Teaching English Vocabulary for Special Purpose
With Special Reference to Professional English
Used in Catering, Hotel Management and Tourism

ABSTRACT

THESIS SUBMITTED FOR THE AWARD OF THE DEGREE OF
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IN
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BY
MOHD. AMIRULLAH KHAN

Under the Supervision of
PROF. MUNIR AHMAD

DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH
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ABSTRACT
In the present age English cannot be seen as a static and refined model but as a lively force lending itself to worldwide needs and purposes. The traditional method of teaching English has outlived its worth. The wide range of uses to which English is put today entails a recognition of functional varieties of English responsive to the social and professional needs of the users. Scholars the world over are engaged in studying the nature of the language to be presented to meet the new demands. The search for relevance and reality in English Language Teaching (ELT) has led to the emergence of a new field of enquiry namely English for Specific Purposes (ESP).

The growth and the development with English for Specific Purposes (ESP) has been so rapid that it has not only cut off into an enclave within the larger territory of English Language Teaching (ELT), it has also snowballed into sub-divisions within itself. It is common, for example, to make a distinction between English for Occupational Purposes (EOP) from English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Vocational
Purposes (EVP). Each of these is then subject to further sub-division. Thus within EOP we might have English for international telephone operators, for civil airline pilots, for mariners and so on; and within EAP we might have English for engineering, for economics, for medicine, for law, and so on. In English for Vocational Purpose, we might have English for hotel and catering staff, for secretaries, for managers, for diplomats, etc.

The present study is an attempt at analysing and ascertaining the general principles and techniques of teaching English for Specific Purpose with a detailed study of English Vocabulary used specially in Catering, Hotel Management and Tourism.

The thesis is split into seven Chapters. The Introduction (Chapter I) is an overview of the origins and the development of English for Specific Purposes (ESP). The definition of ESP is brought into light with a sharp contrast between ESP and GPE. I have attempted to relate the question of purpose to the concepts of training and education, and to indicate the importance of distinguishing between aims as eventual
behavioural targets and objectives, which are the pedagogic constructs designed to facilitate learning and to develop a capacity in the learners for achieving such aims for themselves. The chapter highlights the aims, perspective and claims of ESP to show how it fits into the landscape of English Language Teaching.

In Chapter II, the focus is on the application of ESP to ELT and ELL. It is seen that ESP, keeping abreast with other subjects, builds up a perfect link, which transforms human resources into shape which will fit into the slot of manpower needs. Talking of various branches of ESP, I have mentioned that ESP has not only diverged from the main track (ELT) but has built up its own network (in EOP, EAP, EVP, EST etc). This shows that there is an incredible scope when ESP is applied to ELT/ELL.

The Chapter III looks at the basic principles and techniques in course design and methodology of ESP. It has been suggested that ESP course designers should recognize the needs of the learners and to see that the course content should be gripping so that the students
interest and motivation is kept alive. This is the basic business of methodology which is the pivot of the entire operation. The entire teaching enterprise is seen as the development of a capacity in the students for using the language so that they can achieve their own competence for their own purpose. The exercises and various figures showing syllabus design process and materials design process and the proposed methodology are in no way definitive, but they should be taken into account to make teaching highly effective and productive.

In Chapter IV, I have dealt with the status and importance of Vocabulary in ELT/ELL and ESP. The study of vocabulary has suffered due to the biased treatment of the language teachers, who think that the teaching of grammar is more important than the teaching of vocabulary. It has been argued that the teaching of lexis is as important as grammar and without a good stock of vocabulary one is handicapped when it comes to communicate effectively. It has been pointed out that teaching of vocabulary is key issue in ESP where language teaching is confronted with various disciplines
and the learners need the language to acquire an altogether different sort of skills for their specific subject.

Chapter V deals with approaches and techniques of teaching Vocabulary. In this chapter, I have discussed the reasons for neglecting vocabulary in the past and the reasons for the present emphasis on vocabulary. It has been felt that the wide spread of English language across the globe and its use in different sort of purposes have forced the study of vocabulary back into reckoning. A model for teaching of vocabulary has been proposed. This model deals with the teaching of vocabulary with an emphasis on word formation and word analysis. The model negates the idea of rote learning and would lead the learner to pleasurable practice and acquisition.

In Chapter VI, it has been felt that it is the technical vocabulary of the special area where the learner faces a lot of difficulty. A detailed strategy has been formulated to teach Business English. A few more techniques have been scrutinized which
could be of great use in the teaching of vocabulary. Vocabulary cannot be taught in vacuum. It has to be taught with the help of the context because words keep on changing their meaning in different context. Use of TV/Video and realia could help the teacher showing the meaning. This has an added advantage as it negates the role of rote learning. A selection and listing of Vocabulary for Specific Purpose (Catering, Hotel Management and Tourism) has been taken up with the view that it would help the teachers and learners in the teaching and learning of vocabulary. The inferential summing up has been taken up in Chapter VII.
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1989
TO MY LOVING PARENTS

for putting my happiness

above their hopes
10 July 1989

Certified that Mr. Mohd Amirullah Khan has completed his thesis under my supervision. To the best of my knowledge this is his own work, and it is suitable for submission in supplication of Ph.D. degree.

[Signature]

Professor Muir Ahmad
(Supervisor)
KEY TO ABBREVIATIONS

Adj  :  Adjective
Adv  :  Adverb
Art  :  Article
EAP  :  English for Academic Purposes
BCP  :  English for Competitive Purposes
EEP  :  English for Educational Purposes
ELL  :  English Language Learning
ELT  :  English Language Teaching
GPE  :  General Purpose English
L₁   :  Mother Tongue
L₂   :  Foreign/Second Language
SPLT :  Special Purpose Language Teaching
N    :  Noun
Part :  Particle
V    :  Verb
PREFACE AND ACKNOWLEDGEMENT
There can be few people in English Language Teaching who are unaware of the concept of 'ESP'- English for Specific Purposes. It is a relatively recent development in the major worldwide industry of Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language. The field is already a busy one, full of prospectors staking claims and working seams. Ministries of Education in a number of countries regard it as one of the keys to their country's future development; firms and business organisations frequently build it into their training programmes; and for individual teachers and learners alike it has opened up new professional possibilities.

Although there is a good deal of impressive industry in the field, it does not always seem to be directed by a clear understanding of the aims of the enterprise and the most effective means of achieving them. On the whole, practical work on ESP has tended to proliferate without the benefit of theoretical reflection and much of it is makeshift.

Of those who do give serious thought to the principles underlying ESP practices, some argue that the practices are contingent modifications of general principles made by reference to administrative exigencies
and the requirement of direct accountability, but not calling for any new conceptualization of language teaching pedagogy as such. Others take a contrary view, insisting that ESP calls for a reformulation of principles of approach; for special expertise in specific language description and in course preparation and teaching. But in the absence of any clear theoretical framework, it is very difficult to assess the cogency of the opposing arguments.

This piece of work is an enquiry into the theoretical credentials of ESP—English for Specific Purposes with a special study of specific vocabulary used in catering, Hotel Management and Tourism. With the emergence of English as the main language of international business, it has become essential to make a detailed study of professional English used in Hotel and Tourism industry. Vocabulary has always been a key issue in the teaching of English for Specific Purpose. It has been felt that the technical vocabulary of specific area is like a stumbling block for the new entrants, therefore the thesis highlights the approaches and techniques of teaching specific vocabulary used in Catering, Hotel Management and Tourism. With such a framework I am
offering this thesis with the aim and purpose that the
credibility of ESP in the eyes of the consumers is
maintained, and its undoubted potential does not drain.

It is my pleasant duty to express the sense of
indebtedness and gratitude to my guide, Professor Munir
Ahmad, for his superb suggestions and invaluable advice.

I am highly indebted to Professor Jafar Zaki,
Chairman, Department of English and other teachers in the
Department for their constant support and encouragement in
every way.

The nature and scope of the topic posed the most
serious problem of obtaining books and articles needed for
research. Professor Esther Ramani of Indian Institute of
Sciences, Bangalore, and the Editor of Team, The English
Language Center, University of Petroleum and Minerals,
Dhahran, Saudi Arabia, came to my rescue by making available
xeroxed materials and providing back issues of the magazine
dealing with the topic.

I am particularly thankful for the invaluable
courtesy and efficiency of the Staff of the British
Council Library, New Delhi, who obtained for me a
number of books and xeroxed reproduction of published
articles.

A deep sense of obligation on my part beckons me to mention the name of Zennie as the main prop in this difficult venture. Needless to say that without her magnanimous support and words of encouragement nothing could have been done. I tender my sincerest thanks to her.

I deem it my most pleasant duty to acknowledge my indebtedness and convey my sense of gratitude to my friends and well wishers for their care and concern at all stages of the present work.

Aligarh

( MOHD. AMIRULLAH KHAN )
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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

A BRIEF SURVEY OF THE DEVELOPMENT OF ESP
The last two decades have produced immense changes in the world of language teaching and nowhere have developments taken place more rapidly and more widely than in the field of teaching English as a foreign/second language. We are witnessing in our time the greatest changes in the history of language teaching and learning — changes that reach into every aspect of this time honoured field of study. Formerly known by few as a mark of education, languages are now studied by people from all walks of life. More languages are studied than ever before, and methods of learning them are changing radically. The goals of the past, usually limited to contact with selected items of literature, have broadened to include spoken communication with an understanding of native speakers on the widest range of human interests.

In the present age English cannot be seen as a static and refined model but as a lively force lending itself to world-wide needs and purposes. The traditional method (Grammar-translation, Direct Method) of learning English has outlived its worth. New and promising avenues of inquiry are being opened in the extremely complex phenomenon of human language by the growing interests of teachers as well as learners. The wide range of lists to which English is put today entails recognition of functional varieties of English responsive to the social and professional needs of
the users. Scholars the world over are engaged in studying the nature of the language to be presented to meet the new demands. As a result, a lot of development has taken place in the field of language teaching/learning. To name a few of them, emphasis on audiolingual skills i.e. comprehension and speaking ability; the assimilation of conversational-style target language texts; the presentation of authentic target samples by the use of live native speakers in class or recordings in the language laboratory, the learning of pronunciation and grammar through pattern drills; situational teaching/learning; communicative theory of language learning; functional and notional approaches and finally the use of media-technology in language teaching.

Language learning is complex. It ranges from the acquisition of simple automatic skills to an understanding of abstract conceptual and aesthetic meanings, all occurring in the same sentences. And this learning must be achieved to an unbelievable degree of facility involving hundreds of articulatory changes and grammatical and lexical selections per minute. For this reason, one is justified in looking for the most relevant and the most perfect of all the development. This search for relevance and reality in English language teaching has led to the emergence of a new field of enquiry namely English for Specific Purposes.
(ESP). To some extent ESP is thought to be an off shoot of communicative theory. Thus in the present age, ESP is taken to be the live-wire of English language teaching (ELT) and as a matter of fact has fascinated and conquered the entire domain of ELT.¹

The Evolution of ESP

As with most developments in human activity, ESP was not a planned and coherent movement, but rather a phenomenon that grew out of a number of converging trends. These trends have operated in a variety of ways around the world, but we can identify three main reasons common to the emergence of all brands of ESP.

The demands of a New World

The end of the Second World War in 1945 heralded an age of enormous and unprecedented expansion in scientific, technical and economic activity on an international scale. The expansion created a world unified and dominated by two forces — technology and commerce — which in their relentless progress soon generated a demand for an international language.² For various reasons, most

notably the economic power of the United States in the post-war world this role fell to English. The effect was to create a whole new mass of people wanting to learn English, not for the pleasure or prestige of knowing the language, but because English was the key to the international currencies of technology and commerce. Previously the reasons for learning English (or any other languages) were not well defined. A knowledge of a foreign language was generally regarded as a sign of a well-rounded education, but few had really questioned why it was necessary. Learning a language was, so to speak, its own justification. But 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 — businessmen and women who wanted to sell their products, mechanics who had to read instruction manuals, doctors who needed to keep up with developments in their field and a whole range of students whose course of study included text books and journals only available in English. All these and many others needed English and, most importantly, they knew why they needed it.

This development was accelerated by the Oil crises of the early 1970s, which resulted in a massive flow of funds and Western expertise into the oil-rich countries.³

³ Ibid., p. 7.
English suddenly became big business and commercial pressures began to exert an influence. Time and money constraints created a need for cost-effective courses with clearly defined goals.

The general effect of all this development was to exert pressure on the language teaching profession to deliver the required goods. Whereas English had previously decided its own destiny; it now became subject to the wishes, needs, and demands of people other than language teachers. English had become accountable to the scrutiny of the wider world and the traditional leisurely and purpose-free stroll through the landscape of the English language seemed no longer appropriate in the harsher realities of the market place.

A revolution in Linguistics

At the same time as the demand was growing for English courses tailored to specific needs, influential new ideas began to emerge in the study of language. Traditionally, the aim of linguistics had been to describe the rules of English usage, that is, the grammar. However, the new studies shifted attention away from defining the formal features of language usage to discovering the ways in which language is actually used in real communication
(Widdowson, 1978). One finding of this research was that the language we speak and write varies considerably, and in a number of different ways, from one context to another. In English language teaching this gave rise to the view that there are important differences between, say, the English of Commerce and that of engineering. These ideas married up naturally with the development of English courses for specific groups of learners. The idea was simple: if language varies from one situation of use to another, it should be possible to determine the features of specific situations and then make these features the basis of the learners' course.

It was the late 1960s and early 1970s which saw the greatest expansion of research into the nature of particular varieties of English - for example, descriptions of written scientific and technical English by Ewer and Latorre (1969), Swales (1971), Selinker and Trimble (1976) and others. Most of the work at this time was in the area of English for Science and Technology (EST) and for a time ESP and EST were regarded as almost synonymous.

3. Focus on the learner

New developments in educational psychology also contributed to the rise of ESP, by emphasising the central
importance of the learners and their attitudes to learning (e.g. Rodgers, 1969). Learners were seen to have different needs and interests, which would have an important influence on their motivation to learn and therefore on the effectiveness of their learning. This lent support to the development of courses in which 'relevance' to the learners' needs and interests was paramount. The standard way of achieving this was to take texts from the learners' specialist area - text about Biology for Biology students etc. The assumption underlying this approach was that the clear relevance of the English course to their needs would improve the learners' motivation and thereby make learning better and faster.

The growth of ESP, then, was brought about by a combination of three important factors: the expansion of demand for English to suit particular needs and developments in the fields of linguistics and educational psychology. All three factors seemed to point towards the need for increased specialisation in language teaching.

The teaching of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) is an excellent illustration of the pace at which changes have taken place while the training of students in

4. Ibid., p. 8.
specialized language skills has been carried out for many years, it is only in the last ten or fifteen years that professional attention has focussed so clearly on the language needs of the specialists as opposed to the general language learner. Since the place of English as a foreign language in the curricula of educational and training institution is increasingly justified in instrumental terms, the extent of teaching for specific and limited purposes is steadily growing. It has proved a dynamic field in the way it has stimulated innovation in approach and method on the part of the growing professional body of teachers engaged in such programmes. Infact, over recent years, ESP has emerged as a particular sub-division of the general activity of teaching English to native speakers as well as speakers of other languages. As a matter of fact, it has taken on all the appurtenances of a separate discipline English for Specific Purposes (ESP). Closely matching teaching content to learner requirements, seems to be the ideal answer in language teaching to the charge of educational irrelevance and inappropriacy.

The diversity of purpose-oriented forms is naturally accompanied by new teaching strategies and techniques. ELT experts and an increasingly professional body of teachers all over the world are busy updating their

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theoretical proficiency and methodological devices. In the absence of clearly established body of previous research the field presents a new challenge to the classical scholar, the applied linguist, the traditional teacher and the modern learner. Therefore, the concept of 'ESP' needs to be understood in its historical perspective and interpreted in terms of its growth apropos the illuminating insights provided by different schools and scholars.

The development of ESP

From its early beginnings in the 1960s ESP has undergone three main phases of development. It is now in a fourth phase with a fifth phase starting to emerge. It is necessary to point out that ESP is not a monolithic universal phenomenon. ESP has developed at different speeds in different countries, and examples of all the approaches can be found operating somewhere in the world at the present time.

1. The Concept of Special Language: register analysis

This stage took place mainly in the 1960s and early 1970s and was associated in particular with the work of Peter Strevens (Halliday, McIntosh and Strevens, 1964), Jack Ewer (Ewer and Latorre, 1969) and John Swales (1971). Operating on the basic principle that the English
of, say, Chemical Engineering constituted a specific register different from that of, say, Zoology or of General English, the aim of the analysis was to identify the grammatical and lexical features of these registers. Teaching material then took these features as their syllabus. A good example of such a syllabus is that of 'A Course in Basic Scientific English' by Ewer and Latorre (1969).

In fact, as Ewer and Lattore's syllabus shows, register analysis revealed that there was very little that was distinctive in the sentence grammar of Scientific English beyond a tendency to favour particular forms such as the present simple tense, the passive voice and nominal compounds. It did not, for example, reveal any forms that were not found in General English. But we must be wary of making unfair criticism. Although there was an academic interest in the nature of registers of English perse, the main motive behind register analysis such as Ewer and Latorre's was the pedagogic one of making the ESP course more relevant to learners' needs. The aim was to produce a syllabus which gave high priority to the language forms students would meet in their science studies and in turn

would give low priority to forms they would not meet.

Widdowson characterizes traditional register studies of lexis and structure as 'quantitative' and suggests that what is needed is a new 'qualitative' approach which would consider such things as communicative competence and role performance. He acknowledges that a methodology for such a qualitative approach has not yet been perfected, yet urges that studies be made and materials be produced. We may describe what he advocates as discourse analysis and the communicative approach.

2. Beyond the Sentence: rhetorical or discourse analysis

There was serious flaw in the register analysis-based syllabus, but, as it happened, register analysis as a research procedure was rapidly overtaken by developments in the world of linguistics.7 Whereas in the first stage of its development, ESP had focussed on language at the sentence level, the second phase of development shifted attention to the level above the sentence, as ESP became closely involved with the emerging field of discourse or rhetorical analysis. The leading figures in this movement were Henry Widdowson in Britain and the so-called Washington School of Larry Selinker, Louis Trimble,

7. Ibid.
John Lackstorm and Mary Todd-Trimble in the United States.

Register analysis had focused on sentence grammar, but now attention shifted to understanding how sentences were combined in discourse to produce meaning. The concern of research, therefore, was to identify the organizational patterns in texts and to specify the linguistic means by which these patterns are signalled. These patterns would then form the syllabus of the ESP course.

Discourse and discourse analysis have received much attention in recent years, but several different things are intended by the terms. Discourse may first of all refer primarily to spoken interaction, which will be analysed in terms of units of meaning, organized into a hierarchy employing some or all of the terms act, move, exchange, transaction and others, secondly, discourse may refer to a stretch of language, either spoken or written, analysis of which will consider aspects of sentence connection, or cohesion. Widdowson has suggested that it is more appropriate to use the term text here, not discourse, making the useful distinction between viewing a stretch of language as an exemplification of the structure of the language, especially of devices to indicate structuring above the level of the sentence (text), and viewing a stretch of language as a unique piece of
communication (discourse). Incorporated in Widdowson's definition of discourse is the third generally used meaning of the term, which is employed to cover the consideration of rhetorical functions or communicative purposes. 8

Widdowson's ideas have certainly led to a rethinking of methods and approaches and have led to the production of some interesting materials. But his basic assumptions must still be challenged and the limitations of his ideas acknowledged. In the first place Widdowson is writing about ESP in tertiary education so we must not expect his ideas to be applicable generally in ESP or at lower academic levels.

