is no significant difference between the right and wrong responses.

Question No.5

In relation to this question, 65 % (n=33) participants put a mark on the right choice, whereas 34% (n=17) participants opted the wrong answers. It reflects that majority of the students were able to tick right choice.

Question No.6

In response to this question, 50% (n=25) respondents marked correct response. The rest of 50% (n=25) marked incorrectly. It shows that there was no significant difference between right and wrong responses of the students.

Question No.7

Regarding this question, 34% (n=17) respondents marked accurate responses, while 66% (n=33) responses were inaccurate. It reflects that the majority of the students were not able to choose the correct option.

Question No.8

As far as this question is concerned, 26% (n=13) respondents opted accurate answers, whereas 74% (n=37) respondents opted inaccurate answers. It shows that majority of the students were unable to choose the correct answers.

Question No.9

In respect to this question, 48% (n=24) students ticked the right choice, whereas 52% (n=26) students put the mark in the wrong choice. It shows that the students' competence was up to the mark.

Question No.10

It is observed that 22% (n=11) subjects marked rightly whereas 78% (n=39) opted for the wrong choice. It shows the pathetic situation of the students in relation to the reading skills.

The following graph illustrates an overall picture of all the questions with reference to the Department of Mass Communication.

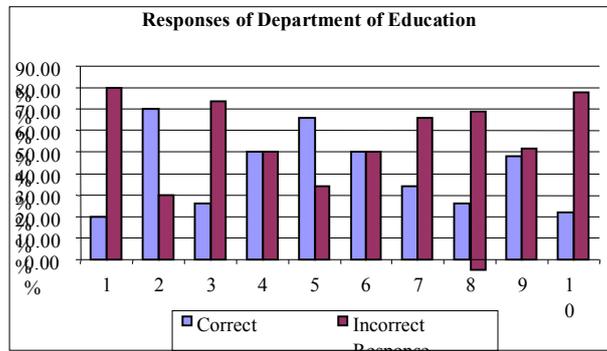


Fig 1.5: Bar Graph

The following are the findings of the Department of Education in relation to reading skills in a single whole:

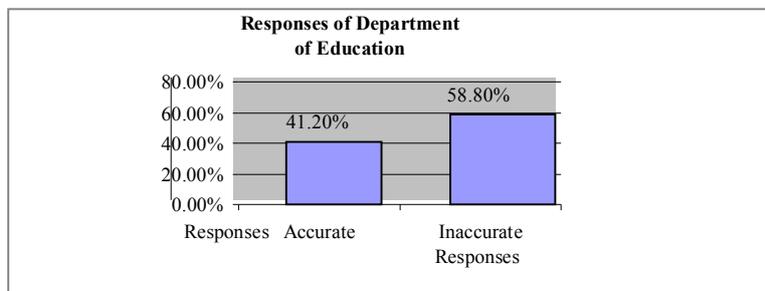


Fig 1.6: Bar Graph

4.3.2 Overall Analysis

The above mentioned analysis shows that 59% responses were incorrect and 41% responses were correct. It means that the difference between responses was observable.

This section provides statistical information first by the use of chi-square to compare differences of three departments (Department of Economics, Department of Mass Communication and Department of Education) with reference to the reading skills. The statistical details have been presented in two tables i.e. Table 1.4 and Table 1.5. Table 1.4 is a contingency table, and Table 1.5 presents frequencies and computations. Next, the information of the tables has been interpreted.

Table 1.4: Showing Contingency Table

	Department of Economics	Department of Mass Communication	Department of Education	Total
Question No.1	20	14	10	44
Question No.2	35	45	35	115
Question No.3	17	20	13	50
Question No.4	31	24	25	80
Question No.5	45	35	33	113
Question	41	40	25	106

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No.6				
Question No.7	17	23	17	57
Question No.8	24	18	13	55
Question No.9	18	20	24	62
Question No. 10	15	9	11	35
Total	263	248	206	717

Table 1.5: Showing Frequencies and Computation

f_o	f_e	$(f_o - f_e)$	$(f_o - f_e)^2$	$\frac{(f_o - f_e)^2}{f_e}$
20	16.139	3.86	14.90	0.923
35	42.18	-7.18	51.55	1.22
17	18.34	-1.34	1.795	0.097
31	29.34	1.66	2.755	0.093
45	41.44	3.56	12.67	0.305
41	38.88	2.12	4.49	0.115
17	20.90	-3.9	15.21	0.727
24	20.17	3.83	14.66	0.726
18	22.74	-4.74	22.46	0.987
15	12.83	2.17	4.70	0.366
14	15.21	-1.21	1.46	0.095
45	39.77	5.23	27.35	0.687
20	17.29	2.71	7.34	0.424
24	27.67	-3.67	13.46	0.486
35	39.08	-4.08	16.64	0.425
40	36.66	3.34	11.15	0.304
23	19.71	3.29	10.82	0.548
18	19.02	-1.02	1.04	0.054
20	21.44	-1.44	2.073	0.096
9	12.10	-3.10	9.64	0.796
10	12.64	-2.64	6.96	0.550
35	33.04	1.96	3.84	0.116
13	14.36	-1.36	1.84	0.337
25	22.98	2.02	4.08	0.177
33	32.46	0.54	0.291	8.96
25	30.45	-5.45	29.70	0.975
17	16.37	0.63	0.39	0.023
13	15.80	-2.8	7.84	0.496
24	17.81	6.19	38.31	2.151
11	10.05	0.95	0.902	0.050

$$\text{Chi square} = \chi^2 = \sum \frac{(f_o - f_e)^2}{f_e} = 23.761$$

$$\text{Degree of freedom} = d_f = (\text{Rows} - 1)(\text{Columns} - 1) = (3 - 1)(10 - 1) = 18$$

For degree of freedom 18, the calculated value is (23.761) which is lower than the value for probability¹ p=0.05. Hence there is no significant difference among the three presents i.e., no difference among the students of three departments regarding reading skills. The calculated value of χ^2 being lesser than the table value, shows that there is no statistically significant difference among the students of the three departments as far as reading comprehension is concerned.

5. DISCUSSION

In this paper, students' reading comprehension was taken into account with reference to the three departments of the Bhauddin Zakariya University. These departments were: Department of Economics, Department of Mass Communication and Department of Education. The test results presented above along with the statistical interpretation reveal that with reference to the Department of Economics, 53% have adequate competence, whereas 47% have inadequate competence. This means that majority students have adequate competence. Next, the analysis with reference to the Department of Mass Communication reveals that 50% students had adequate competence, and the next 50% students had inadequate competence. Last, the result of the Department of Education shows that 41% had adequate competence while 59% had inadequate competence. This means that the majority students of this department have inadequate competence in the skill of reading.

Generally, there was no statistical difference among the students of the three departments when their reading ability was observed.

So it is concluded that even at Master level, students show unfamiliarity with this primary skill. They are just nominally familiar with it and its negligence affects their studies. Attention and improvement is needed to make students familiar with this skill in order to overcome this problem.

Figure 1.10 illustrates below the analysis in the form of a bar graph with reference to all the three departments. Additionally, 1.11 below represents the overall difference between adequate competence and inadequate competence of all the students of all the three departments in a single whole.

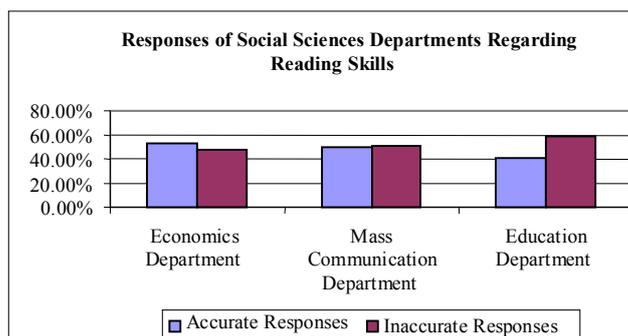


Fig 1.7: Bar Graph

¹ Footnote: probability: a number between 0 and 1.0 which is used to estimate the relative frequency with which one rather than other possible events will occur out of a specified collection of events. (Nunnally, 1975, P. 312).

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6. SIGNIFICANCE

The research is significant in a number of ways. In the light of the findings, the existing courses in the context could be improved by the policy makers, teachers and administrators. The research is also useful for EAP and ESP stakeholders in general to get familiarity with the issues related to real life EAP and ESP situations, problems and solutions. Further, the research creates openings for new researchers in the related areas.

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Retrospective Review of Teaching of English in the Third World Countries

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Abstract: Learning of any second language which once had been as fashion or fun, now has become a necessity. Economical globalization has given birth to the communicational globalization, this in turn, has factorized in the emergence of a global language, in the shape English. The learning of English has become a distinctive academic phenomenon around the globe and in particular a subject of privilege in the third world countries, but like the other fields, this academic field has undergone various upheavals. Non availability of linguistic experts and inconsistency in the delivery has made the English learning a staggering process in these countries. This paper focuses on the teaching of English as seen through the eyes of scholars with particular reference to the dogmatic approaches towards the practical significance of cultural interaction in the teaching process.

Key words: Colonialist influence, Cultural flexibility, interaction, stimulative , vitality

1. INTRODUCTION

Teaching of English in the third world countries around the globe has always been an issue of vital importance and so does in the third world countries. As regards the teaching of English as a second language in the developing nations, the process has gone through various spasmodic ups and downs; at times there had been motivative steps towards the teaching of English, whereas, at others quite contrary to that very degrading decision on this issue has been taken in this regard, but the fact of the inevitability of English as the language of contact, communication and correspondence with the wider world has ever remained undeniable. This paper is meant to shed a light on the significance of English in general and to have a retrospective review on the teaching of English in the third world countries with particular reference to the cultural embargoes. It would enable the academics and experts to design and deliver the curriculum in a healthy way and to subscribe and implement the practical remedies for the promotion of English language teaching in their respective countries.

2. THE HORIZONTAL VITALITY OF ENGLISH

It may be wondering for some to witness the learning of English in the third world countries getting sudden and swift attention, but when called to mind the fact that almost every of the scientific advances and every of the new researches are being delivered through English or by the native speakers of English, it becomes crystal clear that people are obliged to learn English so that they can benefit from these advances and researches (Crystal, 1997: 80). In addition to learning about different cultures through the medium of English language, the learners of English in third world learners find

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the opportunity to participate in global interaction, as Crystal (1997: 87-89, 91, 93, 106, 109, and 117) points out:

1. English is one of the official languages at the United Nations.
2. It is the language of correspondence and communication among the "Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries".
3. English is used as one of its official languages by "The Arab Air Carriers Association".
4. "The overriding impression is that, whenever in the world an organization is based, English is the chief auxiliary language".
5. "English is used as the sole official language ... [of] the "All-African People's Organization".
6. English is the language in which most of the research work are published by the internationally renowned academic journals.
7. "English has long been recognized as the international language of the sea".
8. "Over 180 nations have adopted the recommendations of the International Civil Aviation Organisation (ICAO) about English terminology".
9. Most of the information on the Internet is in English.
- 10 "The English language has been an important medium of the press for nearly 400 years".