3. Target situation analysis

The stage that we come to consider now did not really add anything new to the range of knowledge about ESP. What it aimed to do was to take the existing knowledge and set it on a more scientific basis by establishing procedures for relating language analysis more closely to learners' reasons for learning. Given that the purpose of an ESP course is to enable learners to function adequately in a target situation, that is, the situation in which the learners will use the language they

are learning, then the ESP course design process should proceed by first identifying the target situation and then carrying out a rigorous analysis of the linguistic features of that situation. The identified features will form the syllabus of the ESP course. This process is usually known as 'needs analysis'. However, the term 'target situation analysis' used by Chambers (1980) is preferred as it is a more accurate description of the process concerned.

The most thorough explanation of target situation analysis is the system set out by John Munby in *Communicative Syllabus Design* (1978). The Munby model produces a detailed profile of the learners' needs in terms of communicative purposes, communicative setting, the means of communication, language skills, functions, structures etc.

The target situation analysis stage marked a certain 'coming of age' for ESP. What had previously been done very much in a piecemeal way, was now systematised and learner need was apparently placed at the centre of the course design process.

4. **Skills and Strategies**

We noted that in the first two stages of the development of ESP all the analysis had been of the surface

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forms of the language (whether at sentence level, as in register analysis, or above, as in discourse analysis). The target situation analysis approach did not really change this, because in its analysis of learner need it still looked mainly at the surface linguistic features of the target situation.

The fourth stage of ESP has been an attempt to look below the surface and to consider not the language itself but the thinking processes that underlie language use. There is no dominant figure in this movement, although we might mention the work of Francoise Grellet (1981), Christine Nuttal (1982) and Charles Alderson and Sandy Urquhart (1984) as having made significant contribution to work or reading skills. Most of the work in the area of skills and strategies, however, has been done close to the ground in schemes such as the National ESP Project in Brazil and the University of Malaya ESP Project.

Both these projects were set up to cope with study situations where the medium of instruction is the mother tongue but students need to read a number of specialist texts which are available only in English. The projects

10. Ibid., p. 13.
have, therefore, concentrated their efforts on reading strategies.

The principal idea behind the skills-centred approach is that underlying all language use there are common reasoning and interpreting processes, which, regardless of the surface forms, enable us to extract meaning from discourse. There is, therefore, no need to focus closely on the surface forms of the language. The focus should rather be on the underlying interpretive strategies, which enable the learner to cope with the surface forms, for example guessing the meaning of words from context, using visual layout to determine the type of text, exploiting cognates (i.e. words which are similar in the mother tongue and the target language) etc. A focus on specific subject registers is unnecessary in this approach, because the underlying processes are not specific to any subject register. In terms of materials this approach generally puts the emphasis on reading or listening strategies. The characteristic exercises get the learners to reflect on and analyse how meaning is produced in and retrieved from written or spoken discourse. Taking their cue from cognitive learning theories, the language learners are treated as thinking beings who can be asked to observe
and verbalise the interpretive processes they employ in language use.\textsuperscript{11}

5. A learning-centred approach

In outlining the origins of ESP we identified three forces, which we might characterise as need, new ideas about language and new ideas about learning. It should have become clear that in its subsequent development, however, scant attention has been paid to the last of these forces - learning. All of the stages outlined so far have been fundamentally flawed, in that they are all based on descriptions of language use. Whether this description is of surface forms, as in the case of register analysis, or of underlying processes, as in the skills and strategies approach, the concern in each case is with describing what people do with language. But our concern in ESP is not with language use although this will help to define the course objectives. Our concern is with language learning. We cannot simply assume that describing and exemplifying what people do with language will enable someone to learn it. If that were so, we would need to do no more than read a grammar book and a dictionary in order to learn a language.\textsuperscript{12} A truly valid approach must be based on an

\textsuperscript{11} Ibid., pp. 13-14.

\textsuperscript{12} Ibid.
understanding of the processes of language learning. This brings us to the fifth stage of ESP development — the learning-centred approach.

English language teaching is notoriously in vogue and one of the most attractive and sophisticated weapons of recent years has been that of English for Specific Purposes (ESP). The current instrument of ESP is catching on like fire, although it has now been overtaken in topicality by other developments, notably self-directed learning, ESP is still the subject of much discussion. One of the major issues is the extent to which English for Specific Purposes (ESP) stands as a sharp rival of General Purpose English (GPE for Short). Many exciting new developments have occurred under the aegis of ESP, but all these ideas and techniques could well be applied to General Purpose English Courses.¹³

As with all matters of fashion, the problem is that popular approbation tends to conceal the need for critical examination, so it would be better to reckon the pros and cons of the cold war going on between ESP and GPE.

ESP versus GPE

In ESP, 'purpose' refers to the eventual practical

¹³. Robinson, Pauline. On Cit. p. 1
use to which the language will be put in achieving occupational and academic aims. As generally understood, it is essentially, therefore, a training concept: having established as precisely as possible what learners need the language for, one then designs a course which converges on that need. The course is successful to the extent that it provides the learners with the restricted competence they need to meet their requirements. In GPE it is of course not possible to define purpose in this way. Instead it has to be conceived of in educational terms, as a formulation of objectives which will achieve a potential for later practical use. Here it is not a matter of developing a restricted competence to cope with a specified set of tasks, but of developing a general capacity for language use. Whereas, therefore, 'purpose' is a descriptive term in ESP, in GPE it is a theoretical term in that it has to be defined by reference to an educational belief about what provides most effectively for a future ability to use language. ESP is essentially, training operation which seeks to provide learners with a restricted competence to enable them to cope with certain clearly defined tasks. These tasks constitute the specific purposes which the ESP course is designed to meet. The course, therefore, makes direct reference to eventual aims. GPE, on the other hand, is essentially an educational operation which seeks to
provide learners with a general capacity to enable them to cope with undefined eventualities in future. Here, since there are no definite aims which can determine course design, there has to be recourse to intervening objectives formulated by pedagogic theory. These objectives represent the potential for later realization and are, so to speak, the abstract projection of aims. In GPE, the actual use of language occasioned by communicative necessity is commonly a vague and distant prospect on the other side of formal assessment. It is crucial therefore that objectives should be formulated and assessed in such a way as to be a projection of eventual aims. With ESP, on the other hand, the prospect of actual language use is brought immediately into the foreground and into focus so that it serves both as the immediate objective and eventual aim of learning.

The distinction is summarized in tabular form:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ESP</th>
<th>Specification of objectives : equivalent to aims = training : development of competence restricted</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>GPE</td>
<td>Specification of objectives : leads to aims = education : development of general capacity</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the preceding discussion there are two distinctions which call for further clarification. First, there is the distinction between aims and objectives. Objectives, here
stand for pedagogic intentions of a particular course of study to be achieved within the period of that course and in principle measurable by some assessment device at the end of the course. Aims, represent the purposes to which learning will be put after the end of the course. Thus a course may have as one of its objectives the development of the ability to carry out certain specific experiments in Bio-chemistry, but the aim of this exercise would refer to a more general capacity for problem solving and rational enquiry which learners could apply to later experience even if they had no further contact with Bio-chemistry for the rest of their lives. In English teaching, a course might specify objectives in terms of a set of lexical items or syntactic structures, or notions or functions, but its aims would be to develop an ability to exploit a knowledge of these elements in effective communication.

A central problem in education is to know how to define objectives so that they project students towards achievement of aims, how to fashion particular subjects so that they have relevance beyond themselves. A lack of motivation on the part of students may arise either from a rejection of the aims presupposed by the objectives, or from a rejection of the objectives as a valid mediation towards aims that they do accept. These two sources of
student disaffection are not always distinguished but they need to be, because they call for different remedies. If aims are rejected, you need to enquire into your concept of the nature of education. If objectives are rejected, you need to revise your pedagogy.

The second distinction is between competence and capacity. The former term is a familiar one. In Cromsky's original formulation it refers to the speaker's knowledge of the sentences of his language and constitutes a generative device for the production and reception of correct linguistic forms. Over recent years the concept of competence has been extended to incorporate not only the speaker's knowledge of the language system, but his knowledge also of social rules which determine the appropriate use of linguistic forms. Thus communicative competence is said to include linguistic competence. But in both cases what is referred to is a conformity to pre-existing rules of behaviour as if instances of language use were only tokens of types of knowledge structure. What the concept of competence does not appear to account for is the ability to create meanings by exploiting the potential inherent in the language for continual modification in response to change. It is this ability

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that is referred to as the term 'capacity'. Whereas 'competence' carries with it the implication that behaviour is determined by rule almost as if human simply responded to linguistic and sociolinguistic control, 'capacity' carries with it the assumption that human beings are in control of their own destiny and exploit the rules at their disposal for their own ends. One might claim that both competence and capacity allow for creativity. But the creativity referred to in the discussions of linguistic competence refers to the generative mechanism of grammar which allows for the production and reception of sentences never previously attested. The creativity associated with capacity refers to the ability to produce and understand utterances by using the resources of grammar in association with features of context to make meaning, which is a function of the relationship between the two.

Apropos these distinctions, we can define training as the development of competence to deal with a limited range of problems identified in advance. Courses of instruction are based on a specification of what these problems are and aim at providing trainees with formulae which can be applied to these problems. Obviously, some

15. Ibid., p. 8.
flexibility has to be allowed for, since there is always likely to be some lack of fit between formula and problem. But training on, of its nature, only allow for relatively minor adjustment. Difficulties will arise if a problem needs to be interpreted and redefined before it can fit a formula, or if a formula needs to be modified to account for an unforeseen problem. Such situations, which involve not simply the application but the exploitation of knowledge, call for the engagement of capacity. Increased flexibility to account for unpredictable eventualities shifts training towards education in that it sets up a division between objectives and aims, which would, in training, normally be conflated, and so seeks to develop capacity beyond the confines of limited competence.

So what we have been saying is that increased specificity of language use means an increased restriction of competence and an assumption of similarity between formula and problem, and this allows for a conflation of the aims and objectives of instruction. The question that now arises is whether it is satisfactory to consider ESP an exercise in training of this kind which circumvents issues in education.

To throw the battle between ESP and GPE, into a

16. Ibid.
floodlit arena rather than to jump on the bandwagon of fashion, one finds that all language courses are designed to specification and in this sense can all be said to be directed at specific purposes. In GPE, however when the eventual use of the language being learned is not clearly discernable, purposes are specified by objectives, pedagogic constructs which seek to provide for achievement of practical communicative aims, when occasion arises after the completion of the course. The recent shift of emphasis from structure to notion and function, from formal to communicative categories does not alter the aim but leads to a reconsideration of objectives in achieving it. In General Purpose English, purpose is understood as a matter of objective which is often given formal recognition by a public examination, whereas purpose in ESP is understood as a matter of aim. That is to say, since the actual practical needs for the language can be described in advance, they can represent a quite precise specification for the course. If a course is designed to meet aims directly, then there is no need to set up an intervening stage of pedagogically defined objectives. This would appear to be the case with ESP, as commonly conceived; it would seem that its aim oriented character allows its practitioners to conflate objectives

17. Ibid., p. 12.
and aims and so avoid some of the most troublesome problems of pedagogy. This conflation of objectives and aims has the effect of characterizing ESP as a field of training rather than education, thereby giving it an appealing cost-effective appearance. However, there are certain difficulties about this reduction of pedagogic complexity. It presupposes, to begin with, that it is possible and desirable to restrict the learner to the acquisition of a particular repertoire of formulae which can be applied directly to the solution of a predictable range of problems, that is to say, that the learners purpose can be met by his being provided with a restricted competence. An increasing specificity of purpose will lead to an increasing confinement of competence as the formulae to be learned and the problems they are to be applied to, come closer into correspondence. There are occupations and occasions in more general language use (polite greeting formulae, for example) which call for little more than running through a routine; but broadly speaking, effective language use requires the creative exploitation of the meaning potential inherent in language rules — requires in other words communicative capacity, which helps to negotiate the gap between formulae and problem and which has to be provided for in the
formulation of pedagogic objectives.

So, the course designers/ material producers should be on the look out and must be aware of this dreaded lacunae. Even if the learner is confined to a range of stock responses constituting a restricted competence s/he must be given room for the development of communicative capacity. Otherwise, courses would in effect be mere phrase books, taught as patterns of conditioned response, as automatic formula-problem correlations.

The term ESP itself has changed its significance during its march ahead. Formerly representing English for Special Purpose, the term now used by 'an increasing number of scholars, practitioners and institutions' is English for Specific Purposes. 18 English for Special Purposes is thought to suggest languages, i.e. restricted languages, which for many people is only a small part of ESP, whereas English for Specific Purposes focusses attention on the purpose of the learner and refers to the whole range of language resources. The abbreviation ESP will be used throughout this piece of work and can be interpreted as representing either English for Special or Specific Purposes since the sources quoted can be seen to

refer to the same entity, whichever term is employed.

**What is ESP?**

In order to understand what is implied by ESP, we have to probe into the definition of ESP. A definition of ESP which is still current is that given by Munby (1978) at the beginning of his book on the analysis of learners' needs and it runs as follows:

> ESP courses are those where the syllabus and materials are determined in all essentials by the prior analysis of the communicative needs of the learner. 19

This is undoubtedly a useful starting point, but in fact it reflects the state of ESP at a particular point in time. Another definition given by Mackay:

> It (here ESP) is generally used to refer to the teaching/learning of a foreign language for a clearly utilitarian purpose of which there is no doubt. 20

Any way this utilitarian purpose is generally conceived of as successful performance in work, work in which the English plays an auxiliary role. Thus by ESP is meant the teaching of English, not as an end in itself but as an essential means to a clearly identifiable goal. So the


general purpose of GPE with which we are contrasting the specific purpose of ESP is that of general, education-for-life, culture and literature oriented language course, in which language itself is the subject matter and the purpose of the course. The student of ESP, however, is learning English enroute to the acquisition of some quite different body of knowledge or set of skills.

The concept ESP is still fairly new, although its practices may have existed for some time. ESP has established its own jargon. Definition of ESP are numerous, the concept being fluid enough to support a number of interpretations. To shuffle across and juggle around with numerous interpretations, one can compromise with interpretation given below which stands in a kind of equilibrium state:

A definition of ESP needs to distinguish between four absolute and two variable characteristics:

**Absolute Characteristics of ESP**

(a) designed to meet specified needs of the learner;
(b) related in content (i.e., in its themes and topics) to particular disciplines, occupations and activities;
(c) centred on the language appropriate to those activities, in syntax, lexis, discourse, semantics;
(d) in contrast with 'General English'.

Variable Characteristics of ESP

(a) restricted as to the language skills to be learned (e.g. reading only, speech recognition only);
(b) taught according to any methodology (i.e. is not to be restricted to any particular methodology, although communicative methodology is very often felt to be the most appropriate).

Christopher Brumfit rightly remarks in this regard, which supports the assumption that communicative methodology is most suitable for the teaching of English for Specific Purposes:

First, it is clear that an ESP course is directly concerned with the purposes for which learners need English, purposes which are usually expressed in functional terms. ESP thus fits firmly within the general movement towards "Communicative" teaching of the last decade or so.

The fact that the student of ESP can express his or her purpose succinctly suggests several other elements in the definition of ESP.

The first of these is the time factor. As


Fitzjoh says:

The very concept for "special purposes" implies that foreign language study is a subsidiary contribution to another, main, interest, and that there will normally be pressure to achieve the required level of linguistic competence in the minimum of time. 23

Another element over which more people are agreed is that of the age of the ESP learner. For most people the learner is an adult or near adult. This seems obvious when we consider ESP (English for Occupational Purposes): for people who are in jobs or about to take up employment.

One reason that the typical ESP learner was thought to be adult was the special/general contrast. The typical general English course is that given at secondary school, starting with beginners and bringing them (it is hoped) to reasonable competence in all areas of the language.

If the link of ESP with adults is made it is also sometimes assumed that the student of ESP is a post-beginner. That is, the student has done a general English course at school and now, as a young adult, wishes to extend or adapt this competence to his or her particular field of work or study. In those cases where the school

course has been inadequate, the student actually needs remedial English, but, it is hoped, of a more purposeful kind than before.

The third element in a definition of ESP arising from the fact that the students of ESP can express his or her purpose in learning is this very purposefulness itself. Strevens seems to express this in the first part of his three-part definition of ESP: "In SP-LT the language-using purposes of the learner are paramount". This implies two things: firstly that the learner and teacher should be constantly aware of these purposes and not introduce irrelevant material into the course, and, secondly, and more importantly, that an ESP Course should be learner-centred. Attention to the needs of the learner is certainly a key element in any definition of ESP; indeed for some, eg. Munby, it is the crucial element.

Implicit in the definition of ESP as purposeful learning and teaching is the idea that the purpose can be expressed and tested. Rather than studying for an open-ended period of time for a general examination, the student of ESP is usually studying in order to perform a role. The measure of success for students learning English for hotel management, or English for food technology,

is whether they can perform convincingly as hotel managers in English or whether they can act appropriately as food technologists in English. This attention to successful performance in English rather than knowledge of the rules of English is part of contemporary approach to ELT which again, like learner-centredness, while being particularly appropriate to ESP, is not peculiar to it. However, contemporary views of the importance of communicating or performing or interacting successfully in English are such that this ability is seen to be an essential element in the definition of any ESP Course.

Scope of ESP

ESP is not only divided off into an enclave within the wider boundaries of English teaching, it is also parcelled up into sub-division within itself. It has almost become a blanket term to cover up variety of purposes. There have been a number of attempts to draw up a classification for the different branches of ESP. The result has often been a bewildering array of labels and abbreviations.

Nevertheless, a classification can often be useful, as long as it is treated as a framework, a set of entry points to a range of interlinked issues.25 It is common,

for example, to distinguish English for Occupational Purposes (EOP) from English for Academic or Educational Purposes (EAP/EEP). Each of these is then subject to further sub-division.

a. Occupational requirements eg. for international telephone operators, Civil airline pilots etc.

b. Vocational training programmes, e.g. for hotel and catering staff, technical trades, etc

c. academic or professional study, e.g. engineering, medicine, law, etc.

So, there is tremendous scope for ELT when it is confronted with specific purposes. The branches of ESP will be explored in detail in Chapter Two.

Perspective of ESP

ESP is far from being an isolated development to be seen solely in the perspective of English Language Teaching. In order to be fully understood, ESP has to be seen in relation to three great trends that have been taking place in the last two decades. They are:

(a) Learner-Centred education

In every subject, in every country, there has been an increasing shift of the centre of gravity in education
towards the learner, his needs, his modes of learning process; and to some extent away from a teacher-centred outlook. The trend towards the learner-centred education has led to the concept of needs-analysis — the idea that the teacher can better help the learner by knowing who the learner is, why he seeks to learn English, what he hopes to be able to do with and in the language at the end of his course of instruction.

(b) The Spread of English

Another main contribution to the development of ESP has come from the enormous spread of English. Present estimates of the number of people in the world who use English for some purpose or other vary between 750 million and 1,500 million — yet only some 300 million of them are native speakers of English. Before 1940 the total number was perhaps 500 million, so it has trebled in 50 years. 26

In the process of becoming so globally widespread, major changes have taken place in the status and position of English within the national education system has become steadily less cultural — and in particular less bound up with English Literature — and more instrumental more a tool whereby the Indian citizen can open a casement

on to the modern world, especially the world of Science, technology, the media, trade and industry and international aid and administration.

At the same time as, and perhaps because of, this shift away from cultural aim and towards instrumental aims there has occurred a shift also from literature to language as the underlying basis and philosophy for the teaching of English. And the new reliance on language rather than literature as the basis of language teaching has brought with it great changes in syllabus, in methodology, in teaching materials, in teacher training.

ESP, then, can flourish today because of the changes in educational aims and practices that have followed the massive spread of English across the globe.

**Developments in Syllabus design**

The third perspective within ESP has to be seen in relation to changes in the design of teaching courses: in the principles of syllabus design, to which must be linked the choice of most suitable methodology. The earliest syllabus principles were linguistic and structural, in the sense used in British ELT: the syllabus consisted chiefly of an ordered list of language items to be taught, often
referred to as "the structures of English". Next came the development within the American tradition, of structuralist linguistics, and the extension of this into foreign language teaching, notably in the Michigan materials for EFL, where the teaching items were not rather ill-defined 'structures of English' but were the outcome of descriptive linguistics applied to English. ^27 (It is often forgotten how very different were structuralists syllabuses in the mould of Trager, Fries and Mackwardt from the earlier structural syllabuses in the tradition of Palmer, West and Hornby; both were 'linguistic' syllabuses, but in the British sense 'linguistic' meant 'composed of language items' whereas in American sense it meant 'derived from theoretical linguistics'.)

Once linguistic syllabuses were universally adopted a great deal of emphasis was placed on vocabulary, on establishing lists of most-frequent and most-useful words, and on grouping them together for more effective teaching and learning. This is where situational principles came in. Syllabuses began to make use of situations, originally as an aid to the learning of vocabulary through the

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creation of theme-related sets of vocabulary items, then as a contribution to authenticity; in addition, situations were found to be a great help in creating more attractive and effective methodologies, by injecting interest and variety into the teaching. Most recently in this chain of development the concepts of notions and functions have been added to the linguistic and situational principles of syllabus design, and these in turn have seemed most frequently (though not always) to be best associated with communicative methodology. This is the context within which ESP has evolved. In order to design a course for the Specific Purposes of particular learners the teachers can make use of linguistic, situational, notional and functional principles when devising a syllabus, and they can employ any of a wide range of teaching methods, preferably including communicative techniques. A detailed study of syllabus design in (Chapter * III) and a general/specialized study of vocabulary will be taken up later on.

Claims of ESP

We may say that an ESP course is purposeful and is aimed at the successful performance of occupational or educational roles. It is based on rigorous analysis of students' needs and should be 'tailor made'. An ESP
course may differ from another in its selection of skills, topics, situations and functions and also language. It is likely to be of limited duration. Students are more often but not necessarily so, and may be at any level of competence in the language: beginner, post-beginner, etc. Vocabulary is obviously a key issue in ESP and some courses are based exclusively on it.
CHAPTER II

VARIOUS BRANCHES OF ESP AND ITS APPLICATION IN ELT/ELL
ESP is not a separate movement concerned only with the 'special' and 'restricted' language of particular fields. It is an attempt to draw together some of the many lines of growth and to put them in a wider language teaching perspective. ESP is ultimately only significant if it is seen as developing from and contributing to, the language teaching and learning profession as a whole. In fact, it was actually necessary in the early stages of development for those types of language teaching which could be termed 'Special Purpose' to forge their own terms reference, and to be identified as a new and promising movement.

Beginning in the early 1960s, there were many reports from around the world of a growing dissatisfaction with the language teaching practice then current, where all learners were served up with literature regardless of their aims, needs or interests. Strevens (1971), for example, in an early article, pointed out the irrelevance of a literary training to large number of learners for whom English was a tool in a job or profession. He neatly summed up the dominant educational philosophy of the time. In it he tried to explain why he thought it unjust that

the growing number of young people learning English and also studying science and technology should be forced to learn their English largely through the study of literature and literary criticism. Strevens felt that the intending students of science and technology faced three disadvantages in the nature of the English teaching available to them:

a) they spent much time and effort learning material that was not their primary concern (the disadvantage of wasted time);

b) they were not given material that were their primary concern (the disadvantage of gaps in the learner's knowledge);

c) in many cases the attitudes of the teacher were hostile to science (the disadvantage of hostile attitudes).

Wingard (1971), reporting from Zambia, was one of many practitioners who described his students' frustration at learning inappropriate English, and who set out his own attempts to establish a more relevant programme in a university context.² Such inappropriateness is not, of course, a thing of the past, and most readers will be able to think of their own examples. However, we can use the early-to-mid-1960s as a useful reference point when

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discussing the beginning of a major shift of emphasis in English-language teaching practice.

In essence both Strevens and Wingard are in no way inventors of ESP but they have argued that the nature of the learner's needs should determine the teaching given to them. Today those views are almost universally accepted and they form the basis for teaching English for Specific Purposes - ESP.

It was characteristic of these 'early days' that syllabuses and teaching materials were based on the analysis of scientific and technological language. The concept of 'register analysis' was important to describe this largely structural and lexical analysis of 'Scientific Style'.\(^3\) A Course in Basic Scientific English, in Chile by Ewer and Latorre (1969), is an excellent example of this. During this period, the question of 'Special' language was much discussed, and the notion of frequency of syntactic and lexical items was of considerable significance. Since then, the whole concept of ESP has broadened, and today we have a plethora of approaches, trends and methodologies, based on growingly sophisticated views of 'language', 'communication needs' and 'language skills'.

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Language as a subject versus Language as a service

There is one further point which is perhaps closer than any to the 'core' of ESP which should be mentioned here, since the shift away from literary training discussed earlier has hinged on it. It is what Robinson (1980) has called the 'utilitarian' purpose of language. To twist it in another way, it is best identified as the distinction between language as a subject - the traditional view, which is valid in some cases — and language as a service. When ESP began to be current and up to date as a concept, in the period of time we have been discussing, the idea that language teaching should be carried out 'in the service of' other subjects or spheres of life was — and still is — felt by many to be restrictive, forcing the teacher to work within narrow confines. It was another way in which special-purpose language teaching was 'different', not to say inferior. It is a measure of how quickly things have moved that the 'service' notion, far from stultifying development, has opened up more varied lines of investigation than the 'language as subject' view has done. So the 'service' idea, which originally provided a route out of mainstream

language teaching, is actually a rich route back in, a way of linking up again with many different issues.

**Subject-Language Integration**

The initiative for subject-language integration has come from the Language Across the Curriculum Project of the Department of English Education at the University of London and has been supported by the recommendations of the Bullock Report 'A Language for Life'. Essentially this approach requires the redirecting of literature-oriented, traditional language teaching, to examine the linguistic and communicative demands of other subjects in the school/college. This is not just a question of 'English Literature' or 'English Language', but a determination that language cannot be divorced from context: that reading and listening must always have a purpose; that writing and speaking must have an audience. The report recommended the development of 'Language policies' in Schools, where the language specialists would be asked to step outside his/her subject barrier, behind which s/he so often worked in isolation from context and purpose. The responsibility also lies for providing facilities for students who are not reaching their apparent potential for

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The point is that the policy has a great deal in common with that branch of ESP labelled 'study skills' or English for Academic Purposes' or 'English for Occupational Purposes' or 'English for Vocational Purposes', where the requirements of other disciplines are the concern of the language teacher. It is notable that these two areas ('language across the curriculum' and 'study skills') have developed largely in isolation, whereas a dialogue might lead to their mutual benefit.

These are merely examples to illustrate the point that ESP is a focus of language teaching activity which certainly has its own range of emphasis and priorities, reflecting, in Drobnics Words (1978) 'The shifts and changes in the world's balance of power in this century'. He means by this that, in the post-colonial era, the nations of the world have a much greater say in determining their own language policies, instead of having a language thrust upon them.

The Rationale

On the one hand, specific language teaching can help students master their chosen subjects, vocational, vocational, vocational.
academic or preparatory, where a general language course may fail. Every English teacher has been troubled by comments from subject teachers to the effect that students are failing because their English isn't good enough. As a matter of fact, the truth of the matter usually is that their English is perfectly good enough, it's just that they have had no help in transferring their language skills to other subjects and adapting them to meet slightly specialised demands. Subject-language integration comes from the recognition that this transfer does not happen automatically for the majority of students and deserves special attention.

On the other hand, language skills acquired while studying a subject chosen by the learner are likely to be thoroughly learned because of association with a real context and intrinsic interest. Something thoroughly learned, however specific, can act as a model or anchor for further learning. For example, if one learns how to analyse what is implied in the wording of examination questions for any subject at Central Board of Secondary Education (C.B.S.E.) level, one will certainly be well equipped to cope with most of the questions in other subjects too. If in cooking one learns to read, spell and

use a 'wooden spoon', one has a reference when trying to read or learn the spelling of any other word containing 'oo'.

For instance, the word 'cut' appears not only in dress patterns, but on packets, on magazine coupons. Then another example of an abbreviation 'st' means stitch in knitting and crochet instructions, but written as 'ST' or 'St' can in other contexts mean 'Street' or 'Saint' and here is an opportunity to extend the learner's from specific to more general contexts. Thus subject-language integration can generate language development beyond the specific subject-matter.

Any way there is a possibility of conflict between these two aims. What is it all for — learning the subject or learning the language skills? The ideal, of course, is that there should be a dynamic interaction between the two. As the subject teacher fires the students with interests and hands out stimulating assignments, the language teacher uses the material for practising a skill. This improves the students performance in the subject. For the subject teacher, no more worries about how the students will cope with assignments. For the language teacher no more of those irrelevant examples gathered incongruously
together for the sake of practising some abstract pattern on skill.

The problems

One of the problems with such a principle is that it is very untidy in practice. Language teachers do not always know as much as they think they know about the language demands of other courses. Some aspects of language appear to be subject-specific and others do not. The extent of the responsibility of subject specialists for teaching the language of their subjects is unclear. Language teachers can find themselves lured into situations where they are attempting to answer questions about subject matter which is not their specialism.

Not only is the subject-language integration untidy for teachers and administrators; it can also be confusing for students because it overrides the neat barriers between subjects upon which many of them depend. This is particularly true of students with language difficulties. They think themselves as 'no good at English' and long to get out of the English classroom into another subject lecture or workshop where they enjoy an albeit temporary

sense of security that they will succeed. On the one hand it is desirable that such students should not feel doomed to failure everywhere because of language difficulties. On the other hand there is the reality that many jobs, most promotions and qualifications depend to some extent on language skills. An important task in subject-language integration is to help such students realize the value of the language part of the subject.

Branches of ESP

With the growing discomfort on the part of language teachers and learners, that the traditional method of teaching English was of little good when put to world-wide needs. Then with the advent of learner-centred approach for which the practitioners and learners had to integrate subject with the language. These seething forces have forced ESP not only to cut off into an enclave within the large territory of English language teaching, it has also branched out into sub-divisions within itself.

The survey in Chapter I shows that in its relatively brief history there have been several major shifts in the development of ESP both in theory and practice. However, we have tried to show that, in spite
of their differences, the successive stages have all concentrated on the linguistic aspect of ESP. They are language-centred approaches. Now let us return to the question posed at the beginning of Chapter I: 'What is ESP?' To answer this question fully, we need first of all to establish a context which will help us to see how EST at the present time relates to the rest of ELT.

In the time-honoured manner of linguistics, we shall represent the relationship in the form of a diagram (see Figure 1). The figure represents some of the common divisions that are made in ELT. The topmost branches of the diagram show the level at which individual ESP courses occur. The branches just below this level indicate that these may conveniently be divided into two main types of ESP differentiated according to whether the learner requires English for academic study (EAP: English for Academic Purposes) or for work/training (EOP/EVP/VESL: English for Occupational Purposes/English for Vocational Purposes/Vocational English as a Second Language). This is, of course, not a clear-cut distinction: people can work and study simultaneously; it is also likely that in many cases the language learnt for immediate use in a study environment will be used later when the student takes up, or returns to, a job.
EAP Courses often have a study skills component.

- **EOP** (English for Occupational Purposes)
- **EAP** (English for Academic Purposes)
- **EBE** (English for Business and Economics)
- **ESP** (English for Specific Purposes)
- **EST** (English for Science and Technology)
- **EFL** (English as a Foreign Language)
- **EFL** (English as a Second Language)
- **EKT** (English as a Mother Tongue)
- **GE** (General English)
- **EOP** is also known as EVP (English for Vocational Purposes) and VESL (Vocational English as a Second Language)
- **GE** is usually studied for exam purposes

**ESL** can be divided in the same way as **EFL**.
At the next level down it is possible to distinguish ESP courses by the general nature of the learner's specialism. These large categories are usually identified here: EST (English for Science and Technology), EBE (English for Business and Economics) and ESS (English for the Social Sciences). This last is not common, probably because it is not thought to differ significantly from more traditional humanities-based General English.

As we go down the diagram, we can see that ESP is just one branch of EFL/ESL which are themselves the main branches of English Language Teaching in general. ELT, in turn is one variety of the many possible kinds of language teaching. But, of course, the entire diagram of ELT lies on a solid foundation of communication and learning.

So what is ESP? Having stressed the commonality of language and learning, how does ESP differ from other forms of ELT? To answer this, ESP must be seen as an approach not as a product. ESP is not a particular kind of language or methodology, nor does it consist of a particular type of teaching material.10 Understood properly; it is an approach to language learning, which is based on learner need. The foundation of all ESP is based

the simple question: why does this learner need to learn a foreign language? From this question will flow a whole host of further questions, some of which will relate to the learner's themselves, some to the nature of the language the learners will need to operate, some to the given learning context. But this whole analysis derives from an initial identified need on the part of the learner to learn a language. ESP, then, is an approach to language teaching in which all decisions as to content and method are based on the learner's reason for learning.

There have been a number of attempts to draw up a classification for the different branches of ESP. The result has often been a bewildering array of labels and abbreviations. Nevertheless, a classification can often be useful, as long as it is treated as a framework, a set of entry points to a range of interlinked issues. One such classification was proposed under the aegis of the British Council (1975),11 and can be expressed in a diagram, using the more familiar labels:

This simply states that English for Specific Purposes has two main branches: English for Academic Purposes and English for Occupational Purposes. The main offshoot of the former is here considered to be English for Science and Technology.

It is however common, for example to distinguish English for Occupational Purposes (BOP) from English for Academic or Educational Purposes (EAP/EEP). Now each of these snowballs into further sub-division. A point to be
mentioned here is that within ESP, most course titles begin with the word English:

a) Occupational requirements, for example, English for international telephone operators, for civil airline pilots, for mariners, for seafarers, for firemen, for airhostesses, etc.

b) Vocational training programmes, for example, English for hotel and catering staff, for secretaries, for waiters, for managers, for diplomats, for technical trades, etc.

c) Academic or professional study, for example, English for engineering and its various branches, for medicine, for law, for language teachers, for social scientists, etc.

The list is almost endless. An important thing to note is that the designation of the majority of courses is according to subject or profession/Job. Like the array of labels, this should be seen as the starting point for the examination of shared issues, not as an end in itself.

Strevens modifies this when he suggests that:

All SP-LT (Special purpose Language teaching) Courses are either Occupational or educational in nature. 12