The vitality of English has also been pointed out by researchers. Ferguson (1981) in (Kachru, 1982: ix) states that "... English is as significant... as is the modern use of computers". Kachru (1982:3) has specified certain reason which motivates the learning of English. He argued that "English is often learned because of its heritage, because of the status it may confer on the reader or speaker, because of the doors which it opens in technology, science, trade, and diplomacy".

From the facts mentioned above, one can verily conclude that learning of English is a vital tool for gaining knowledge because as Crystal (1997:110) states "English is the medium of great deal of the world's knowledge, especially in such areas as science and technology". Moreover, English is increasingly emerging the language of global interaction.

3. MOTIVATING FACTORS TOWARDS THE LEARNING OF A LANGUAGE

Before advancing on the subject let us have a brief look at some of the major factors that contribute to the learning of any language.

- i. Colonialist influence: Colonialist influence plays a great part in the learning of any second language. The dominated people readily follow not only the language of the mastering nation but their culture as well.
- ii. *Tendency*: Tendency is the major factor that contributes towards the learning of a language. Tendency takes birth from the *scope* of the language being learnt. Without Tendency either the learning process becomes sluggish or totally ends in a failure.

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- iii. *Inevitability*: Most of us resorts to learning of any second language due to some inevitability. One living in the highly globalized society of today can't live upon on ones mother tongue only as dealing with people of different backgrounds and different cultures has become inevitable.
- iv. *Feasibility*: Feasibility is one of the key factors in the learning of any language. Among others, effective and absorbing process of teaching, makes the learning of any language feasible and the learners are attracted towards its learning.
- v. *Usability*: The usability of any language and its learning are interrelated factors. The more any language is usable in the practical life the more attractive it is for the learners.
- vi. *Cultural flexibility*: Learning of a language is very much related to the cultural values of the learners. If the learning any language doesn't *conflict* with the cultural or religious values of the learner, he or she more willingly like to pursue the path of learning.

4. CULTURE AND LANGUAGE LEARNING RELATIONSHIP

Culture and the learning of language are closely associated and different schools of thought have their own recommendation and reservation regarding this issue. This subject of assimilation of culture in the teaching of English is discussed in the lines that follow. First we proceed with the ideas of the pro culture bound language learning theorists.

4.1 Pro culture bound language learning theorists

Different theories and ideas have been propounded regarding the culture and language learning relationship as follows.

Culture has been defined as the “integrated pattern of human behaviour that includes thoughts, communications, languages, practices, beliefs, values, customs, courtesies, rituals, manners of interacting and roles, relationships and expected behaviours of a racial, ethnic, religious or social group; and the ability to transmit the above to succeeding generations” (Goode et al, 2000). This implies that English language is not only a component of the English-speaking countries’ culture, but it also exhibits and transmits it (Peterson and Coltrane, 2003); “For culture is only transmissible through coding, classifying and concentrating experience through some form of language” (Stern, 1983: 200). Therefore, incorporating only certain aspects of the English-speaking countries’ culture within the materials to be taught cannot lead to the full efficient mastery of the language. Language reflects culture; hence it is crucial to incorporate them together in the materials (Fairclough, 1992: 6). Pure linguistic knowledge alone is not sufficient for cultural interaction (Peterson and Coltrane, 2003). It is interesting to note that the theorists emphasize the importance of language learning in gaining knowledge about a country and its people (Stern, 1993: 247), Peterson and Coltrane (2003) insist that the curriculum must include native materials to help learners get involved in true cultural experiences. Such materials can be obtained from the vast arena of media including websites, seminar, etc.

The arguments presented so far are in favour of the idea that English has to be taught through the socio-cultural norms and values of an English-speaking country (Peterson and Coltrane, 2003), which,

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inevitably results in the creation of individuals who are both bilingual and bicultural (Alptekin and Alptekin, 1984). According to this assumption, then, language materials must incorporate at least the essential information about the cultural values and norms of the culture in order to give learners the chance to understand not only the linguistic side of the English language, but also to be able to communicate effectively with its native-speaking community.

4.2 Anti culture bound language learning theorists

Another different viewpoint is that the teaching of English should be freed from its nationality-bound cultural context, with the objective of developing bilingual without necessarily becoming bicultural individuals (Alptekin and Alptekin, 1984). The proponents of this view (Alptekin and Alptekin, 1984:14) argue that “local and international contexts which are familiar and relevant to students’ lives should be used (instead of unfamiliar and irrelevant contexts from the English speaking world)”.

It should be noted that the cultural facets of the English-speaking world which accompany the scientific information and technical machinery are deemed by some researchers as strange and unacceptable characteristics of the target culture (Wilkins, 1975: 49). In fact, the flow of information from the Anglo-American cultures made the receiving countries impose constraints on the educational system to preserve its way of living (Rao, 1976).

the discussion above gives rise to the question to which extent the culture can be assimilated the teaching of English.