He makes a further three-way distinction according to the timing of courses, and produces the following diagram:

```
  SP-LT (or ESP)
     |______________
     |              |
Occupational
     |              |
  Pre-experience
  Simultaneous
  Post-experience

  Educational
     |______________
     |              |
  Pre-study
  In-study
  Post-study
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FIGURE - III

The three-way time distinction would seem to be a realistic one. This seems obvious when we consider ESP for people who are in jobs (Post-experience) or about to take up employment (Pre-experience). In EEP the dominance of EST has suggested that the learner is in tertiary education - in his or her own country or as a foreign student in Britain. However, there is evidence that in some parts of the world, students are being prepared for university work (pre-study) or they are learning science
through the medium of English increasingly early in their school careers (In-study) or they are given a dose after the completion of the course (Post-study).

Streven's diagram is to some extent an improvement on that devised by the Ministry of Overseas Development although the Ministry makes a further sub-division of EEP (English for Educational Purposes): 13

![Diagram]

**FIGURE - IV**

It is not entirely clear what EEP as a school subject is,

13. Ibid.
since this description could refer to the traditional type of general course against which ESP is reacting. Perhaps what is intended is EAP: English for Academic Purposes or study skills, i.e. how to study through the medium of English, regardless of the subject matter of the studies. A major abbreviation that is overlooked by the figures in EST (English for Science and Technology) which especially from the EEP point of view, is the most prestigious development in ESP.

Now a close scrutiny of the different compartments of ESP (English for Specific Purposes) will give a clear idea of the application of ESP to ELT (English Language Teaching) and ELL (English Language Learning).

**Vocational Course**

In vocational courses most subject-language integration is aimed primarily at helping students master the language skills which will be required on the job. Any pay-off in terms of improving their language competency in general is incidental. The syllabii of these courses demand a 'communications' component. Most of the time students, new entrants and employees fail to use the official network satisfactorily. So there is always an urgency for such courses with the objective of
improving students' / trainees' functional linguistic performance to such a level that they can use the official network effectively. The communications component of the courses devised by the course team has to correspond with the subject-matter which is presented concurrently in various lessons of vocational requirements.

**Occupational Courses**

This area is highly suitable for language teaching, firstly because the subjects have high interest value for students and secondly because it is easy to justify: one thing you must know about a job is how to cope with the reading, writing and speaking that will be required without the aid of language teacher, the job expert faces a dilemma, if he disregards the language requirements of the job, the students will enjoy the introduction at college but may well regret it later. If he attempts to deal with the language requirements himself, he may alienate students with severe language difficulties who feel embarrassed showing themselves up in front of him. A language teacher can, as it were, relieve him of this pressure and responsibility.

The language teacher has to teach and work in

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collaboration with the subject teacher. For example in painting and decorating, selecting the best tin of paint for a job will require the reading of paint labels and advertisements. This may involve decoding difficult words including brand names, colour names and chemical terms; dealing with different sizes of paint and the relative importance of information; discriminating between factual and persuasive language; comparing several sets of information and figures. The subject teacher acts as authority on matters of vocabulary and emphasises the relationship between the reading and the practical task in hand. The language teacher breaks the task into manageable units or steps, provides materials which clarify or simplify the 'real' material and suggests techniques the students might use in order to cope with the type of task.

Where most of the students in a job skill class attend the same core English group, the language teacher can make connections between what they need to be able to do 'on the job' and more general language demands. As a matter of fact the time limit is as such that within the stipulated time, it would be advisable for the teacher

to set his target in order of priority:

1. The students need the language skills for the jobs;
2. Language lessons on the job, albeit narrow in scope, are likely to be more successful than language lessons for their own sake;
3. Under ideal conditions, language skills learnt in this way will become the foundation for generalisations which will lead to greater language competence in other fields.  

**Academic Course:**

The impetus for subject-language integration has led to shunning of the traditional method of teaching and reshuffling of syllabus. Language teaching, in this field is concerned with organisational skills which underlie listening, speaking, reading and writing and should emphasise the relationship between them. The English language course emphasises the same skill, which are practised for example in Sociology or the History course. Clarity in expression, a sense of organisation, or appropriate vocabulary, imagination, sensibility to audience, technical competence, comprehension and responsiveness in both written and spoken modes are sought.

during the English Course. Implicit in the course is the belief that these skills can best be achieved by constantly practising them on subjects of interest to the student and deriving from his other areas of study. Where English Language is studied on its own, there is a danger that the student will lose sight of the reasons for the pursuit of clarity, correct paragraphing or tone in his writing. When English is studied in association with other subjects, for that matter History, the skills of ordering and selecting information, of 'analysis' and 'assessment' become more meaningful when the student can see that to recognise cause and effect and the significance of the past events, in understanding their influence on the world.

**English for Science and Technology (EST)**

EST is the senior branch of ESP — senior in age, larger in volume of publications and greater in number of practitioners. The most acute form of ESP, when contrasted with General English, is EST for use in science and technology. Indeed it is often helpful to distinguish between those examples of ESP where the learner's purposes are concerned with science and

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technology, often referred to as EST, and all other examples. What is special and different about EST, and what may create difficulties for the teacher but not for the learners, is the fact that 'Scientific English' possesses three sets of features, all of them unfamiliar to the average teacher of English (who will have been trained in literature and the arts).

The set of features comprises such things as the linguistic rules for creating scientific texts (very long nominal groups, for example, frequent use of the passive, a great deal of use of subordinate clauses, or unusual precision in the use of such items as if, although, unless, whenever, etc). In one sense these features though unfamiliar to most arts-trained teachers of ESP, are easily learned. Scientific English, after all, does not use different tenses, modals, prepositions, clause structures, from the rest of English: it just uses a particular, unfamiliar mixture of well-known grammatical devices.  

The second set of features comprises the vocabulary and terminology of science — or rather, of the particular purposes for a given ESP course. Frequently the student

already knows the concepts of Science, and he may even be familiar with scientific vocabulary in his own language that is sufficiently close to the English, equivalent to be easily guessable. Teaching vocabulary is not normally a major problem in ESP, as far as the learner is concerned.

The third set of features of Scientific English comprises the purpose of science — the rhetoric, the discourse, the scientificness of the texts. These are the product of 'Knowing Science', and they cannot easily be listed, described and taught. These features include examples such as the following:

1) a preference for expressing quantities, numerically and in many units; pounds per square inch; degrees; output per shift; yield in tons per hectare; ratios, equations, etc;

2) an awareness of when the language used needs to be stated with precision, and when that feature matters less; e.g. 'OK, run her up to maximum degree, George but keep the exhaust value temperature below eighty-five degrees'.
iii) a distinction between the language appropriate to theoretical science, technology (e.g. engineering), and technical operations, respectively.

This third set of features that characterise 'Scientific English' is sometimes difficult for a non-scientist to grasp - until he comes to deal with the learning and teaching of EST. Then it quickly emerges that there are certain 'habits of expression' which spring from the nature and purpose of science and are extremely important. They come to the surface of learning and teaching ESP in another area, namely in developing study skills in English.

ESP and EST courses cover a very wide range and they shade off, at one end of the spectrum, into study skills courses. These are exercises and activities that focus on such activities as essay-writing, report-writing (describing an experiment, for example) note-taking (especially from lectures, but also from books and articles), summary and precis; but also including alphabetisation (especially when the student's own language uses a different writing system), writing down bibliographical references (titles, authors, publishers, dates, etc.), index-making,

using a library; and many others. The activities are part of Science or Technology, but they have been carried out in English, so practising the activity is an excellent way of developing command of English for the purpose of science, though some study skills activities are valuable for ESP other than in connection with science.

**Problems for teachers**

Teachers of ESP face a very special difficulty in that they normally have no knowledge of the subject matter of ESP courses. This is particularly acute in EST. But teachers are accustomed to being possessors of knowledge that their students lack. For the teacher to lack knowledge that is possessed by the students is for many teachers an unwelcome and topsy-turvy experience. Many Arts-trained teachers fear that in teaching EST they may unwittingly make errors in the science and therefore be ridiculed by their students. In fact, such fears are quite unnecessary. The EST teacher is not a teacher of mathematics or science and should not pretend to be one; s/he can exploit the different relationships between teacher and subject in ways that promote good language learning; above all, the teaching must be based on collaboration between the teacher of English and the
subject specialists. The problems can be overcome - but at first they may seem very daunting to the teacher.

In India at present the entire scene of education is dominated by various competitions leading to job or entry into some professional course. As a matter of fact English plays a vital role in such affairs. This area seems to be hot-bed for language teachers and learners. English is almost mandatory in these competitions and courses. In India the bulk of the students come with a background of L1 (mother tongue) and when put to a test of this kind always tend to fall below par. When different roads of education lead to a centre point i.e. competition, ESP is the ideal answer to thwart such complex problems. Practitioners can match their course plans along with the subject offered and meet the demands of the examiners. Language skills, written and spoken, can be developed in the same way as it is being done for other purposes, the only thing is that the whole system has to be given a tinge, a flavour of competitions. Course designers have to keep abreast with the subject as well as the mode/ the level of the competition. So to some extent one can add to the long list of branches of ESP a new one i.e. English for Competitive Purposes (ECP) which will at the moment in India will be thronged by students and learners and will
certainly make business like hot-cakes.

Hence, ESP can be aptly applied to growing purposes and needs of the learners around the world. ESP attempts to combine the teaching of a specific practical skill in conjunction with the literacy skills need to practise and extend that skill to an independent level. Any way the success of such course is dependent upon the time and effort spent on the planning stages, and these require a close working relationship between the subject specialist and the language teacher. Decisions have to be made about the nature, scope and objectives of the skill to be taught; the teaching approaches, media and materials to be used; the sequence of instruction; and, particularly important, the pacing of presentation. Two major questions have to be asked. First, what is the minimum skill and learning content that needs to be taught to enable the students to achieve their immediate objective, and to prepare them for their next, and long term objectives? Secondly, how far can the language of the skill be extended to apply to everyday life situations?


22. Ibid.
As a matter of fact, the subject specialist and the language teacher need to agree upon a common and controlled language of reference and instruction for both verbal and written communication to students. The language input needs to be both relevant to the topic and applicable to other situations where language skills are required. Compromises often have to be made; what may be an easier word to read than a jargon term may be unacceptable to the subject specialists for a variety of reasons, which have to be talked about until agreement is reached. For example, the most precise term for the materials used in knitting is 'yarn' because it can be applied both to natural and man-made fibres. However, a language specialist would argue that 'wool' is more appropriate term for the following reasons: it is most frequently used in common usage to describe the materials; it is more likely to be in the learners' own speech vocabulary; it is more likely to be seen e.g. in advertisements. The language specialist may then suggest a compromise: that the word 'wool' should be introduced first, but that at some point in the course students should be introduced to other, more specialised vocabulary.

In the case of learners of English as a second language, who initially need much more emphasis on language
structures, the vocabulary and syntax used in teaching presentations and materials need to be even more carefully controlled to take account of their current level of verbal competence. Thus, while it is possible to develop and provide a resource bank of materials for the teaching approach, the success of both material, and the approach will always be dependent upon the effort made by the language and subject specialist to adapt and complement resources to meet the specific as well as the general needs of learners.

One can have a glance at the benefit on the part of teachers and the learners, which they gain when ESP is applied to their intricate problem:

1) Increased motivation and interest on the part of the learners.

2) Thorough handling of a basic subject which is seen and explained - to be relevant, leading to better understanding.

3) More stimulus to use language than occurs normally.


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v) An enhanced spirit of enquiry deriving from perceived exchanges.

vi) More active, participatory class conduct, useful in future lecture sessions.
CHAPTER III

ESP COURSES AND VARIOUS APPROACHES TO SYLLABUS DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY
Most of the improvements in language teaching methodology brought about during the last two decades have concentrated on the syllabus. The reason for this is fairly clear: in any attempt to improve language teaching materials the logical place to start is at the grass-root i.e. the syllabus.

On an average, in either EFL/ESL situations overseas, students, plough through primary and secondary English programmes consolidating written errors of grammar, spending large amount of time on work associated with literature, much of it inappropriate and very little time on practical communicative or organisational language work. This is illustrated in Figure I. On arrival at the tertiary institution, the students if they are fortunate may receive an intensive English programme or just be thrown straight in orientation and subject specific programmes, in which the English and the skills involved will be almost like another language for them. So to say that much of the work in General English is purposeless, or if there is purpose, it is too often the nebulous kind whereby one trusts to exam-oriented syllabus and expects everything to work after G.P.E. (General Purpose English).
ENGLISH SYLLABUS BIAS IN THE ESL/EFL SETTING

GE (GENERAL ENGLISH)  ESP (ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC) PURPOSE

Pre-Tertiary  Tertiary

Non reference and study skills more vocational bias
+ 12 years

relevant remedial inputs
+ 1/2 years

Remedial English
Science and Technology

Subject related materials
Vocational subjects
Lifelong Education

Law
Mining
Agriculture
Business Administration

Study skills
Graphics

Basic Science
Study skills
Geography
History
Arts
Crafts
Literature
Sport
Politics

Remedial English

topically relevant English
functionally relevant
English tense textual materials
applied lexis
applied graphics
study skills

PROGRAMME MIX
(any stage)

PROGRAMME BIAS
Oriented to non-Vocational English examinations

Oriented to specific needs-based objectives and likely to include:
remedial English
topically relevant English
functionally relevant
English tense textual
materials
applied lexis
applied graphics
study skills

FIGURE I
In many parts of the world, courses in English are gradually changing. Curriculum designers are converging towards ESP programme. The overall effect of this sort of language learning background, which has been suggested is quite widely applicable throughout the so-called third world countries, and serves as a pressure on the English programme, at tertiary level, and its basic ESP focus. The phenomenon is nothing new, in educational and developmental terms. But the pressures are trebled. Students are studying for work now. They have to learn self-discipline and study habits. But the study and the reference sources are mostly in English, so pressures on listening, reading and writing skills in English are enormous. And while motivation is high at first, it drops off very quickly when students feel that they are not progressing as fast as they expect to. With these factors in mind, it seems reasonable to spare time to survey ESP curriculum design and methodology and work for its improvement.

**ESP Courses - education Vs training**

In English for Specific Purposes (ESP) Courses might be ranged on a scale of decreasing specificity, with

those at the most specific and being concerned essentially with training and those at the less specific and, which some what shade into General Purpose English (GPE), essentially concerned with education. Training is defined as a course of instruction directed at the solution of problems established in advance and amenable to the application of formulae of a relatively fixed and restricted kind. The effectiveness of training depends upon narrowing the gap between formulae and problem. Education on the hand is defined as a course of instruction which prepares people to cope with known formulae. The effectiveness of education, therefore depends on developing the capacity to interpret formula and problem in such a way as to bridge the gap between them.

Objectives of training and educational Courses

Language training, we may say, sets out to provide a knowledge of a restricted set of schemata (schemata can be defined as cognitive constructs or configurations of knowledge which we place over events so as to bring them into alignment with familiar patterns of experience and belief). Those frames of reference and rhetorical routines which characterize a particular area

3. Ibid. p. 54.
of language use. The objectives of a course of training will be directed at achieving just this aim, and any procedural capacity which develops and which will allow the learner to go beyond the specified aim can be regarded as a contingent benefit. In any case the training course must allow some room for manoeuvre, some lack of fit between formula and problem, there will be some need for procedural activity. But the more specific the training is, the more it will be focused on the required schemata.

Educational objectives have to be defined in procedural terms, since there is no clear set of schemata in immediate prospect. What an educational course will seek to do is to develop a procedural capacity which will enable the learner to deal with a range of different frames of references and rhetorical routines as occasion requires in the future and after completion of the course. It is possible to shift along the specificity scale and take bearings on likely aims, allowing these to indicate a more schematic definition of objectives.

With this kind of tug of war going on, ESP Curriculum design can be seen as falling upon a continuum that has training at one end and education at the other.
Specifiable and non-specifiable aspects of Language teaching

This chart is simply a graphic representation of the dichotomy expressed by Widdowson (1983) between training type operations and education type operations. A line divides that which is far more difficult to specify. For instance, certain types of very basic ESP courses would be located at the 'training' end, and would be virtually 100 per cent specifiable; that is, a training model may be employed, complete with needs analysis, behavioural objectives, criterion referenced tests, and so forth.

We can talk of mastery of the objectives, of a product, and we can probably talk of teacher-centred, culture-free teaching. The objectives will generally be accompanied without too much reference to psychological or sociological concerns.

At the other end of the continuum, we find programmes that approximate more to the notions of education than to bare language training. A horizontal line at the word 'Education' shows a much larger proportion of the language instruction to be core and a much smaller portion to be specific. If education, rather than training, is the aim, we may now talk of students becoming familiar with the cultural and referential aspects of the language in addition to having a grasp of the processes by which it operates. The problems of curriculum design encountered here are virtually the same as those encountered by teachers in the L1 situation. By the way, if we were to operate at the extreme ends of this scale, we would design courses on the one hand with reference only to schemata without regard to procedures, and on the other hand courses with reference to procedures without regard to schemata. Logically there has always been a difference between theory and practice. So the courses when put to practice reveal different emphasis rather than exclusive focus. We would expect to find, for

5. Ibid.
example, that what have been referred to as 'narrow angle'
ESP courses, with titles like 'English for Mechanical
Engineers', 'English for Bank Cashiers', 'English for
Hotel and Catering Staff', 'English for Tourism' do tend
towards a schematic approach to course design, whereas
so-called 'wide angle' courses with titles like 'English
for Science and Technology', 'English for Academic Purposes',
'English for Occupational Purposes', do tend towards a
procedural approach, then purpose being to focus attention
on study skills rather than on a particular area of use to
which they would apply. So a course which is directed at
schematic objectives may well include procedural activities
as a methodological means to that end, and conversely, a
procedure-oriented course may well use schematic exercises
of one sort or another.

The justification for ESP, as a separate area of
enquiry and practice, lies, in establishing principles for
describing its objectives.

**Approaches to Course Design**

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. In practical terms
this entails the use of the theoretical and empirical information available to produce a syllabus, to select, adapt or write materials in accordance with the syllabus, to develop a methodology for teaching those materials and to establish evaluation procedures by which progress towards the specified goals will be measured. There are many different approaches to ESP course design but one can, however, identify three main types: language-centred, skills-centred and learning-centred.

(1) **Language-centred course design**

This is the simplest kind of course design process and is probably the one most familiar to English teachers. It is particularly prevalent in ESP. The language-centred course design process aims to draw as direct a connection as possible between the analysis of the target situation and the content of the ESP Course. It proceed as follows:

**A Language-Centred approach to Course design**

1. Identify Learners' target situation
2. Select theoretical views of Language
3. Identify Linguistic features for target situation
4. Create Syllabus
5. Design materials to exemplify syllabus items
6. Establish evaluation procedures to test acquisition of syllabus item

*FIGURE - III*
At first sight, this may seem to be a very logical procedure. It starts with the learner, proceeds through various stages of analysis to a syllabus, thence to materials in use in the classroom and finally to evaluation of mastery of the syllabus items. However, logical and straightforward as it may seem, it has a number of weaknesses:

a) The approach is not learner-centred in the true sense of the term. The learner is simply exploited as a means of identifying the target situation. Instead of taking the whole of English and teaching it to the learners, as happens in General English, only restricted area of the language is taught. The approach is, therefore, not learner-centred, but simply learner-restricted.

b) The process can also be criticized for being a static and inflexible procedure, which can take little account of the conflicts and contradictions that are inbuilt in any human endeavour. Once the initial analysis of the target situation is done, the course designer is locked into a relentless process. Any procedure must have flexibility, feedback channels and error tolerance built in so that it can respond to
unsuspected or developing influences. 7

(c) One of the alluring features of this model is that it appears to be systematic. But in so doing it engenders the false-belief that learning itself is systematic - that the systematic analysis and presentation of language data will produce systematic learning in the learner. 8 Unfortunately the role of systematisation in learning is not so simple. Certainly, there is a lot of evidence to show that the systematisation of knowledge plays a crucial role in the learning process: we learn by fitting individual items of knowledge together to create a meaningful predictive system. And unfortunately we have to admit that we do not know enough about how the mind actually goes about creating its internal system of knowledge. We must, however, avoid the mistake made by the Audiolingual Approach of believing that because language has a describable system, describing that system will induce systematic learning.

d) The language-centred model gives no acknowledgement to factors which must inevitably play a part in the

8. Ibid.
creation of any course.

(e) The language-centred analysis of target situation data is only at the surface level. It reveals very little about the competence that underlies the performance.

2. **Skills-centred Course design.**

The skill-centred approach is founded on two fundamental principles, one theoretical, the other pragmatic:

(a) The basic theoretical hypothesis is that underlying any language behaviour are certain skills and strategies, which the learner uses in order to produce or comprehend discourse. A skills-centred approach aims to get away from the surface performance data and look at the competence that underlies the performance. A skills-centred course, therefore, will present its learning objectives in terms of both performance and competence.

(b) The pragmatic basis for the skills-centred approach drives from a distinction made by Widdowson (1981) between goal-oriented courses and process-oriented
If the ESP course is designed in terms of goals, there is in effect a tacit admission that a large number of students will fail the course. Since ESP is by its very nature a process that is intended to enable people to achieve a purpose, it is at best a little odd to frame the course in such a way as to almost predict failure. The process-oriented approach tries to avoid this problem by removing the distinction between the ESP course and the target situation. The ESP course is not seen as a self-sufficient unit from which learners emerge as proficient target situation performers, because, a number of students are unlikely to achieve this proficiency. Instead, the ESP course and the target situation are seen as a continuum of constantly developing degrees of proficiency with no cut-off point of success or failure. The emphasis in the ESP course, then, is not on achieving a particular set of goals, but on enabling the learners to achieve what they can within the given constraints.

The skills-centred model, therefore, is a reaction both to the idea of specific registers of English as a basis for ESP and to the practical constraints on learning imposed by limited time and resources. In essence it sees

the ESP course as helping learners to develop skills and strategies which will continue to develop after the ESP course itself. Its aim is not to provide a specified corpus of linguistic knowledge but to make the learners into better processors of information.

A Skills-Centred approach to Course design

Theoretical views
of language

Identify target situation

Analyze skills/strategies required to cope in target situation

Write syllabus

select texts and write exercises to focus on skills/strategies in syllabus

Establish evaluation procedures which require the use of skills/strategies in syllabus

Theoretical views of learning

FIGURE - IV
The role of needs analysis in a skills-centred approach is two-fold. Firstly, it provides a basis for discovering the underlying competence that enables people to perform in the target situation. Secondly, it enables the course designer to discover the potential knowledge and abilities that the learners bring to the ESP classroom.

Therefore, the approach can certainly claim to take the learner more into account than the language-centred approach:

(a) It views language in terms of how the mind of the learner processes it rather than as an entity in itself.

(b) It tries to build on the positive factors that the learners bring to the course, rather than just on the negative idea of 'lacks'.

(c) It frames its objectives in open-ended terms, so enabling learners to achieve at least something.

Yet, in spite of its concern for the learner, the skills-centred approach still approaches the learner as a user of language rather than as a learner of language. The processes it is concerned with are process of language
use not of language learning. It is with this distinction in mind that we move to the third approach to course design.

3. A Learning-centred approach.

The term learning-centred has been chosen instead of the more common term learner-centred because the learner-centred approach is based on the principle that learning is totally determined by the learner. As teachers we can influence what we teach, but what learners learn is determined by the learners alone. Learning is seen as a process in which the learners use what knowledge or skills they have in order to make sense of the flow of new information. Learning, therefore, is an internal process, which is crucial dependent upon the knowledge the learners already have and their ability and motivation to use it. It is difficult to fault this view of learning, if we see learning simply in terms of the end product in the learner's mind. But learning can, and should, be seen in the context in which it takes place. Learning is not just a mental process, it is a process of negotiation between individuals and society: In the learning process, then, there is more than just the learner to consider. For this reason the term learner centred

A learning-centred approach to course design

Identify Learners

Theoretical views of learning

Analyze learning situation

Analyze target situation

Theoretical views of language

Identify attitudes/ wants/ potential of learners

Identify needs/ potential constraints of learning/ teaching situation

Write syllabus/ materials to exploit the potential of the learning situation in the acquisition of the skills and knowledge required by the target situation

FIGURE - V
To make a comparative study of all the approaches to course design, we find that the skills-centred approach does not fully take the learner into account, because it still makes the ESP learning situation too dependent on the target situation. The learner is used to identify and to analyse the target situation needs. But then, as with the language-centred approach, the learner is discarded and the target situation analysis is allowed to determine the content of the course with little further reference to the learner. A language-centred approach says: This is the nature of the target situation performance and that will determine the ESP course. A skills-centred approach says: That's not enough. We must look behind the target performance data to discover what processes enable someone to perform. Those procedures will determine the ESP course. A learning-centred approach says: That's not enough either. We must look beyond the competence that enables someone to perform, because what we really want to discover is not the competence itself, but how someone acquires that competence.
A comparison of approaches to course design

Identify target situation

A language-centred approach considers the learner to here

Analyse target situation

A skills-centred approach considers the learners to here

Analyse learning situation

Write syllabus

Write materials

Teach materials

Evaluate learner achievement

A learning-centred approach must consider the learner at every stage

FIGURE - VI
Figure VI shows that a learning-centred approach to course design takes account of the learner at every stage of the design process. This has two implications:

a) Course design is a negotiated process. There is no single factor which has an outright determining influence on the content of the course. The ESP learning situation and the target situation will both influence the nature of the syllabus, materials, methodology and evaluation procedures. Similarly each of these components will influence and be influenced by the others.

b) Course design is a dynamic process. It does not move in a linear fashion from initial analysis to complete course. Needs and resources vary with time. The course design, therefore, needs to have built-in feedback channels to enable the course to respond to developments.

ESP curriculum designers then have to look for ways of defining the aims of the students in communicative terms by devising means of analysis which preserved the essential discourse features of language use instead of analysing them out of existence. It might appear on the
face of it that this requirement is met by the descriptive device proposed by Munby.

Munby's Communicative Syllabus Design

Probably, the most thorough and widely known work on needs analysis is John Munby's Communicative Syllabus Design (1973). His work has been considered so far as a contribution to the study of needs analysis. Any way for Munby, however, needs analysis is, as his title would suggest, the preliminary to the specification or design of a syllabus. Thus once a profile of a student's needs has been built up these must be realized in actual language forms, by means of specification of language skills needed and the language functions. He gives an exhaustive list of micro-skill from which the shorter list of particular skills needed by a student can be assembled. Similarly he gives a detailed inventory of micro-functions, from which a selection can be made. Skills, functions and language forms together give syllabus content.11

No one else has given such a vigorous and precise statement of one method of syllabus design as Munby.

Although the systems approach to language teaching, which

has developed separately but alongside ESP, suggests
the sequence: needs analysis, syllabus design,
methodology implementation, evaluation, few people have
attempted to work out a theoretical framework for any
of the steps in sequence.

As pointed out earlier that an ESP course is
selection of material, provided by pressure of time.
Then a feature of an ESP syllabus will be a focus of
attention on certain things or absence of certain item
found in a general course. The focus of attention may
be determined by skill, by function, by topic, by
situation etc. It is to be noted that for Munby all
syllabuses will comprise skill and functions, although
the priority in their relative order of specification
may alternate depending on the learner's needs

Munby's model for specifying communicative competence

Munby (1973) operates within a communicative
and sociological framework. Although not a complete
model, it offers a different perspective on the first
few steps.
Model for Specifying Communicative Competence

Munby (1978)

FIGURE - VII
Munby's model is driven solely by the participant (student), whose precise needs are 'fed in' to what he calls Communicative Needs Processor. This identifies needs of a specifically communicative type, and while some of them are familiar, others are very different from what are normally called needs. Purpose, setting and the level are asked in any needs assessment, but the new elements here are things like the likely role that the student will eventually be playing (e.g. the social interaction he may have to participate in, in addition to whatever professional purpose he will be using English for). The mode of communication most likely to be used (written or spoken, etc), the dialect that he should be familiar with, the communicative event most likely to take place (that is, the acts or functions he will most likely perform), and the communicative key (e.g. polite, firm, etc.) in which his interactions will probably take place.\footnote{12}

From a consideration of all these points, Munby produces a profile of the Communicative needs of the students. But these needs have not yet been translated into linguistic realizations and this calls for three

\footnote{12. Benson, Malcom J, \textit{op. cit.} p. 3.}
more steps. The first is the language-skills selection, which shows up the functional/notional skills needed by the students. The second is meaning processor, which brings in socio-semantic processing, for example, the students understanding of the illocutionary force of utterances. The third is the linguistic encoding of the optional notions from the skills selection. To be precise, it means that if one wishes to ring a phone call in someone's office, s/he could find numerous ways to seek their permission. Now, for teaching purpose this number has to be pruned down to a manageable number.

This device is very clearly directed at describing features of the communicative process, and linguistic forms are thus seen as realization of this process, and not as the manifested token of the language system. His concerned therefore with the aspects of discourse and not as is the kind of register analysis reviewed earlier, simply with their textual reflex. So the device is constructed out of sociolinguistic concepts. But it is important to note that it is indeed a device and nothing more, put together by using whatever theory seems servicable and directed towards practical outcome. It

is not a model if we mean by that the presentation of a relevant theory of language. It is to be assessed, by how effectively it achieves its declared purpose of defining the content of purpose specific language programme.

Broadly speaking, the model carries out two operations: the first produces a profile of needs by reference to these factors in the communicative events that the learner will have eventually to be involved in, and the second then interprets these need in terms of three kinds of element, each representing different aspect of language behaviour. Thus the first part deals with features of situation that learners will encounter, and the second part deals with features of communicative activity they will have to engage in to cope effectively with the situation. The three kinds of behavioural element in this communicative activity are called language skills, functions and forms. A direct correlation of language forms with situational factor would, of course, yield findings of the sort associated with register analysis. The Munby device, however, has these two other kinds of elements (skills and functions) mediating between the situational factors and linguistic forms and the
latter are brought into the picture only as realizations of these other elements.

In both cases we have a description of parts, procedural parts on the one hand and schematic parts on the other. What is missing, and what this kind of operation of its nature cannot provide, is the means of characterizing how these parts are activated and related in the actual discourse process. The device itself is a processor, but its analytic operations no more represent the process of language use than do those of a generative grammar. Although this model is not complete, Munby does not go into teaching methodology, testing evaluation, etc. - it does serve to show how the design of a communicative curriculum raises points previously unmentioned in the design of ESL/EFL courses.

A procedural model for ESP

The failure to pay attention to the entirely of the model (for which Munby has been vehemently criticized by Widdowson 1983) is somewhat clearly avoided in Mackay (1981) model. As we have seen in the Munby model, the sociological viewpoint has a determining effect on the construction of a model. So too does the ELT situation.

15. Widdowson, op. cit. p. 87.
ESP is a 'growth industry within ELT, as a matter of fact it has taken on all the appurtenances of a separate subject, and it also tends to create its own model. One such comes from Mackay (1981).
A procedural model for ESP syllabus design
(Mackay 1981)

**Specific Purposes**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Points of Departure</th>
<th>Information gathering instrument</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>provided from which were identified</td>
<td>Information about students needs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Specific Purposes in terms of operational skills is, uses to which the L2 would be put by the learner

Basic Information Gathering Stage

**Special Language**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>On the basis of which were selected which proved and from which were selected and sequenced on the basis of which</th>
<th>Texts Description of the language deemed necessary in both formal and rhetorical terms Teaching points Teaching materials were developed</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Developmental Stage

**Special Methods**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>and for which</th>
<th>Teachers were trained in appropriate methodological procedures for classroom exploitation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Formative Evaluation Stage

Materials were taught under observed conditions to determine their day-to-day effectiveness and modified in the light of teacher/student feedback. The congruence between the goals set and student performance was determined. Materials and methodological procedures were modified in the light of this information.

Summative Evaluation Stage

**FIGURE - VIII**
Here the concerns are not general ones as in the case of GPE, or sociolinguistic ones as depicted by Munby, or psycholinguistic ones. Here the very situation demands, for instance, the inclusion of some process whereby the exact language to be taught is defined, and that a unique methodology be found to teach it. So the concept of specificity is itself enough to make a model look different. In seeking an appropriate methodology, Mackay is doing what Widdowson advocated: 'A principled relationship between course design and methodology.' 16 Both writers join hands to seek a methodology that is unique to a given ESP course and which will produce appropriate 'procedural activities'.

**Principle of Course Design**

The kind of analytic itemization favoured by needs analysis of the kind previously considered does not provide one. It provides only a list of component parts. It seems clear that course design must in some way be a projection of 'macro units' that is to say the frames of reference or routines which are associated with recognizable 'speech events' or schematic types, conventional patterns of language use.

Narrow angle - ESP courses

Such patterns may be evident in the way particular frames of reference are linked with particular routines and in this case they provide a basis for the design of 'narrow angle' ESP courses. Such courses place the emphasis on the schematic knowledge, i.e. the competence to be acquired, they would be located at more specific end of the spectrum and accordingly be more training oriented. It should be noted, however, that such courses will have an educational dimension to the extent that course design based on such specific schemata will be implemented through procedural work. Except in extreme cases where fixed formulae are learnt by rote, schemata cannot otherwise be realized and therefore the required competence cannot otherwise be acquired. The activity of realization will itself develop the capacity for further use and learning beyond that which is incorporated in course design. It is simply for this reason that it is so important that methodology should be concerned with appropriate procedural activity.

Wide angle ESP Courses

Such courses still need to draw on schematic
patterns for this design, even though they were procedure oriented in their intent. But in this case, the patterns are of underlying sort, set of general frames of references and routines which, it is assumed, inform a range of topical areas of use and which can therefore be realized in pedagogic terms by variety of different topics. Here, as a matter of principle, topics are selected for their effectiveness in implementing the objectives of the course without regard to their immediate relevance to eventual aims.

Factors influencing course design

Whether a relatively wide or narrow angle approach to course design is preferred will depend on a number of factors. There may, for example, be purposes, most likely relating to occupational and technical training, which can be more effectively serviced by greater specificity of schematic design, or the choice may be constrained by considerations like face validity or apparent cost effectiveness. Other purpose will call for more educational, less specific approach. 17 Any way

17. Widdowson. op. cit. p. 90.
it would be fallacious to think of them as necessarily at odds with each other. The effectiveness of an approach, wherever it may be located on the specificity spectrum, depend, on establishing a principled relationship between course design and methodology. So we can say that no matter how schematically specific a course may be, no matter how fixedly oriented towards aims, it will normally require a procedurally based methodology, for otherwise the learner is given no experience of natural language and therefore no real provision for the achievement of his purpose, specific or otherwise.

The need to account for the procedural aspect of learning and use is more self evident with wide angle course design. There is less emphasis here on specific competence and more on general capacity. This means that pedagogic objectives cannot be considered as distinct from aims and so there is less likelihood of their being confused.

But equally, of course, there is less likelihood of the objectives being recognized as relevant by the learner. This is the problem of face validity and a matter of motivation. In any case the learner's interest is the intrinsic part of the language using process itself, not a state of mind and it is desirable to keep the
interest of the learners triggered so as to make them more receptive to teaching. The task for the wide angle approach to ESP, then, is to ensure that topics that have no direct bearing on aims are selected and presented in such a way that, despite their lack of specificity, they will activate the capacity for language use and learning. The most obvious way of doing this is to represent these topics as problems calling for the kind of thinking for their solution, the same type of procedural work as learners would be required to use in their field of specialization. This brings us to the central importance of methodology that Widdowson has emphasized.  

In the case of the more narrow angle course, the more cogent reason for specificity is not that the language corresponds to aims, but that it is more likely to be realized as meaningful by the learners. By the same token, it does not matter much that a course does not provide comprehensive coverage of what has eventually to be learnt - even if this were possible. What does matter is that what is included should activate learning, so that provision is made for the learners to achieve their own aims after the course is over by applying the procedures they have used.

in learning to the continuation of learning through language use.

A glance at the preceding discussion reveals the fact that much of the attention devoted in recent years to ESP materials design has focussed predominantly on data gathering analysis. Discussion about how this work can be best translated into appropriate teaching materials has been scant. Perhaps as a result, many ESP materials often appear to ignore basic educational practice. In particular the demands and restrictions of the learning situation are frequently overlooked, with inevitable effects on motivation and learning. But no matter how sophisticated the needs analysis instrument or discourse analysis system employed in the initial stages of the design process, the success of the material hinges on their efficacy in the classroom. A bored learner is unimpressed by publisher's claims that a book incorporates the latest psycho- or socio- or linguistic theories (or bandwagons). The users of the materials i.e. learners and teachers will evaluate them primarily in terms of their pedagogic suitability.

There is a backlash that many ESP materials do not take into account the realities of ESP classroom and they evoke little interest out for the student. The main cause for this drawback is that the materials are often uncreative; the scope of the language activities they attempt to engage the learners is limited, and their knowledge content is largely unexploited. In this part of the chapter we will probe as to how this situation may be remedied. To patch up the loophole, various teaching material models have been scrutinized and exemplified with sample materials.

Objectives of materials

a) Materials provide a stimulus to learning. Good materials do not teach: they encourage learners to learn. Good materials will, therefore contain:
   - interesting texts;
   - enjoyable activities which engage the learners thinking capacities;
   - opportunities for learners to use their existing knowledge and skills;
   - content which both learner and teacher can cope with.

b) Materials help to organise the teaching-learning process, by providing a path through the complex mass of the
language to be learnt. Good materials must be clear and systematic, but flexible enough to allow for creativity and variety.

c) Materials embody a view of the nature of language and learning.

d) Materials reflect the nature of the learning task. Materials should try to create a balanced outlook which both reflects the complexity of the task, yet makes it appear manageable.

e) Materials can have a very useful function in broadening the basis of teacher training, by introducing teachers to new techniques.

f) Materials provide models of correct and appropriate language use.

The Model

The underlying structure of most units of ESP teaching materials can be represented as follows:

```
INPUT
```

```
LANGUAGE
```

FIGURE - IX
In this model, a text of some kind (the input) is used to provide data for a series of language exercises (language). It seems that such structure lacks two features which are essential if the ESP learner is to be motivated by the materials. These are:

1. **Content**
   Language is not an end in itself, but a means of conveying information and feelings about something. It therefore follows that the content communicated by the language in ESP materials should be exploited to reflect this.

2. **Task**
   The learner should be given opportunities to use the language and the content in a creative way, in order to solve a communication problem.

When ESP materials have not adopted the language-oriented model in Fig. IX as the basis of their design, they have frequently strayed towards the opposite extreme, utilising an underlying structure of the following kind:

\[
\text{CONTENT} \rightarrow \text{TASK}
\]

**FIGURE - X**
However, this model creates as many problems as it solves. With language based model (Fig. IX). The student becomes bored because he has little opportunity to use the language he is learning, or to involve his existing knowledge. In the content-based model (Fig. X) the student is frustrated because he is denied the language knowledge that enables him to do the task set. Despite appearances to the contrary, the content-based model is no more creative than the language-based model. Although communicative competence encompasses more than just linguistic competence, linguistic competence is nevertheless an essential element in Communicative Competence.

Effective materials, therefore, will need to incorporate four elements:

A materials design model

![Diagram of a materials design model]

**FIGURE - XI**

The aim of this particular model is to provide a coherent framework for the integration of the various aspects of learning, while at the same time allowing enough room for creativity and variety to flourish. The model consists of four elements: input, content, language, task.

a) Input: This may be a text, dialogue, video-recording, diagram or any piece of communication data, depending on the needs you have defined in your analysis. The input provides a number of things:

- stimulus materials for activities;
- new language items;
- correct models of language use;
- a topic for communication;
- opportunities for learners to use their information processing skills;
- opportunities for learners to use their existing knowledge both of the language and subject-matter.

b) Content: Language is not an end in itself, but a means of conveying information and feelings about something. Non-linguistic content should be exploited to generate meaningful communication in the classroom.

c) Language: Here the aim is to enable learners to use
language, but it is unfair to give learners communicative task and activities for which they do not have enough of the necessary language knowledge. Effective materials should involve both opportunities for analysis and synthesis. In language, the learners have the chance to take the language to pieces, study how it works and practise putting it back together again.

d) Task: The ultimate purpose of language learning is language use. Materials should be designed, therefore, to lead towards a communicative task in which learners use the content and language knowledge they have built up through the unit.

The primary focus of the unit is the task. The model acts as a well-oiled machine for leading the learner to the point where he can carry out a communication task using the language and content he has studied in the unit. The language and content are drawn from the input and are selected according to what the learners will need in order to do the task to follow that an important feature of the model is to create coherence in terms of both language and content throughout the unit. This provides the support for more complex activities by building up a fund
of knowledge and skills.

**Sample Materials**

Language considered as communication no longer appears as a separate subject but as an aspect of other subjects. A corollary to this is that an essential part of any subject is the manner in which its 'content' is given linguistic expression. EST has set the trend in theoretical discussion, in ways of analysing language and in the variety of actual teaching materials. So we can say that major developments in ESP can best be told through EST. Learning Science, for example, is seen to be not merely a matter of learning facts, but of learning how language is used to give expression to certain reasoning processes, how it is used to define, classify, generalize to make hypothesis and draw conclusions. So for this reason, the following sample material is science biased.

**Sample Materials : 'Pumping Systems'**

Unit 1 : Moving fluids.
Section A : Pumping Systems.

**Starter** : Every pump is part of a system for moving fluids.

---

The human body has a system for moving blood. How does it work?

Input: Introducing the topic of this section - Pumping Systems - with a text on the human blood circulation system offers an unusual, and therefore potentially interesting treatment. Also, the way the subject is conveyed is approached in an unconventional manner to provide further motivation (through eg. humour)

1. Hello! I'm a blood cell and I'm going to take you on a tour round this body's blood system.

2. We're in one of the veins at the moment on our way to the heart. We've given up all our oxygen, so we're feeling rather tired now.

3. We're going in to the heart through a valve and in to the right auricle. This is like a collecting chamber and then we'll be sucked into the right ventricle.

4. Here we are now in the ventricle. The heart muscles are starting to contract, so the pressure in here is quite high now. We're about to be pumped into one of the arteries to take us to the lungs. Here we go!

5. We've just arrived in the lungs. We're getting nice and clean and picking up the fresh oxygen. Mmmm that feels good. All that lovely oxygen.
6. We've got our oxygen now, but before we go off round the body. We have to go back to the heart. You see, after going through the lungs, we're not at a high enough pressure to take us all round the body. So the heart has to boost the pressure.

7. Here we are in heart again, but this time in the left side, all ready to be pumped into the arteries. You will have guessed by now that the heart is really two pumps side by side.

8. This is where we leave the heart. We're just coming through the outlet from the left ventricle. We're at a very high pressure now. But we've got a long way to go, giving our oxygen to the tissues. Bye.

This exercise is exemplified by cartoons which appear to be universally popular and are therefore a motivating factor of high potential. In addition, they act as one solution to the problem of realistically conveying spoken language in written forms.

Gathering Information

Step 1 - Matching. Connect two halves of the sentences to make true statements

The heart       pumps blood to the lungs.
The veins       carry blood from the heart to the body tissues.
The auricles is a kind of pump.
The right ventricle carry blood to the heart.
The lungs is pumped from the lungs.
back to the heart
The fresh blood pump blood into the Ventricles.
The left side of supply the blood with oxygen
the heart
The arteries pumps the fresh blood into
the arteries.

Step 2 - Copy this diagram of the heart and blood system
a) On your diagram label the auricles and ventricles
b) Extend the blood vessels at the top of the heart to make a complete circulation diagram through the lungs and the body tissues.
c) Put in arrows to show the flow of blood through the system.

Step 3 - Use these expressions to replace those of similar meaning in the text.

- drawn
- return
- next to each other
- collect
- increase
- exit
- enter
- blood vessel (2)
- get smaller

Step 4 - One of the commonest form of illness now-a-days is heart disease. From what you have just learned about the heart, what do you think are the causes of heart failure?

Language Focus

The work on process description which the students do in steps 5 - 9 demonstrates that it is possible to provide coverage of language points of this 'Straight forward'
kind without necessarily having to have the conventional type of INPUT text to generate them.

Step 5 - Describing a System

Look at this description of low relief rain fall occurs.

1. Water vapour from the sea rises.
2. The wind pick up the water vapour.
3. The wind carries the water vapour towards the mountains.
4. The mountains push the wet air upwards.
5. The temperature is lower up the mountains. The vapour condenses into cloud.
6. The condensed water falls as rain.
7. The rain water runs down through rivers and streams to the sea.

This description is very simple. It follows the diagram
in numbered stages explaining what happens at each stage. Make a similar description for the heart and blood systems. On your diagram, number the stages first, then write a sentence to explain each stage. Begin like this:

1. Old blood goes into the right auricle.
2. The blood is sucked into the right ventricle.
3. etc.

Step 6 - Linking

a) The description of relief rainfall is very simple, but there is a lot of repetition in it. We can make it much shorter like this.

Water vapour from the sea rises. The wind picks it up and carries it towards the mountains, which push the wet air upwards where temperature is lower. The water vapour condenses into clouds and falls as rain, which runs down through rivers and streams to the sea.

What changes have been made to shorten the description? Say why each is possible.

b) Make your description of the blood system shorter in
the same way.

**Step 7 - Present Continuous and Simple**

Note the difference between these two descriptions:

"We're going into the right auricle".

The old blood goes into the right auricle.

Why are different tenses used in the different situations?

Describe the relief rainfall cycle, as if you were a water molecule. Begin like this:

"Hello, my name's H₂O, but you can call me H for short. I'm a water molecule and at the moment I'm floating around in the sunny Atlantic, but it's very warm and I'm starting to evaporate .........."

The inclusion of the more unusual text-type in the INPUT also makes it possible, as has been done in this step, to create opportunities for more imaginative language work, mobilising a much wider range of structures than normally occurs.
Task

A tour around your place of study or work.

a) Draw a simple plan of the site.

b) Give a general description of what happens at the main places on the site.

c) Take a group of visitors around the site, giving a commentary as you go.

As exposed in the sample materials, it seems that there are some possible refinements to the model.
Additional Features of the Model

FIGURE - XII
The purpose of the starter is to contextualize the knowledge being studied. Contextualization in the ESP classroom is very important.

It is possible to incorporate opportunities for the learners to use their own knowledge and abilities at any stage. It is particularly useful to do this as soon as the basic information contained in the input has been identified, in order to reinforce connections between this and the student's own interests and needs. Likewise, the more this is encouraged in the task, the greater the possibility of learning in the student's own situation.

Further input, related to the rest of the unit in terms of subject matter and/or language, can be introduced at any point in order to provide a wider range of contexts for the transfer of the knowledge, and greater depth of coverage.
Project

The material can be further expanded to include a Project, in which the freedom and scope given to the students is extended. For example, a Project designed to supplement this unit might ask to talk or write about other methods of replacing or repairing damaged materials in his own situation.

The Materials Design Process

In addition to what has already been said about what we see as some of the reasons for the inadequacies in many ESP materials, it is also possible to take issue with the sequence of events which normally underlies their design. Only too frequently the materials design process appears to take the following form:

```
COLLECT / ANALYZE DATA

WRITE MATERIALS
```

This system omits two important intervening
steps. First, the data obtained concerning the target situation needs to be interpreted from what it reveals about the nature of the communication process involved; in other words, for information about not just what the communication is but how the communication is achieved. This may be referred to as the stage of identifying the communicative competence underlying the target performance data.

The other vital stage is that in which decisions are made about what general pedagogic principles will underpin the design of materials. These will derive principally from an analysis of characteristics of the ESP teaching situation, the materials are being written for. It is this step in the design process which is most frequently, overlooked or under-rated. The 'needs' of the ESP classroom must not be overshadowed by the needs of the target situation. The primary aim of ESP, as in all ELT, is to ensure that the student knows more when he leaves the classroom than he did when he came into it. What he learns will derive from the target situation analysis, but how he learns it must derive from the condition that govern the language

classroom. Therefore the materials design process should take the following form:

**Material design process**

- Collect/analyse target data
- Identify underlying Competence
- Analyse ESP learning situation
- Determine Pedagogical approach
- Write materials

**FIGURE - XIII**

**Methodology**

Language behaviour is not reflex of competence, a simple projection of systems and schemata, but a
realization of competence through procedural activity, which creates the primary data of language use. If we are to make our language learners into language users, we have to devise ways, therefore, of engaging them in procedural work which will convert these items of knowledge into actualized communicative behaviour. It is here that methodology erupts out to activate these inert categories.

In ESP, methodology has generally been neglected. The load of emphasis has been on what ought to be taught, on content, rather than on how it should be taught. Courses have been designed to incorporate the systemic and schematic features of particular areas of language use, rather than the activities that users in these areas characteristically engage in to achieve a procedural realization of these features in the discourse process.

Hence there is commonly a disparity between the specificity of content in ESP textbooks and the conventional language teaching methodology which takes no account of the specific kinds of activities which learners are engaged in with their academic and occupational fields. The assumption behind this is that what the learners need
is a knowledge of the systemic and schematic features of the English of their speciality and that this can be conveyed to them by conventional means of a very general sort, which need have no connection at all with the activities for which they need to use English. The assumption has been that any methodology will do so long as it gets the information across and moreover that, we already have a well-tried language teaching methodology to hand and that this will serve the purpose, whether specific or not. Widdowson reacts against this assumption and votes in favour of methodology that is served by course design and not the other way round.

Before we get on to a learning-centred methodology, let us outline some basic principles of language learning.

1. Second Language learning is developmental process.

Learners use their existing knowledge to make the new information comprehensible. Only in this way can learning take place. 'Comprehension precedes learning' (Strevens, 1985). The learner's existing state of knowledge is, therefore, a vital element in the success or failure of learning, and the good teacher will consequently try to establish and exploit what the

learners already know.

2. **Language Learning is an active process.** It is not enough for learners just to have the necessary knowledge to make things meaningful, they must also use that knowledge.

3. **Language Learning is a decision-making process.**
   In the traditional classroom the teacher made all the decisions. But the process of developing and using a network of knowledge relies upon a train of learner decisions: What knowledge is new? How does it relate to existing knowledge? What is the underlying pattern? Is there rules of appropriacy here? Which bits of information are relevant? Which are important? Learners must be decision makers.

4. **Language Learning is not just a matter of Linguistic knowledge.** The most fundamental problem of second language learning is the mismatch between the learner's conceptual/ cognitive capacities and the learners' linguistic level.²⁴ In mother tongue learning they develop together. In second language they are grossly out of focus: the second language learner is someone

who is conceptually and cognitively matures but is linguistically an infant. This is a particular problem in ESP, where the learners' knowledge of their subject specialism may be of a very high level, while their linguistic knowledge is virtually nil. Teaching must respect both levels of the learners' state.

5. **Language Learning is not the Learners' first experience with language.** Every second language learner is already communicatively competent in one language. They do not know the specific forms, words or possibly some of the concepts of the target language, but they know what communication is and how it is used. Learners' knowledge of communication should be actively exploited in second language learning, for example, by getting students to predict, before reading or listening.

6. **Learning is an emotional experience.** Our concern should be to develop the positive emotions as opposed to the negative ones by, for example:

   - using pair and group work to build on existing social relationships;
   - giving students time to think and generally avoiding undue pressure;
- putting less emphasis on the product (the right answer) and more on the process of getting an answer;
- Valuing attitude as much as aptitude and ability;
- making 'interest', 'fun', 'variety' primary considerations in materials and methodology.

7. **Language Learning is to a large extent incidental.**
   You don't have to be working with language problems in order to learn language. The important point is that the problems should oblige the learners to use language and thereby to fix the language into the matrix of knowledge in their minds.

8. **Language Learning is not systematic.** We learn by systematising knowledge, but the process itself is not systematic. Laying out information in a systematic way will not guarantee learning. The learner must create an internal system. An external system may help, but that is all it can do.

   In the model lessons that follow we shall show how these principles can be realised in the ESP classroom,
Model Lesson

Materials

Worksheet 1, 2 and 3
Feed back Worksheet

Audience

Business or secretarial students,
upper intermediate / advanced level.

Procedure

A Gathering Information :
1. Divide the class into groups of three and give each
group a number : 1, 2, 3, 4 etc.
2. Give one of the worksheets to each group e.g:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Worksheet</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. Tell the groups to read their worksheets and make notes
about the details, in particular writing down any information which answers questions:

- Are any people mentioned? Who do you think they are?
- What is the communication about?
- Are any places mentioned? Why?
- Are any dates mentioned? What happened or will happen then?
- Are any items mentioned? How many?

For example, the notes for Work sheet 1 might look like this:

Mr. Salgado and his secretary (?) Maria.
Mr. Salgado wants Maria to call Lanka shipping services about typewriters from Birmingham, England. Wants to know arrival in Colombo.

Tell each member of the group to keep a copy of the notes, as they will be working in new groups in the second stage of the lesson.
WORK SHEET 1

Mr. Salgado : Maria ?

Maria : Yes, Mr. Salgado ?

Mr. Salgado : Could you phone the shipping agents and find out when an order for some typewriters is due to arrive. They should be here soon.

Maria : Yes, Sir. What number is the order ?

Mr. Salgado : It's order number B/123/45/E. It's for some typewriters from Olivetti in Birmingham, England.

Maria : Ah yes, I remember it. It's being handled by Lanka Shipping Services, isn't it ?

Mr. Salgado : Yes, that's right.

Maria : And you want to know when the consignment will arrive in Colombo ?

Mr. Salgado : Well, I really want to know when the consignment will be here at our warehouse. They'll have to unload the ship and clear the things through customs, before we can collect them.

Maria : Very well, Mr. Salgado. I'll chase it up.
GOOD AFTERNOON, LSS LTD.

MISS JAYAWARDANE: GOOD AFTERNOON. THIS IS MISS JAYAWARDANE FROM METROPOLITAN AGENCIES HERE. I'D LIKE TO KNOW WHEN AN ORDER YOU ARE HANDLING FOR US WILL ARRIVE. IT'S OUR REFERENCE B/123/45/E AND IT WAS PLACED ON 30TH MARCH.

LSS CLERK: JUST A MINUTE. AH YES. THE CONSIGNMENT LEFT LIVERPOOL TWO WEEKS AGO.

MISS JAYAWARDANE: SO WHEN WILL IT ARRIVE IN COLOMBO?

LSS CLERK: LET ME SEE. IT'S MONDAY 18TH JULY TODAY, AND IT LEFT ON THE 4TH. SO IT SHOULD BE HERE AT THE END OF THIS WEEK.

MISS JAYAWARDANE: FRIDAY?

LSS CLERK: SAY SATURDAY, TO BE SAFE.

MISS JAYAWARDANE: AND WHEN CAN WE COLLECT THE ORDER?

LSS CLERK: GIVE US A RING ON TUESDAY MORNING. IT SHOULD BE READY BY THEN.

MISS JAYAWARDANE: THANK YOU. GOODBYE.

LSS CLERK: GOODBYE.
Polytechnical Institutes,
Waidya Road,
Dehiwala.
12th March 1989

Metropolitan Agencies Ltd.
12 Sea View Road
Colombo- 7

Dear Sir,

We should like to place an order with you for the following item from your catalogue: 42 X Olivetti Omega typewriters (Cat. No. TW/952/011).

The price quoted in your catalogue is Rs. 2800 per item. In view of the size of the order, we feel that a reasonable discount could be offered on the price. Please contact me so that we can discuss the matter before you place the order with your suppliers.

The typewriters will be needed for Courses beginning in September and it is therefore imperative that they should arrive in good time for this.

Thanking you for your attention.

Yours Faithfully,

Duleep Mendis
Principal
4. Go round the class make sure that the students are noting down the relevant information and that they understand the facts of the text.

5. Collect the work sheets.

B. Sharing Information:

Form new groups of three, so that each new group has one member from each of the old groups. The simplest way to do this is to give each student in a group a letter. Then form new groups, by putting all one. As together, all the Bs etc attach any odd students to other groups.

Cross-Grouping

![Diagram showing cross-grouping]
7. Check that each group has at least one member from each of the old groups. To do this, ask "Who had Worksheet 1?" At least one hand in each group should be raised. This may seem tedious, but it will only take a few seconds and can save a lot of confusion.

8. Give one copy of the Feedback Worksheet to each group. Each member of the group has some of the missing information. Tell them to fill in the gaps using their notes.

C. Feedback:

9. If you have an overhead projector, put the Feedback Worksheet out on a foil. Ask one group to complete it. Other groups compare their versions. Note that there may be more than one possible answer for some of the facts.

10. Discuss any differences in versions. Ask students how they worked out their answers.

D. Follow up:

11. Divide the class into pairs and get them to role play the conversation.

12. Get the students to compose a letter to Mr. Mendis, informing him about the delivery.
FEEDBACK WORK SHEET

Use the information you noted from Worksheets 1, 2 and 3 to complete this conversation.

Scene : Metropolitan Agencies Ltd.

--- --- --- : --- --- ---, did you find out when those --- --- --- will arrive ?

--- --- --- : Yes, --- --- ---, I phoned --- --- --- this morning and they said the ship would be here --- --- --- --- --- ---.

--- --- --- : Where are they being shipped from ?

--- --- --- : --- --- ---. And the ship left there on --- --- --- --- --- ---.

--- --- --- : Humm. So the ship will be in Colombo on --- --- --- or --- --- ---. They'll need a few days to unload the cargo and clear customs, won't they ? So when will they be ready to collect ?

--- --- --- : They should be ready --- --- ---.

--- --- --- : Right, We'll have to test them, before we can deliver them. How many --- --- --- --- --- were ordered ?

--- --- --- : --- --- --- --- ---, Sir.

--- --- --- : It will take two days to test that number. Can you telephone Mr. --- --- --- at --- --- --- and tell him that we will deliver his --- --- --- --- --- on Friday. What date will that be ?

--- --- --- : Friday next week will be --- --- ---.

--- --- --- : Fine. Thank you, --- --- --- --- ---.
b) **Media gaps.** The information is available in one medium and needs to be transferred to another medium, for example read: make note: discuss: using notes: complete gapped text.

c) **Reasoning gaps.** There are clues and pieces of evidence, but the answer needs to be extrapolated. Working out what the discourse is all about in lesson 1 is a good example of this.

d) **Memory gaps.** The learners have received some information at one stage of the lesson. Now they must use their memories to reconstruct. Reconstructing half the dialogue in lesson 3 exploits this kind of gap.

e) **Jigsaw gaps.** All the parts are there, but they need to be put together to form a complete unit.

f) **Opinion gaps.** What is important? What is not? What is relevant?

g) **Certainty gaps.** What is definitely known? What can be presupposed? What can be predicted? What is completely unavoidable?

It is the gaps that seize the mind and trigger the thinking processes.

2. **Variety.** It is the spice of learning. In order to get the repetition necessary to help learning, there must
be variety to keep the mind alert. Variety can be achieved in a number of ways:

(a) Variety of medium: text, tape, speech.
(b) Variety of classroom organisation: whole class, pair, individual group.
(c) Variety of learner roles: presenter, receiver, thinker, negotiator.
(d) Variety of exercise: activity or task.
(e) Variety of skills: reading, listening, speaking, writing.
(f) Variety of topic
(g) Variety of forms: accuracy, fluency, discourse, structure, pronunciation etc.

3. Prediction. Prediction is a matter of using an existing knowledge of a pattern or system in order to anticipate what is likely in a novel situation. It is, therefore, central both to language use and language learning. It has a number of practical pedagogic advantages, too:

a) It builds the confidence of the learner.
b) It helps the teacher to discover where the gaps in the knowledge are, so that teaching can be made more relevant to needs.
c) It activates the learner's mind and prepares it for learning.
d) It gives students an ego investment.
4. **Enjoyment.** It is the simplest of all ways of engaging the learner's mind. The most relevant materials, the most academically respectable theories are as nothing compared to the rich learning environment of an enjoyable experience.

5. **An integrated methodology.** Using range of skills greatly increases the range of activities possible in the classroom. This makes it easier to achieve a high degree of recycling and reinforcement, while maintaining the learners' interest.

6. **Coherence.** It should be clear where a lesson is going. Each stage should build on previous stages and lead naturally into the following stages.

7. **Preparation.** Lesson preparation is normally interpreted as the teacher planning the stages of the lesson. But as well as preparing the teacher to teach, we should also be preparing the learners to learn.

8. **Involvement.** Learners need to be involved both cognitively and emotionally in the lesson.

9. **Creativity.** Language is dynamic. Lessons should reflect this. Activities should therefore allow for different
possible answers, different levels of response.

10. Atmosphere. Effective learning depends heavily on intangible factors, such as the relationship between teacher and student. The cultivation of a cooperative social climate within the classroom is very important.

In any case to deal adequately with methodology in written form is not enough, it has to be experienced in the classroom. In this chapter an attempt has been made to show some techniques which can help to make the ESP classroom a livelier, more enjoyable and thus more effective environment for both learner and teacher.

**Use of Video in ESP**

At a time when the micro-chip revolution is poised to change our domestic, commercial and industrial lives, there is a marked enthusiasm and relief on the part of language teachers, who were facing the greatest challenge of adapting to new curricula models, current emphasis on communicative competence, shift in approach and methodology. With the introduction of Television English backed by video and computer technology, has brought about a fabulous change in our attitude to
language teaching. Throughout the world, it is now considered as a robust aid to teach English as a foreign language because of its captivating power to stimulate and motivate learning.

Video would certainly enhance ESP teaching programmes as it would enable the teacher with a lot of flexibility because a video tape can be stopped, wound forward, rewound, to the liking of the teacher and his students. This will certainly give the teacher a tight grip over the output of the programme.

Underlying much ESP work is a concern with the development in the learner of varying stages of communicative competence and of the teaching of language as a system of communication. This shows that learning will be focussed to a large extent on a view of language as use, on communicative abilities as well as linguistic skills. One will have to discover which communicative abilities and what aspects of them are required by the learner in the 'real life' situations for which he is being trained by the language teacher. 'So the materials should reflect the learner's needs and terminal goals. The success of

ESP programme will then be measured by the ability of the learner to perform in 'real life' situations which might be EDP, EAP, ESP, EVP etc.

Video is highly motivating for the ESP learner because it can expose him to 'live' instances of communication rather than the usual simulations which teachers or text book writers have to resort to. It can show him the situations in which he will have to operate. The learner's terminal behaviour can be brought into the classroom rather than exist as an abstract ideal outside it. Since the teacher has a control over the output, it provides him time and opportunity to select and discuss those aspects of the materials which need clarification or explanation.

The role of the ESP teacher

As well as having to cope with the brisk development in ESP, ESP teachers may also have to struggle to master language and subject matter beyond the bounds of their previous experience. Teachers who have been trained for GPE or for the teaching of literature may suddenly find themselves having to teach with texts whose content they know little or nothing about. ESP teachers do not need to learn specialist subject knowledge
They require three things only:

1) a positive attitude towards the ESP content;
2) a knowledge of the fundamental principles of the subject area;
3) an awareness of how much they probably already know.

This can be summed up as 'the ability to ask intelligent questions'. When confronted with a machine, for example, the teacher should not necessarily know how it works, but should be able to ask:

What is the machine used for?
What is this part called?
Why does it do that?
Why doesn't it do that?

With the advent of video materials in language teaching, the teacher finds ample support as the video programmes not only supplement his lack of linguistic skills but also his lack of knowledge of the content area, as both native and non-native teachers often feel insecure when teaching from scientific, business and technical texts.

To sum up, if there is to be meaningful
communication in the classroom, it is essential that there is a common fund of knowledge and interest between teacher and learner. This implies inevitably that the ESP teacher must know something about the subject matter of the ESP materials.
CHAPTER IV

THE STATUS AND IMPORTANCE OF VOCABULARY IN ELT/ELL AND ESP
The intricacy of English Language is so prominent that it makes it a complex phenomenon. This difficulty becomes more clear when one tries to analyse and describe it. It is, too complicated a phenomenon for all its features to be described by any one method, within any one scheme of categories. For the sake of convenience, we split the language into different level in order to analyse and describe the puzzling story of language. This helps to concentrate at a time on different but interconnected aspects of the language. As a system, language is shouldered by concrete pillars of sub-systems. The recognition of the sub-systems, the exact demarcations among them and the determination of their status with reference to the totality of the system must obviously depend on the amount of support each of them lends to the working of the whole. Of all the sub-systems the one which seems to be the most cardinal but most of the time neglected and denied the status of a sub-system, is the vocabulary or lexis, also known as word-stock. The lexical units of a language — have a form or expression which is associated with content or meaning. One can think of vocabulary as our sum stock of names for things: the names of actions, objects,
qualities and so on. The larger is the range of words, the better will be the performance in all aspects of English-language work. A large vocabulary helps one to express ideas precisely, vividly and without repetition. In return one is able to enjoy environment and describe one's experience more vividly. Therefore, understanding the vocabulary system of a language is clearly the top priority of a learner.

Grammar and Vocabulary: a matter of choice

Grammar and lexis are two aspects of linguistic form which can be purposefully separated because they represent two different ways in which language is organized, internally, into meaningful patterns, and there are different things to be said about each. When we explore linguistic form, that is the two levels of grammar and lexis, we are examining the meaningful internal patterns of language; the way in which a language is internally structured to carry contrasts in meaning. The real problem which forces us to draw a distinction between grammar and lexis is the variable range of the possibilities that arise at different places in the language.

Grammar deals with closed system choices, which may be between items ('tis/that', 'I/you/he/she/we/they') or between categories (singular/plural, past/present/future); lexis with open set choices, which are always between items ('chair/settee/bench/stool' etc.). So we find that grammar is concerned with choices where there is a small fixed number of possibilities and a clear boundary between what is possible and what is not. Lexis on the other hand is concerned with choices where there is a large number of possibilities; we cannot count them, or draw a clear boundary around them such as will separate what is possible from and what is impossible.

In any case, all choices in language are of one type or the other, closed or open. As a matter of fact there is a continuous gradation in the pattern of formal choice in language. On one side we have a large number of systems interacting with each other in highly complex ways, but with a small number of fixed possibilities in each: here we are in the field of grammar. On the other side we have open sets, in very simple interrelations with each other but with much wider range of choice in each, whose limits are difficult to define: here we are in the field of lexis.
Language, therefore, does not provide a clear cut distinction between grammar and lexis. In the formal patterns of language, closed systems in complex interrelations, at one end of the scale, shade gradually into open sets in simple interrelations at the other. Since the earliest day of linguistics, it has been recognised that we cannot account for both patterns of the grammatical type and patterns of the lexical type with the same categories and relations. Linguistics, then has to draw a line that we need both grammar and a dictionary to describe the form of a language, though we may seldom ask exactly how they differ. 

In the past, the preoccupation of linguists has been almost entirely with those aspects of language whose structure is most susceptible to scientific analysis - phonology and grammar. One finds very few research which speaks about vocabulary. With this kind of attitude towards lexis, the idea was that mastery of a foreign language depends upon solid control of its grammatical rules. The structural view of language teaching emphasised the acquisition of grammatical rules rather than building up the vocabulary. This of course led to the

negation of the study of vocabulary.

The idea that vocabulary acquisition can be delayed until a major portion of the grammatical system has been learned is feasible only where the learner has no forcing social need to use the language. As a matter of fact, to communicate effectively through the language a command of both grammar and vocabulary is essential. One is bound to cut a sorry figure without ample vocabulary because even if one is able to produce grammatical sentences, cannot convey what one wishes to say. Therefore a balance has to be struck between grammar and lexis.

So we can say that vocabulary is no way inferior to grammar. In fact without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed. 'Vocabulary items' — nouns, verbs, and adjectives — do indeed contain more information than is carried by grammatical items. Telegraphic messages often consist of no more than a sequence of lexical items with no grammatical information other than order of words and yet we have no difficulty in comprehending them, any more than we do ungrammatical headlines and advertisements.

The rationale is that some form of interchange in foreign language is possible with the help of vocabulary but without vocabulary, it is impossible. The idea here is not to shun grammar but to clarify the status of vocabulary. It is justified that a proper consideration will have to be given from the start to the appropriate vocabulary, and that appropriateness, of course will depend on the social needs of the learners.

**Lexis in ELT/ ELL**

Lexis as a linguistic level can lead us to all sort of fascinating topics which can be absorbed in language teaching at various levels and for various purposes. It has often been remarked how strange it is that comparatively little has been written on the teaching and learning of foreign language vocabulary, because there is a sense in which learning a foreign language is basically a matter of learning the vocabulary of that language. Not being able to find words you need to express yourself is the most frustrating experience in speaking another language. By the way vocabulary is not the entire story: the system of language (its 'grammar' or 'structure') is also important. Nevertheless, it is

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possible to have a good knowledge of how system of a
language operates and yet not be able to communicate in
it; whereas if we have the word stock we need it is
usually possible to communicate.

Lexis has always been a part of teaching
curricula but it has suffered from many a confusion
arising out of its status in totality of the programme.
The bulk of the confusion has perhaps been due to the
uncertainties in linguistic approaches to language
description and the status of grammar. The term grammar
has been frequently used with an enlarged meaning
referring to the total system of language and its
description. Grammar is that part of language which
can be described in terms of generalization or rules.
On the other hand, lexicon has often been characterised
as a list of all the particular facts about the language
which cannot be generalised as rules. But as every law
has exceptions, that is they are liable to include
irregularities. Certain lexical elements generally
commensurate with grammatical units we know as words. But
in certain cases a lexical item spans a piece of syntax
larger than a word. In any case, a lexical item has to
have its pronunciation and semantic specially stated and
therefore, the lexical strikes on all the three levels of phonology, syntax and semantics. A lexicon, therefore, is not mere 'appendage' of grammar, i.e. an indexing device subservient to the mechanics of grammar, but a vehicle of linguistic statement which deals with the crucial, most secret part of language.

It seems absolutely essential that lexical studies dealing with a scientific study of lexical items, their constraint elements, meaning, form, usage and derivational process etc. should be realised as an important part of language teaching programmes and given its required share in EFL/ESL and perhaps more rewardingly in ESP setting. New avenues and greener pastures are declared open when lexical studies deal with 'formal' aspects of vocabulary organisation, the environmental aspects of its use, lexical structure of a text, lexical description of specialist discourse etc. The area is fairly new and therefore the problems are large but we have an open field to explore. Previous work can be taken into account and refined to the basic need of the learners in their own circumstances. We should not take a partisan position but strike a perfect equilibrium between grammar and lexis. We should also be eclectic in adopting the
techniques and shrug off the taboos. To arouse effective and self-motivated learning, one has to settle down with a stimulating and resourceful teaching. So the field of vocabulary is almost untrodden, the area being wide defies researchers and teachers and offers a kind of challenge to the profession.

What is Vocabulary?

The shorter Oxford English Dictionary supplies several definitions of the word 'vocabulary'. One of them which fits into our scheme of things is 'The range of language of a particular person.' The word vocabulary has various meanings. In its widest sense it refers to the total stock of words in language. Now the question arises that does it then refer to this 'stock' as listed and defined in a dictionary? or also to those which have not yet found acceptance and inclusion in dictionary but are in practice. The pace of arrivals of new words is such brisk that few dictionaries can keep abreast with the word-stock. Johnson's dictionary, despite his industry, was far from exhaustive and in a way, fell short of reflecting the spoken language of that time. Words have the habit of changing their connotation and sometimes
being dumped. This puts the dictionaries in a critical position and they, with all their merits acknowledged contain many learned and technical terms no more in common use and list may out dated words also. Moreover, the voluminous the dictionary the less it will be possible to produce new and revised editions sufficiently frequently to include new words.

The chapter began with a definition of the word 'vocabulary'. The quotation from the dictionary was left incomplete. In full, the definition reads: 'The range of language of a particular person, class, profession'. It can be shown that there are regional vocabularies, occupational vocabularies, class vocabularies confined to relatively small groups and lastly the vocabulary of an individual as obtained in the stages of acquisition and development throughout life and also distinct in some way or other form that of other people in circles in which he moves. Individual vocabulary is characteristic of one's style. On the basis of the words people use, we sometimes recognise the person because no two persons use exactly the same words or use them in the same way.
The English language has a vocabulary of half a million words. No one knows all the words of any major languages of the world. All of the speakers of a given language know, however, its function words, whose role is chiefly grammatical. All of them likewise know a core of content words which have wide currency in the speech community. An individual has a vocabulary drawn from the total number of words theoretically available to him from that huge store and then applied to the situations in which he finds himself in various activities of life.

According to Encyclopaedia Britannica a normally educated person has a vocabulary of twenty to twenty five thousand words though most of us find some four to five thousand quite sufficient for our daily needs. We hardly use all the words with which we are familiar. According to an estimate Shakespeare used some fifteen thousand words and Milton only about eight thousand. The originators of "Basic English" however, think that eight hundred and fifty with the addition of a few specialised words are enough for all day to day purposes. There are two obvious factors of an individual vocabulary – the words one understands and the word one actually uses.

The individual may also have a specialised

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vocabulary, arising from particular circumstances of his life and work. An electrician, a nuclear physicist, a joiner, a doctor, a plumber, an airline pilot ... all these and many more, have to have specialised vocabularies in order to be able to do their jobs.

When the specialised vocabulary arises from a geographical circumstance we call it dialect vocabulary, but it is specialised vocabulary, just as an occupational or leisure interest vocabulary is a specialised vocabulary. Sometimes expressions belonging to a specialised vocabulary under the general vocabulary of the language. For example, 'getting in to the charts' is now used generally to describe the achievement of popularity. It has nothing to do with navigation; it originated in the vocabulary of the popmusic world.

Lexis helps us to think, speak and write coherently, logically and legibly. It is the vehicle for thought, self-expression, interpretation and communication. With a reasonable amount of words in our possession we are able to express ideas with precision and without much repetition. One cannot as well in comprehension without a large vocabulary. When summarising, the need to

condense makes it essential that you have ample stock of words from which to make an apt selection. One having a good command of words is bound to do well in other subjects also. It adds greatly to the capacity to deal successfully with the worlds of work and leisure that lie outside and beyond the life of an institution. Vocabulary deficiency, on the other hand, deprives us the satisfaction of knowing precisely what we converse about or read and thus being unable to share the knowledge with others. Vocabulary is an aid to achieve the requisite feel for language, in order to handle the language effectively in different situations. Language performs a valuable social function and the vocabulary of a language provides a referential tool.

The Vocabulary of English: Loan Words

The English language is rich in its enormous range of words, having been for centuries an 'importer' of words from other languages; words which it then anglicised and used as if they were 'native'. The basic reason for this being "partly historical factors and partly to what we may call 'genius' of the language". English has always been ready "to absorb foreign words and coin new words for ideas for which the existing foreign terms were not found
for some reason acceptable". English has always welcomed the alien, accepted with comparative equanimity words from other languages with which it has been in contact. Searjeantson (1935) highlights this process:

The English language has been open to foreign influences, partly through the succession of invaders who came into contact with English speakers during the Middle Ages, partly through the enterprise of the British themselves who have carried their language into the far corners of the world, where it has gathered new matter as it passed its way.

Thus, contacts between peoples of alien speech through conquests, colonization, trade, literature, advent of new ideas and objects, changes in social conditions, the wide-spread increase in culture and education have been some of the prime factors responsible for the enormous growth of English vocabulary.

Another source of this wealth of words was the fusion that took place (over a long period) between the Anglo-Saxon (or 'Old English') language of the English - itself already enriched by Celtic and Latin words - and the Norman - French language of the conquerors of 1066.  