5. RATIO OF CULTURAL CONTENTS IN TEACHING MATERIALS

Incorporating the cultural norms and values in the materials of the curriculum is not entirely new to foreign language teaching (Peterson and Coltrane, 2003), however, the controversy stands regarding the ratio of the cultural content to be included in the teaching materials. The integration of the content depends on the purpose of teaching of the specific foreign language. If the target was to equip learners to be proficient in the targeted language and community, cultural aspects should be regarded as an essential ingredient of the language materials (Peterson and Coltrane, 2003). On the contrary, if the main goal was to enable learners to communicate internationally and for merely for educational purposes, then the materials of the curriculum should incorporate only those facets which are assumed to be shared by the whole world.

6. HURDLES IN THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH

Though teaching and learning English has been a necessity for the third world countries since decades, but this process has come across some strange kind hurdles which are briefly mentioned in the lines that follow;

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1. *Scarcity of well equipped instructors*: Most of the third world countries face the lack of well trained to carry out the teaching process of English according the need of the time so a sickness is felt in achieving the recommended goals.
2. *Lack of linguistic experts*: Besides the shortage of teachers, there is a serious shortage of linguistics to create and implement the proper curricula, thus no fruitful results are achieved.
3. *Cultural conflict*: Cultural conflict between the native English speaker and its learners as a second language has been a very serious element in carrying out the teaching of English smoothly. In some third world countries religious clerks have unjustifiably have exploited this cultural diversities for their own ends.
4. *Biased behaviours*: Biased attitude of the people in power has also played a noxious role in harming the teaching of English and very often this process has been derailed. In the subcontinent of India and Pakistan pro Urdu and anti English voices are very often heard. Even in the Arab world authorities have been seen vainly trying to persuade the people in favour of Arabic at the cost of the future of the students.
5. *Scarcity of sources*: The most degrading factor in the process of teaching English in some of the third world countries is the scarcity of sources. This process at its gross roots needs plenty of funds to establish the system which could make the delivery effective and attractive.

7. CONCLUSION

Having the hair split on the ideas of the pro culture bound and the anti culture bound teaching of English, it can be summed up that the feasibility and appropriateness should be observed in the use of students' knowledge of their own culture to the new emerging global English culture emerging in the areas of science, the Internet, the media, or even through human interaction. In pursuance of this view point, most of the third world countries have associated English teaching with global culture international communication, scientific purposes, and to some extent for exploring the English 'inner circle' cultures. We sum up the discussion in the words of Alptekin who states as under;

Given the fact that English today can be used to transmit any cultural heritage, it would be more practical to consider English as a language "which is not always inextricably tied to one particular culture" (Alptekin, 1993: 140). Furthermore, the viewpoint which stresses the connection between learning a language and its culture seems to neglect the effects of the learner's pre-acquired world knowledge on foreign language learning (Alptekin, 1993: 140). Here one may highlight the dilemma of whether to concentrate on purely linguistic forms or to focus on the cultural aspects used in everyday interactions. Both ways, if applied without critical modifications, seem to be unrealistic and impractical (Stern, 1983: 191).

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ESP Courses at the Tirana University in Albania in the 21st Century

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Abstract: The paper aims to present an overview of the development of the English for Special Purposes (ESP) at the Tirana University in Albania. It will focus on the new trends of ESP teaching and learning at the university level in Albania. The development of the world business and the opening of the world market has set forth a very important task to the ESP course designers in order to help the language learners to study the English language in compliance with the requirements of their profession dictated by the economic and political changes our country has recently undergone. Finally, emerging issues are discussed and at the end recommendations are reflected for a better future of ESP at the university level. The proposed findings about the need for the development of the ESP at the university level will be beneficial to the English language teachers by facilitating their work at the university.

Key words: English Language Teaching; English for Specific Purposes; Albanian Vocational Education Project

1. INTRODUCTION

Before 1990 Albania was closed to Europe and beyond because of the communist regime in power. After the 90-ies, especially with the collapse of the Berline wall Albania opened its doors to Europe and the world. In the 90-ies a lot of people lost their jobs and they rushed in Europe for a better life. The free movement of people in Europe brought about changes in the education system in Albania and the demand for English as a foreign Language was increased. There was an increase of trade with foreign countries and as a result the English language teaching for trade and tourism communication became very important and very much needed.

Facing all these challenges teaching English for special purposes (ESP) needed improvement and the ESP programs needed to be revised in order to meet the students' needs for a better communication in their profession. So The university staff desinged ESP courses in line with the requirements of the future students' profession. The paper gives an overview of the historical ESP teaching in the university level in Albania and it also describes how the new ESP courses help the students develop their language and cultural skills in order to be good communicators in different dicourse settings.

A brief history of ESP in the Albanian universities.

The university of Tirana is composed of 7 faculties (the Faculty of Natural Sciences, the Faculty of Philology, the Faculty of Social Sciences, the Faculty of Economics, the Faculty of Medicine, the Faculty of Foreign Languages, and the Faculty of Law), where English used to be and still is an obligatory subject.

Until 1970 French and Russian were taught in all the faculties and most of the textbooks were written by the Albanian teachers who adopted the authentic readings from French and Russian authors

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in different professions. Then after Albania broke up with the Russians in the late 60-ies it started relations with the Chinese government and English became the other foreign language to be taught in the Albanian universities. It is to be noted that the textbooks of this time, though they were in English, they were written by the Chinese book writers. So the language was not that authentic and they were mostly translations from Chinese into English. Because of the good economical and political relations Albania had with China the English language overcame Russian and French. But the textbooks followed the Chinese teaching methods and the Chinese culture was mostly prescribed in their books.

In the late 1970-ies Albania broke up with the Chinese and the English textbooks for students were written by the Albanian teachers who were still under the influence of the Russian and Chinese culture. So the English textbooks were not authentic and they followed the Grammar Translation Method which drove the students towards translation and reading but they were not taught how to be good communicators. They were not provided with communication, listening and writing skills.

In the 1990-s Albania opened to the world and English overcame all the other languages. There was a big number of businessmen coming from the USA, the UK and other countries to Albania whose language of communication was English. So this situation required the redesigning of ESP curricula.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

ESP is never treated as important as General English (GE). But to my point of view it is as important as GE and because of the enlargement of Europe and the development of different businesses ESP is becoming very crucial and we have planned to change all the curricula dealing with ESP because we are seeing ESP in a different perspective. We want ESP courses meet the needs of the world of work and prepare our students be good communicators in both writing and speaking.

ESP is not a new field of study. It goes back to the 1960-s. Some defined it as a study of the field of a certain profession, which required the English teacher to have good knowledge on a certain profession. Some others considered ESP as the study for academia. But Hutchinson and Waters (1987) have made a very clear exposition of ESP and GE. They have defined ESP as an approach rather than a product, which means that ESP is not a new language. Dudley-Evans and Maggie Jo St John (1998) emphasised the fact that the learners' needs should be incorporated with the language required and the learning context required in the work purposes. Dudley-Evans & Maggie Jo (1998) identified ESP through the description of its absolute characteristics, which are: 1) ESP was designed to meet specific needs of learners, 2) ESP content is related to a certain professional knowledge, disciplines, and activities, and 3) ESP typically centered on language appropriate to activities in syntax, semantics, lexicon, and discourse.

Robinson (1991) identified ESP through the needs analysis of the students. According to her ESP is 'normally goal-oriented'. So while designing an ESP course it is important to start from the students' needs followed by the content design, selection of teaching materials, course planning, methodology and course evaluation. During teaching ESP there is an interaction between the learner and the ESP teacher (Duddeley-Evans and Maggie Jo (1998). They also stress the idea that the methodology followed by ESP teachers should reflect the methodology of the discipline and profession it serves.

3. METHODS

The ESP course was designed for 80 students from different cities of Albania. It was also designed according to the students' needs analyses. The tasks of this course were piloted in the way they should comply with the students' needs and interests of their profession. Taking into account the aims of the course, that is leading the students towards the language they need to know and use in their profession group work was important in this project.

During the needs analysis these features were taken into account: age, level of the English language, the learners' attitudes towards the activities designed, the teaching method and the teaching materials designed to meet the needs of the ESP course.

So taking into account all the requirements of the ESP course, there were piloted 20 students. Questionnaires were used in order to get the right information about the students' behaviour towards the target subject language setting where communication difficulties, learning styles, classroom activities, attitudes and beliefs (Hutchinson and Swales, 2008) were assessed.

In addition, interviews were conducted in order to elicit the students' needs, beliefs and attitudes toward the ESP course. Then at the end of the course the students were assessed in order to know better their needs and the problems that they encountered during the ESP course.

Table 1 shows what needs were analysed in before, during and after the ESP course in order to better identify the students' needs in order to improve them and be good users of the language.

Table 1: The framework of the needs analyses before, during and after the ESP course.

Before	Questions Interviews
During	Feedback from assignments, tests and their performance during the course
After	Feedback from their final exam

The aim of the needs analyses was to elicit the the students *Know* about their ESP course. Then we assessed what they *Want* to know about their course and at last, we assessed what they *Learned* that they are going to practice all the new knowledge they acquired during the ESP course (Ogle 1986). Assessing the students' needs according to Ogle's instructional the teachers better understand the real needs of their students. They were assessed for their language skills (reading, speaking, listening and writing), vocabulary and grammar.

The study revealed that 100% of the students needed the ESP course, but when it came to their beliefs 50% were for mastering all the components of the ESP course. 20% of the students needed to improve their writing and listening skills, 15% needed vocabulary and grammar, whereas the other 15% needed to improve speaking skills.

4. CONCLUSION

This paper described the situation of the ESP courses before 1999 and after. Besides the historical part it also gives some instructions how to design the ESP course. And from the results of the survey it is said that the ESP course should be designed according to the needs of the students. This analyses should follow Ogle's instruction technique during our ESP teaching. So taking into consideration the students' needs and their goals being in the ESP course will help them better understand their needs for the course. The ESP course designers should take into account that there is no difference in the

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principals of designing a GE course and an ESP course. They differ in the needs analyses of the students. Therefore, teaching and learning objectives should be clear, measurable in order to make the ESP course useful to all the students. This paper will help other ESP teachers design and develop ESP courses to meet the needs of their students.

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The Status of English for Specific Purposes at Macedonian Universities – A Case Study

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Abstract: The expansion of scientific, technical, technological and economic activities in the era of globalization has shifted the traditional boundaries of studying or working exclusively within the national country borders. This situation has opened the borders for exchange of practices and experiences in various professional disciplines, and enlarged the scope for international cooperation in every domain of human life. Within these contexts English has positioned itself as the main medium for successful communication at international level. Moreover, throughout its more than half a century long history, English for Specific Purposes has established itself as an indispensable tool for good career prospects within the home country and abroad. Professional development nowadays is unimaginable without a solid command of specialized language skills. Individuals with proficient specialized knowledge of particular disciplines are more and more sought by industries and employers. But how much do universities prepare young adults to embark confidentially upon a professional career hunt? Does English for Specific Purposes have a status of a valued tool at Macedonian universities or is it perceived as something redundant? The paper will present the results of a study conducted at public and private universities in Macedonia and reveal their attitudes towards the English for Specific Purposes as well as its current status as a subject which is incorporated in the universities' curricula.

Key words: English for specific purposes, language skills, university, discipline, specialized knowledge.

1. INTRODUCTION

The significance of English has been growing throughout years and English has become the lingua franca of the 21st century, an asset that is almost impossible not to possess it as a professional in the shrinking globalized world. English for Specific Purposes (ESP) in that context has made its first attempts back in the '60s and '70s of the last century, undergoing through different stages, developing at different speeds in different countries, yet establishing itself as an indispensable tool for every professional. The demands of the “brave new world”, a revolution in linguistics and the focus on the learner (see Hutchinson and Waters, 1987) are the three main reasons for the emergence of all ESP.

The expansion of the scientific, technical and economic trends at international level charted the course of the early stages of the development of ESP. The perceived need for better communication between the developed countries on one hand and the developing countries on the other inspired the first stage of the ESP development. It all started with the register analysis focusing on analyzing the language at the sentence level i.e. how frequently grammatical structures are used in texts. This stage is best presented in the works of Barber (1962), Peter Strevens (Halliday, McIntosh and Strevens, 1964), Jack Ewer (Ewer and Latorre, 1969) Ewer and Hughes-Davies (1971, 1972) and John Swales (1971). A.J.Herbert's “The Structure of Technical English” published in 1965 is the first significant ESP textbook of this stage. (see Dudley-Evans and St John)

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In the years to follow the analysis of the language went beyond the sentence level. The second stage is characterized with rhetoric and discourse analysis i.e. the study of how sentences in spoken and written language form larger units at a level above the sentence, for example in paragraphs, whole conversations or written texts. This is presented in the work of Henry Widdowson in the United Kingdom and the so called Washington School of Larry Selinker, Louis Trimble, John Lackstrom (1973) and Mary Todd-Trimble in the USA. Trimble's book from 1985 "English for Science and Technology: A discourse Approach" gives a full summary of the pioneering work of these scholars in this second phase of the ESP development.

The advancement continued through the target situation analysis as a third stage in the development process, which aimed at connecting the language analysis more closely to learner's reasons for learning. Having in mind that the aim of ESP is enabling learners to function properly in a certain target situation, it is understandable that the process of designing an ESP course should begin first of all with identification of the target situation. As a prominent representative of this stage is John Munby (1978) who comprehensively elaborated the system of target situation analysis in "Communicative Syllabus Design" and "Technical English" (Pickett and Laster, 1980) represents an early example of a textbook using this approach.

The fourth stage of ESP has seen an attempt to look below the surface and to consider not the language itself but the thinking process that underlines language use.¹ Scholars that stand out in this phase of ESP development are Françoise Grellet (1981), Christine Nuttall (1982) and Charles Alderson and Sandy Urquhart (1984). This phase encompasses the skills and strategies that enable learners to deal with guessing the meaning of words in context, using visual pattern to determine the type of text, exploiting cognates and so on. The learners are treated as thinking beings who can be asked to observe and verbalize the interpretation process that they use for the language use.

All the previous stages are based on description of the language use that is what learners do with the language. However, the concern of ESP is not the language use but rather the language learning. The true valid approach for ESP must be based on understanding the process for language learning which is exactly the focus of the fifth stage of the ESP development process that is the approach that has learning in its center, and learners as cognitive and affective beings.

2. FIVE VIEWS OF ESP

As ESP was maturing throughout the years, scholars have tried to express their views and establish a definition of ESP that would clarify all the misconceptions on what it represents. Some of the most renowned definitions are those of Hutchinson and Waters (1987), Strevens (1988), Robinson (1991), Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) and Smoak (2003).

According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987) ESP does not involve a particular kind of language teaching, material or methodology. The foundation of ESP is the question: 'Why does this learner need to learn a foreign language?' The answer to this question relates to the learners, the language required and the learning context and thus establishes the primacy of need in ESP. Need is defined by the reasons for which the student is learning English, which will vary from study purposes such as following a postgraduate course in an English speaking country to occupational purposes such as participating in business meetings, giving presentations or dealing with business correspondence. These purposes are the starting points which determine the language to be taught.

¹ Hutchinson, T. & Waters, A. (1987). *English for Specific Purposes*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

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Stevens's (1988) definition distinguishes between four *absolute* characteristics and two *variable* characteristics. The absolute characteristics are that ESP consists of English Language Teaching which is

- designed to meet specified needs of learners;
- related in content (themes and topics) to particular disciplines, occupations and activities;
- centered on language appropriate to those activities in syntax, lexis, discourse and semantics;
- in contrast with 'General English'.

The variable characteristics are that ESP

- may be restricted as to the learning skills to be learned (e.g. reading only);
- may not be taught according to any pre-ordained methodology.

Robinson's (1991) arguments are based on two defining criteria and a number of characteristics which are generally found to be true for ESP. The key criteria are that ESP is '*normally goal-directed*' and that ESP courses develop from a needs analysis which 'aims to specify as closely as possible what exactly it is that learners have to do through the medium of English.' Robinson's characteristics are that ESP courses are generally constrained by a limited time period in which their objectives have to be achieved, and are taught to adults in homogeneous classes in terms of their occupation or specialist studies that the students are involved in.

The definition of Dudley-Evans and St. John (1997) is actually a modification of Stevens's definition of 1988. They redefine the absolute characteristics and add more variable characteristic. So according to their modification there are three absolute and four variable characteristics.

Absolute characteristics:

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

Variable characteristics:

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

And while the previous scholars tried to determine what ESP is, Smoak (2003) has another approach. Her definition is partly concerned of what ESP is not. She presents five basic characteristics:

- ESP is not simply teaching technical vocabulary. Learners already know the technical terms of their field of study;
- ESP is not reading or writing *about* a profession. It is reading or writing texts actually *used* in that profession;
- Authentic language might not be what you assume it to be, so do not trust your intuition or that of the ESP textbook writer. Analyze and teach the language in use in the particular situations relevant to your students;
- Needs analysis is good but it should never be unilateral. Simply asking the professors or supervisors what kind of English their students or employees need probably will not result

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in a very accurate picture of students' actual needs;

- Do not assume that what you learn 10 – 15 years ago is still the prevailing or accepted practice.

ESP is not fundamentally different in terms of linguistic usage but differs rather in terms of particular modes of language that are common in scientific, business, educational and vocational settings.² ESP is English instruction based on actual and immediate needs of learners who have to successfully perform real life tasks unrelated to merely passing an English class or exam. It is needs based and task oriented. Teaching ESP is demanding, time consuming and different for every group of students. It is a challenge for all who teach it and it offers virtually unlimited opportunities for professional growth.

Nowadays, the interest for ESP has not decreased. On the contrary, it is still in great demand in the international arena and surely is the global language of the 21st century.

3. ESP AT THE TERTIARY LEVEL

English is perceived as the language of career opportunity, so the pressure grows for teaching to be more directly employment-related. In parallel with this, the output from secondary schools is tending to be at higher levels of proficiency, so a re-hash of the general English courses at later stages of learning becomes less acceptable.³

If we consider some of the variable characteristics presented in the definition of Dudley-Evans and St. John, like the variable that ESP may refer to or is designed for special disciplines, it is designed for adult learners, either for tertiary institutions or in professional settings, or the one stating that ESP is generally designed for learners who have intermediate or advanced level of English, we can conclude that university is the right place for ESP to be taught as a compulsory subject of the curriculum of every faculty. Notwithstanding, whenever we are talking about English the notion is almost always connected with general English courses. What students, curricula decision-makers and other relevant stakeholders are less familiar with is the fact that ESP provides learners with appropriate competences for academic and occupational settings, by identifying their needs and acting upon them. It should be made clear that general English is about teaching structures, lexical components, and development of skills (listening, reading, writing, speaking), that is not based on needs analysis of the learners. As its focus General English has topics of common interest and is taught via tried and verified textbooks. On the other hand ESP is based on the language and skills that are needed at academic level and in professional settings. It is the consciousness about the target situation identified through needs analysis, the driving force of ESP.

Nowadays, the accessibility to Internet, the influence of computer games, cartoons, movies, music, documentaries or better say the constant exposure to the language make English being well acquired at earliest ages. Furthermore, through formal education at primary and secondary level, students undergo some 13 years of compulsory instruction in English before they enroll at university. Adding to this the number the years of informal education through different after-school programs, private tutoring, or community-based organizations that some/most of them attend, when enroll at the university the students are expected to be equipped with solid command of English. And most of them are. But the question is what kind of English.

For all those years, they have been trained in general English, with exception of those who had attended secondary vocational schools. Therefore most of them at pre-university level possess skills

² Master, P (1998). *Responses to English for Specific Purposes*. San Jose State University, p.23

³ Harding, K. (2007). *English for Specific Purposes*. Oxford: Oxford University Press

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for every day communication or what Jim Cummins refers to as Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS). These skills encompass language skills that are not very demanding cognitively, and are used in everyday informal communication which is used among friends, family and coworkers. The language required is not specialized and the students are able to converse about everyday situations, frequently discussed subjects so they may seem fully proficient and fluent. However, they may be still struggling with significant language structures and the use of academic language in general. What English trains at tertiary level are skills and competences required at academic level and later on for professional advancement or what is being referred to as Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP). Apart from the listening, reading, writing and speaking about certain discipline, the language becomes more cognitively demanding. It also encompasses critical thinking skills such as comparing, classifying, synthesizing, evaluating and inferring. So, by being proficient in BICS does not necessarily mean that one is equally proficient in CALP that is formal academic language. On the contrary students can be rather poor in CALP. Although the terms BICS and CALP are still widely used, Jim Cummins has more recently used the terms *conversational language* and *academic language*.

Therefore, what students are not fully aware of is that at tertiary level the English that is taught is different. It is not conversational but academic language and it has everything to do with their needs. By addressing their needs they are being prepared for further academic settings and professional communication. Once at university, students have to change their habits in thinking, studying and learning, as well as learn new ways of presenting their work. Some of the skills that students require at tertiary level are, for example, using dictionary, guessing the meaning of the word in context, interpreting diagrams, graphs and symbols, note taking and summarizing, participating in discussions, academic writing and so on.

English at tertiary level is about building upon the foundation of students' general English skills and equipping them with new academic and professional skills as well as catering for their language needs.

4. ESP – THE CASE OF MACEDONIA

General English is being taught throughout the world at earlier ages with increasing success. As this trend continues, students will leave their primary and lower secondary education having already covered the traditional "General English" syllabus, and, regardless of how competent they have become, they will not wish to repeat the same old merry-go-round at secondary and tertiary level – their English studies need an application, a purpose.⁴

So, as English gathers the momentum as the main language of international communication, it has also brought new demands in the educational system in Macedonia at primary, secondary and tertiary level.

In the past the first contact with foreign language pupils had at fifth grade when English was taught only in one class while in the other classes other foreign languages were taught such as, French, Russian or German. As the country was becoming more open to the world, the demands were changing so English was introduced as a compulsory subject from the third grade. And nowadays in the era of information technology, English is taught as a compulsory subject from the first grade.

⁴ Harding, K. (2007). *English for Specific Purposes*. Oxford: Oxford University Press

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According to Eurostat⁵ survey from 2010, the number of foreign languages studied increased in Belgium, Germany, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Hungary, Romania, Slovenia and Macedonia but in others decreased as in Denmark, Greece, Spain, Poland, Finland, the UK, Iceland and Norway.

The survey for this paper was conducted at 21 faculties at three state universities – University of Ss. Cyril and Methodius, University of Goce Delcev, University of St. Clement of Ohrid and one private university - FON - First Private university.⁶ Vice deans for teaching were sent a questionnaire to answer several questions. Based on their answer, we will present the situation of ESP at Macedonian universities (see Table 1).

Seven faculties from the University of Ss. Cyril and Methodius completed the questionnaire and from the results we can see that five of them have included English in their study programs while two faculties have already discarded it from their curricula as of 2009. This is the case for the Faculty of Philosophy and the Faculty of Pharmacy. The reasons stated by the Faculty of Philosophy were the new reforms in the educational system which required implementation of new study programs which in their case had been tailored according to the professors' needs rather than catering for the students' needs. "Unfortunately these trends in the higher education in Macedonia continue at the expense of the quality." However, until 2006 English had been taught at the Faculty as a compulsory subject, while from 2006 until 2009 it had been elective. Similar reasons apply for the Faculty of Pharmacy with the difference that during the years it had been proven that the students studying at this Faculty were very proficient in English.⁷ At the Faculty of Mechanical Engineering and the Faculty of Law, English is taught for one semester, the difference being that at the Faculty of Mechanical Engineering it is an elective subject while at the Faculty of Law it is a compulsory subject. Another faculty where English is taught as a compulsory subject for two semesters is the Faculty of Medicine, but only for the three-year studies. For the students of the general practice studies which last for six years, English is elective and they can choose any summer semesters to attend classes. It is interesting that for the general practice studies, English used to be a compulsory subject until 2005 but "due to the inability of the Faculty of Philology to provide ESP professors, the Faculty decided to transfer it to elective subjects as of 2005 and engage specialists in the field on its own." At the Faculty of Economics and the Faculty of Pedagogy English is elective subject and it is taught for two semesters.

The number of faculties that answered the questionnaire from the University of Goce Delcev is also seven. At the Faculty of Technology, Faculty of Medical Sciences and the Faculty of Computer Science, English is an elective subject and it is taught only for one semester. At the Faculty of Agriculture and the Faculty of Electrical Engineering it is taught for two semesters again as an elective subject. At the Faculty of Mechanical Engineering Foreign Language is a compulsory subject and within English language is elective. It is also taught for two semesters. Faculty of Tourism and Business Logistics is the only faculty where General English is taught rather than ESP and again for two semesters.

Unfortunately, we got responses only from two faculties from the University of St. Clement of Ohrid – the Faculty of Law where English is taught for two semesters as elective subject and the Faculty of Administration and Management of Information Systems which is the only faculty where English is taught for four to six semesters depending on the study program. Furthermore, it is a compulsory subject only for one study program.

The responses from FON – the First Private University refer to the Faculty of Law, Faculty of Economics, Faculty of Communication and Information Technology, Faculty of Detectives and Security, and the Faculty of Political Sciences. The status is the same at all faculties, that is to say,

⁵ Mejer, L. S.K. Boateng, P. Turcheti. Population and Social Condition. Eurostat. 49/2010

⁶ The author had wider scope in mind but providing answers from faculties in Macedonia is still a difficult process.

⁷ The average mark of the students had been 9.

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English is taught as compulsory subject for two semesters. English got the status of a compulsory subject as of this academic year (2012/2013) and until last year it was taught as elective subject.

The number of students at state universities that elect English is relatively high, which was not the case at the private university when English was taught as elective subject.⁸ The average of students that elected English was some 30% and the reasons for this were the case of English becoming too technical for some of them so they could not follow (since their expectations were to study General English rather than ESP) or their perception that their knowledge of English is perfect and more than sufficient. The small percentage that did elect English were basically the best students at the faculties who were proficient in general English but thirsty for ESP.

5. CONCLUSION

Young people perceive themselves as being more proficient in foreign languages and English in particular than they really are. Maybe that is one of the reasons why English is not a compulsory subject at most of the faculties and it is becoming redundant. However, I am happy that FON decided to change the status of English and make it a compulsory subject and I would like to believe that it is due to the perceived need of the students as future professionals at the competitive market where English is an indispensable tool for an educated professional.

Furthermore, the new changes in the Law on Higher Education in Macedonia prescribe a three-month exchange program abroad as an obligation for the universities which would mean that before going abroad, Macedonian students should be equipped with sufficient academic skills in English so as to be hand in hand with their European peers.

Universities should be given clear elaboration of what ESP means and reasons why it should become a compulsory subject in their study programs. It should be taught at least for four semesters starting in the second year of the studies when the students have already got acquainted with the basics of the discipline they are studying.

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The author used to teach ESP at FON- First Private University