7. Sheard, J.A. The Words We Use. Andre Deutsch. 1934. p. 17
This fusion resulted in profound changes in vocabulary and, of course, in grammar. Centuries of word formation and importation and language blending have resulted in a larger stock of words than is possessed by any other language. The Oxford English Dictionary lists about half a million words.

Lexis of a living language is never stationary. It is constantly changing, building up and decaying. It is almost impossible to estimate the size of the vocabulary of any language at a given time. This gigantic stock of words available today invites and challenges us to solve pedagogic problems and consider the ways in which vocabulary development can be handled.

The selection of Vocabulary in ELT

With the advent of the new discipline 'linguistics' and its application to language teaching has shown that two distinct stages have taken place. The first was a strong awareness of the importance of practical language ability as an aim of teaching, and the second was the development of more advanced techniques in linguistics.

Techniques of vocabulary selection is an illustration of

10. Halliday et al. op. cit. p. 190
what is meant by this second kind of change. In 1940s it was regarded by many people as a high water-mark in linguistic sophistication. By vocabulary selection is generally meant the deliberate choice for teaching purposes of particular sets of words, and the consequent deliberate rejection of others. Vocabulary selection in fact stands like litmus test differentiating between the first and the second kind of waves of linguistics. The selection of vocabulary developed out of dire need of the teachers for the choice of material they were teaching in the classroom. Not all of them were the happy about it, as there was a reaction from a certain section who pointed out the short comings of this process as be-all and end-all of teaching materials. But the majority realised that vocabulary selection was a step in the right direction.

In the last forty years or so, the idea of exposing a learner to language in a progressive manner has developed continuously. There is a large literature on the relative merits of different sequences, on the best place for a particular construction in a graded course. Manuals for teachers discuss the advantage of teaching the more simple before the more complex, the more useful before the more rare, the regular before the irregular
Historically it is a process that can be seen as a reaction against materials into chunks largely unconnected with one another, failing to discriminate between important and trivial and containing large vocabularies with no evident objective basis. The conviction grew among practising teachers that learning could be made easier if some order could be brought to the business of deciding what language items to include and in what sequence they should be placed.

Consequently the burden fell on vocabulary and the objective standard by which to judge the importance of the word was frequency. The more frequently used a word is, the more useful it is, also, the more frequently used a word is, the more easily it will be remembered. This is why frequency becomes important.

In recent years, words have been graded, listed and taught on the basis of frequency, that is on the basis of the number of times they occur in the average reading material. The techniques of vocabulary selection reached their most sophisticated form in the work which led to the devising of Le Francois Fondamental. 12 His pioneering

11. Wilkins, op. cit. p. 112.
efforts and the research work that led up to it have helped to bring about and to accelerate modern developments in the application of linguistics to language teaching. Apart from its advantages there is a backlash on the technique that the items which make up vocabulary lists need to be placed in groups; the criteria for setting up such groups are frequently grammatical, but are not disclosed as such so the reader. The only remedy, in linguistic analysis of this kind, is to accept from the outset the premiss that vocabulary selection entails attention to several levels of language; and that, although interest may be concentrated on 'vocabulary', the specification of a vocabulary list is certain to require the use of descriptive categories in grammar, in lexis, in context, and probably also in phonology. 13

Several scholars have made attempts to select a minimum of vocabulary by means of word counts and word frequency lists. The words that are most frequently used are considered to be the commonest words, and they are included in the necessary minimum vocabulary. 14 We have thus some of the word frequency lists prepared by experts from the early twenties. Vocabulary selection and

control began with Thorndike's publication of his first *Teacher's Word Book* in 1921. His aim was to make reading easier for American students by enabling them to acquire a wide reading vocabulary. In the material he selected, he established the frequency of the commonest 5000 words. In 1931 he published yet another frequency list entitled *The Teacher's Word Book of 2000 words*. This was followed by the *Carnegie Report on Vocabulary Selection and Control* published in 1936 by Thorndike, Faucett, West and Palmer. Later in 1941 Thorndike and Lorge brought out *The Teacher's Work Book of 3000 Words*. These studies have led Michael West to prepare *A General Service List of English Words* in 1950. This list defines the vocabulary of simplified English at the 2000-word level.

Learning a foreign language is a difficult task. There is no point in diverting the learner's energies on to fruitless labour. We all know the situation where a person who has been learning over a number of years is perhaps called upon for the first time to use the language in a natural context and finds that he lacks the very vocabulary that he most needs. The aim of vocabulary selection is to remedy this and to make the learning process a more efficient one.
It would then be necessary to lay certain criteria for vocabulary selection. By far the most important single criterion is that of frequency of which we have discussed earlier. Indeed the claim to objectivity would not be justified unless the choice of texts was also on a sound basis. There might be more value in statistics, not about global use of a language, but about each different type of language text. Wherever it is possible to predict the uses a language may have for the learner, it should be possible to limit the language taught to that which has the highest practical return for him.\(^{15}\)

The frequency lists discussed earlier are useful in that when text books for students are prepared, emphasis can be laid on a list of the 2000 most common words in a language which are indeed useful words for a foreigner to acquire. But learning cannot be confined to these items. If one is going to construct texts from which people are to learn the language, rather than use 'natural' texts, then it may be that for the usefulness, language variety and teachability is enough to ensure that he avoids the mistakes of uncontrolled introduction of vocabulary. The more language teaching is oriented towards meeting the needs of the learners the more likely it is

\(^{15}\) Wilkins. *op. cit.* p. 114.
that the situations used for teaching will produce 'useful' language and with lexical items beforehand would be an added advantage.

**Vocabulary a Key Issue in ESP**

English courses generally have an intention to teach English for General Purpose where there is ample room for the level of teaching and the learner is expected to be pretty mature. In the field of vocabulary, the application of the linguistic techniques have been concerned with General ELT. In the present age English cannot be seen as a static model but as a lively force lending itself to world-wide needs and purposes. A study of the specific vocabulary needs of the specialist learner in the diversified areas of his study and the preparation of word-lists specially compiled for one particular group of learners have rarely been attempted in a systematic and purpose-oriented manner. The vast increase in demand for English to be taught to learner's for various purposes, mainly adults, outside the normal education system has led to the distinction between language teaching for general educational and cultural purposes and language teaching directed solely towards practical ability. These
learners have altogether different aims from those of the General Purpose student. These special aims relate to national requirements of an institutional kind, for academic specialization, for professions and vocations and have precisely been responsible for the emergence of new courses and corresponding strategies. Special aims require special treatment, of materials based on deep analysis of the specific needs of the learner, and of our techniques and methodologies in terms of their utility. Analytical studies of specialist texts carried out on the basis of large sample of language used by particular fields in order to discover all those features which make them distinct from other types of discourse, appears to a step in the right direction. And as Halliday et al (1964) observe

The crucial criteria of any given register are to be found in its grammar and lexis. Probably the lexical features are the most obvious. Some lexical items suffice almost by themselves to identify a certain register.

the clearest signals of a particular register are technical terms. A study of the technical term employed by a specialist text not in terms of the frequency of their occurrence alone but on the basis of their potential to

contribute to the conveying of special messages in different forms i.e. reading, writing, speech etc. may be very useful to the student of English for Specific Purposes.

English Language has to serve a large variety of purposes and utterances perform a very wide range of functions. Within any one language notable differences of use impart employing differences of vocabulary and composition but mainly drawing on a common grammatical and lexical stock must be recognised. To cope with the variety of purposes and meet with ever growing demands of language is organised with the help of a set of grammatical rules and a system of symbols by means of which we can refer to the entities in the physical world and can express most abstract concepts. The notion of the 'field discourse' or for that matter of 'communicative purpose' implies a significant different function in grammar and lexis, the lexical being more prominent. In terms of syntax there is the practical possibility of mastering the system. The problem of lexis is much more tractable and a severe obstacle to the processing message.

All the languages have an in-build potential to fulfil the needs of its speakers in carrying out their
academic, business, social and occupational activities. In different situations we assume different roles and choose the relevant linguistic code available within the language. Age, relationship between the speaker and the hearer, occupation, topic of discourse and a number of other social, psychological and linguistic factors determine the choice of words and expressions. For instance a police officer playing with his grandchildren will employ a vocabulary substantially different from what he uses in a police station. Similarly, many of the words that a hotel manager uses in the pursuit of his occupation are bound to be strikingly different from those used by a caterer in his field. Again, a tourist official may not be able to participate very actively in a discussion on bio-chemistry or astrophysics but he is likely to outwit others by talking about various flights and their exact arrivals and departures.

The selection and implementation of a particular linguistic code is sometimes natural and instructive, and sometimes deliberate and obligatory. The forms can be referred to as 'ordinary' or 'natural' use, or in other words, what language chiefly exists for, and the latter, as the specialized use of language. English has been widely used for such special purposes and as Candlin et al
(1978), pointed out "there may be as many Englishes for Special Purposes as there are disciplines expressed in English." This we come across scientific English, Business English and so on. Further categories within these broad divisions depending on the degree of specialization is also possible. In several other fields where the needs are relatively limited we find varieties usually referred to as 'registers' e.g. cookery, advertising etc. Further we see restricted uses of English in fields like tourism, painting, catering and publishing, international air transport etc. Still further we have jargon and slang skill what can be observed in a dockyard/ railyard, in a sailor's inn, in a highway pub etc.

In the use of English for different purposes, there are considerable linguistic differences involved but various analyses of purposes specific texts reveal major differences in the use of lexical items. English in its totality appears to be an abstraction manifesting itself in a wide range of different, partly self-contained forms of communication. The total range of English presents a complicated picture even to those who are born to it and certainly too vast for the foreign learner.

who must restrict himself to acquiring only so much as corresponds to his practical needs. It must, however, be noted that the basic structure of language is fundamental to any specialised use. We have to start from the ordinary or natural use only to move to the special rise later. A sound knowledge of the working of English and a reasonable amount of the General Vocabulary of English is essential to the utilisation of English for Special Purposes. Acquisition of a special vocabulary is the first pre-requisite of a special use.

By definition, ESP is identified with special subject areas and topics. ESP consumers too are identified by their subject/job specifications. Linguistic differences between the subject areas being mainly centred around vocabulary it becomes evident that lexis assumes a nuclear position in the preparation and interpretation of ESP materials and, therefore, the principles and technique of lexical studies can be fruitfully extended to ESP with a renewed vigour. It goes without saying that ESP demands a special attention on lexical items which are characteristic of the field of discourse.

Specific Vocabulary

A great chunk of the English vocabulary consists
largely of learned words and technical terms coming from different foreign sources and different disciplines at different time calls for an investigation into the growth of specialised vocabularies used by the specialist for specific purposes. The extension of the area of knowledge causes the language to cope with new ideas for as knowledge grows language grows with it. New words are always needed to express new ideas, new perceptions and discoveries and to give names to new inventions. Literature, philosophy, art, music, business, social customs and fashion have all been responsible for the introduction of specialized words in English language.

Technical or specialised words have always existed or have been borrowed from time to time according to needs. As a matter of fact every trade or art has its own technical vocabulary. Technical terms are needed to denote new applications of knowledge from different spheres of human activity. Just like the social, cultural and academic factors mentioned above, trade and occupation, vocation and profession have accumulated a large corpus of technical terms unfamiliar to the non-specialist and indeed not needed by them. Technical Vocabulary serves the specialist in many ways, above all
it saves time as it is much quicker to name a process than to describe it. Hoggart (1977) points out two important reasons why technical vocabularies are sometimes indispensible:

Specialists do need specialist terms for at least two good reasons — as forms of shorthand to speed up discussions between themselves, and as safeguard against their analyses being misinterpreted because some of their words might be read in more than one sense ... their language must be so far as possible cleansed of the ambiguities of subjective reading. 18

Specialist vocabularies are made up of technical terms. Specialist vocabulary exists within the General Vocabulary of a language and inflates its total range. There is no doubt that it is science that has been heavily responsible for the introduction of the largest number of such learned on technical terms of specialist use. Another area which has contributed to the increasing stock of vocabulary is Business. In the multi-lingual context of India, there are certain functions that English will continue to play for a long time to come. The survival of business depends on communication at national as well as international levels; and business people here are too shrewd to lose the benefits of using English.

It is definitely relevant to probe into the nature of specialized vocabulary of business which can be best told through Professional English used in Catering, Hotel Management and Tourism.
CHAPTER V

APPROACHES AND TECHNIQUES OF TEACHING VOCABULARY
The teaching of vocabulary is as important as the teaching of structures. A thorough familiarity with the syntax of English and an ability to use the basic structures of the language are a pre-requisite, but equally important is a command of words. This is because language is meant for communication and it is in words that concepts and ideas are enshrined. One of the basic aims of teaching a language is to rip open the world of language to the students and to make them confident users of the language. To fulfill this aim, we have to explore the 'treasure of words', their range, their chameleon quality of changing in different situations. Vocabulary is essential to ELT in all its manifestations viz, ESL, EFL, ESP, etc. But in ESP, it is a key issue where it is to be treated as a frame of reference accompanying the professional activity. Special subject-matter depends largely on special vocabulary. A review of ESP materials shows that there is an obvious inclination towards registral analysis of the subject specific lexicon. The urge to reduce every word to what it really means and the fallacy of lexical counts and frequency of occurrence is often ill-directed. The need of the hour is reformulation of strategies drawing upon the current

insights in order to justify the age old saying so relevant today that the meaning of word 'is in its use'. Before exploring several aspects of vocabulary teaching/learning, we perhaps ought to begin by looking at reasons both negative and positive for the present emphasis on vocabulary.

Reasons for neglecting vocabulary in the past.

During the period 1940-1970 vocabulary was neglected because it had been emphasized too much in language classrooms during the years before that time. In brief the reasons are:

1. Teachers felt that grammar should be emphasized more than vocabulary, because vocabulary was already being given too much time in language classrooms.

2. Specialists in methodology feared students would make mistakes in sentence construction if too many words were learned before the basic grammar had been mastered. Consequently, teachers were led to believe it was best not to teach much vocabulary.

3. It was believed that word meanings can be learned only through experience, that they cannot be adequately taught in a classroom. As a result, little attention
was directed to techniques for vocabulary teaching.

Reasons for the present emphasis on vocabulary

In many ESL classes, even where teachers have devoted much time to vocabulary teaching, the results have been disappointing. Especially in countries where English is not the main language of communication, teachers want more help with vocabulary instruction than they used to receive. Another factor is the current interest in the study of word meanings. Findings have proved that communication breaks down when people do not use the right words. In the best classes, neither grammar nor vocabulary is neglected. The most cardinal point is that English is being studied enroute to acquire altogether different sort of purposes. The corner stone of ESP teaching is vocabulary.

Vocabulary — communicative potential

With the advent of ESP, and vocabulary being at the nucleus of teaching curricula, the professionals and writers have employed several approaches and technique to the teaching of vocabulary. A telegraphic review of a few of the important ones among them will be suitable. Edwards (1974) was of the opinion that building of 'core'
or 'foundation' vocabulary should go along with the specialist vocabulary, otherwise the student will be on an ant hill without shoes. Fanny (1977) suggests that it is not the single words which are always difficult but phrases, so that combinations of word should be taught, not just the individual items of a discipline. Since Corder's article on the teaching of meaning of 1968 which was in past an attempt to explore the implications for vocabulary teaching of Lyon's work in structural semantics — a number of writers have acknowledged the crucial relevance of intralinguistic relations of sense and collocation to developing a wholly satisfactory approach to the teaching of lexis. In addition to more general discussions such as those of Wilkins (1972) and Richards (1976), there have been a number of attempts to exploit specific aspects of lexical patterning in the preparation of teaching material. Nilsen (1976) and Brown (1974) are some more names who have proposed exercises based on lexical sets relating to specialist fields.

Teaching strategies and vocabulary selection have to be governed by certain principles which correspond to specific needs of the learners. Among the basic tools which the learner needs to create language, the foremost 'words' which in different context assume different roles. Vocabulary selection and presentation will depend on an adequate description of the language employed by the subject specialist discourse which the learners need to handle. It must emphasise the communicative import of the code i.e. lexical items within given contexts.

Vocabulary exists in the dictionary but they live in context. We hear them in context, we learn them in collocations with other words and try not to 'break the code'. At times even one-word utterances carry a lot of communicative power in a discourse. Words, phrases, phrasal verbs, idioms and even slang and colloquialisms are all lexical items or made up therefrom and all have their communicative potential. When they appear in combinations, they generate a special communicative power and stand for more than what they are generally supposed to be in a dictionary.

Lexis and the four skills

Vocabulary plays a stellar role in consolidating
all the four skills and if one is well equipped with useful word-stock becomes proficient in the language while using the language one comes across various communicative patterns i.e. defining, classifying, describing exemplifying, presenting a report, an exposition a legal brief, etc. A lexicon provides raw materials for the communicative features of language use.

In speaking and writing the vocabulary provides input for communication. One is at ease with the language if the word-stock is rich. One is able to express better in as precise a way as possible. It also leads to clarity and helps the student to convey his ideas. In listening, the lexis helps the student to gather information and comprehension. It also helps in concentrating on stress, intonation and rhythm of the language, which would later help the student in becoming good speakers of the language. A reasonable stock of lexis enables the student in reading materials with a lot of comfort. The student saves time in locating a known item, to gain an idea about the organisation of text, for quick information gathering and after all saves the student from making tedious effort of referring back to the dictionary all the time. In ESP,
lexis becomes all the more important because each subject has a specific vocabulary of its own therefore the new entrants learning English for Special Purposes must possess ample stock of specific vocabulary in his field. With the help of the Specific Vocabulary and a proper concentration on the particular skill needed by the learner for his specific purposes will make teaching and learning highly effective.

A model for teaching vocabulary

So far we have examined the relative importance of vocabulary in language teaching and learning. We now turn to the nature of vocabulary and probe into some of the strategies and techniques through which the vocabulary can best be acquired. For this purpose the dictionary can be an invaluable companion if used effectively and intelligently but referring back to the dictionary for each and every unfamiliar word is too tiresome a process and at times not so very rewarding. So the acquisition of vocabulary may better be directed to the analysis of internal structure of words and made to feel how words are structured or built. This leads to a better understanding, easier association and greater retention. With this objective in view a model
of Productive Vocabulary is proposed, which aims at providing a short cut to vocabulary.

A productive model of vocabulary acquisition is based on (a) certain principles and (b) carefully chosen language elements:

A. Principles:

1. Learning to look analytically at word-form;
2. Recognizing the underlying stems through the application of the knowledge of affixation, recognizing the related forms and the changes resulting from affixation leading to corresponding differences in the syntactic function, developing word analysis by manoeuvring prefix-root-suffix elements;
3. Discovering the meaning of the whole by an analysis of the parts, moving from word-analysis to word building i.e. from word definition and from a given definition to building an appropriate word;
4. Discovering the meaning of strange, unfamiliar elements/words by establishing meaningful associations.
B. Elements:

1. Affixes producing grammatically classed words.
2. General suffixes attached to a number of words, adding special meaning to the same radical.
3. Combining forms used in the formation of compounded forms of specialist use,
4. Carefully selected root forms.

The model of productive vocabulary will take the following operational procedure:

Step 1 Memorization: of the selected roots and other word-elements (most of the memorization will be reduced by developing skills of meaningful associations);

Step 2 Identification: of the elements making up the word, e.g. roots, stems, affixes etc.

Step 3 Application: analysis of the parts of a word leading to its identification; building words as per definitions given;

Step 4 Production: producing word-forms not specifically learnt.

The proposed model of productive vocabulary may be used in
teaching situations and manoeuvered to suit the various levels:

Example I: We can take a base e.g. JECT and then identify several derivatives:

- inject
- injection
- injector
- object
- objection
- projector
- projection
- projector

Example II: We can recognise the formative elements in the structure of a word, analyse the word-form into its component units, produce the meaning of each unit separately and then combine the root-affix meaning to arrive at its definition:

a) Inject
   
   in = inside
   -ject = throw
   
   Definition: to throw inside (to inject a syringe)

b) Object
   
   ob = before, against
   -ject = throw
   
   Definition: to throw against (thrown before the mind).
c) Project pro = forward
    ject = throw

Definition: to throw forward (an image plan, idea etc.)

Example III: We take a definition and attempt to build a word:

Definition: a device for throwing (something)
            inside

inside = In
throw = ject
device = or
word : injector

In the same way the definition, 'an apparatus for throwing (an image) forward' would inspire one to build the form .... Projector.

Example IV: One can move further and discover a number of possible derivatives from one root element:

- ject -

project projection projector
projective projectionist projectional
projectivity projectively projectivity
In the grammatical analysis words are assigned to word classes on the formal basis of their syntactic behaviour. While studying the derivational process of a word we can observe the formal changes with reference to a corresponding change in the grammatical function by assigning labels to each derived form:

e.g.  project       - Noun
      projection     - Noun
      projector      - Noun
      projectionist  - Noun
      projective     - Adjective
      projectively   - Adverb etc.

In this way a large number of words can be handled and although meaning cannot always be inferred in the manner the analytical procedures will at least give the core meaning and insight into the structure of the word.

It goes without saying that the model of productive vocabulary demand a knowledge of word formation or word grammar, which will be dealt later. The model of productive vocabulary is not only an aid to the acquisition and handling of general vocabulary of English, it is
particularly helpful in the learning of specialist vocabularies. ESP learners can use these strategies for consolidating their attainments in the general vocabulary of English as also in the interpretation of technical terms of their subject specific discourse.

Vocabulary holds a central position in ESP, therefore the specialist learner should enrich his/her vocabulary in a meaningful way. The ESP learner should be aware how the words s/he has learnt are used in the specialist discourse and where they serve the most useful purpose. A major reason for expanding our vocabulary and developing word power is to improve our communicative skills. An ESP learner can achieve these aims by exploring the crucial role of word-elements which have a tendency to recur and make the specialist lexicon. A learner with a meagre working vocabulary will often have to use several words to express an idea that could well be expressed in one if that were present in his working vocabulary. For example, instead of speaking about attending 'a meal where people help themselves to food laid out on a table, and often eat standing up,' S/He might better speak of attending 'a buffet'.
**Word-formation**

The most fascinating part of human language are words. They are part of material into which utterances may be analysed and the ability to analyse the word into its constituent parts is a performative knowledge with which word formation is chiefly concerned. Words are convenient units in the division of a language into manageable parts the word is not the smallest unit of meaning. We can sometimes arrive at the meaning of a word by thinking about its parts. Word formation is firmly based on the notion that learning of the wholes proceeds largely from an assembling of parts. The model of productive vocabulary which has been discussed earlier, banks heavily on word-formation.

**Word**

We know that words are basic and elemental in our lives, they come to us naturally, yet we find how difficult it is exactly to say what a word is. Defining 'word' has been for a long time a major problem. Of the various definitions available, Bloomfield's (1973) is a classical one "minimum free unit"\(^5\) is a great help in formulating

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analytical procedures of word formation. Fries (1940) defines a word as "a combination of sounds acting as a stimulus to bring into attention the experience to which it has become attached by use" but the definition is obviously too narrow in its scope and application for analytical process. The words of a language are highly complex system of class items, inter-locking classes as to form, meaning and distribution. Lado (1964) provides a significant direction in understanding the vocabulary system of a language when he remarks, "in dealing with vocabulary we should take into account three important aspects of words - their form, their meaning, their distribution .... and we should consider the various kinds or classes of words in the operation of the language."

Form: Some words are fixed and some are variable. Words appearing only in one form are called invariable words such as English 'since', 'seldom', 'often', etc. The variables are governed by certain patterns. They undergo a partial but systematic change in their form which corresponds to a change in their grammatical function e.g. 'talk' .... 'talks' .... talking etc. The invariables

may also vary but not functionally and environmentally, e.g. not .... 'nt', and .... 'nd, 'n', etc.

Meaning: Meaning into which we classify our experience is culturally determined and modified. Meanings can be defined according to the form they attach to (a) meanings that attach to words as words are lexical meanings e.g. 'banquet' a grand meal for a lot of people on a special occasion. (b) the meaning 'two' or 'more' i.e. plural attached to 's' as in 'tickets' is morphological meaning (c) the meaning 'question' attached to the word arrangement in the sentence ... 'Is he a Caterer' is syntactic meaning.

Distribution: Grammatical, geographical and stylistic restrictions govern the distribution of words in utterances and have to be strictly adhered to for effective interaction.

Classification: Broadly speaking, there are two classifications of words. These are: (i) function words, and (ii) content words. Function words are interrogative; prepositions, auxiliaries etc. and content words are those words of particular grammatical classes that are meaningful. Fries in *The Structure of English* (1957) classifies English words into four groups, namely,

(i) function words or structural words
(ii) substitute words
(iii) grammatically distributed words, and
(iv) content words.

According to him, substitute words replace a class and several sub-classes of words. By 'grammatically distributed words' he refers to words like 'some', 'any', which "show unusual grammatical restriction in the distribution". The number of words in the first three groups is very small but of frequent occurrence and gifted with a wide range of meanings and functions. The fourth group is the largest and constitutes the bulk of the vocabulary of a language. The content words are again sub-divided into items treated as things/objects processes, qualities etc.

The concept of 'word' is so fluid that it defies definition. We can therefore, think of an abstract unit called 'lexeme' denoting all possible shapes that a word can have e.g. look, a key member inclusive of looked, looks, looking etc. A particular shape that a word has on a particular occasion can be referred to as word form. A word form has a phonological and/or orthographic shape. It realises a lexeme. For purposes of analysis every word-form is divisible into one or more meaningful units generally referred to as Morpheme, for instance, 'spoon'
in 'spoons' is a free unit, it continues a word-form by itself while 's' is a bound unit and such in capable of working as a word-form. Whereas a morpheme is defined as a minimal unit of grammatical analysis a segment of a word-form which represents a particular morpheme is called a Morph. Thus bound units can occur only if attached to other morphs, whereas free unit can occur independently. Further, a phonetically, lexically or grammatically conditioned member of a set of morph representing a particular morpheme is called an Allomorph.

Affixation: Morphemes may be divided into Roots of and Affixes. Analysis/formative elements to the ultimate point take us to forms which have been called Roots. The starting point is word analyses. Root is word form which is not further analysable. It is the nucleus of lexeme short of all possible additions, e.g. the word-form untouchables 'un', 'able', 's' are additives while the ultimate point is touch and that is the root. Roots of various types fused together result in the formation of stems. A stem is defined as that part of the word-form which remains when all inflectional additions have been removed, e.g. in the form 'untouchables', 's' is the inflectional addition (that is no further addition is
possible) and after removing 's' we get 'untouchable' which is the stem. Similarly in 'touched' the stem is 'touch'. A stem can consist of two roots as in 'arm-chair'. While the concept of stem is concerned with inflectional additions, the concept of Base is concerned with derivational additions e.g. 'touchable' is a base which can produce 'untouchable'.

Then there are inflected form of a word e.g. am, are, is. Pre-fix is the word or syllable placed in front of a word to add to or change its meaning e.g. pre-po. Suffix is the letter(s), sound(s) or syllable(s) added at the end of a word to make another word, e.g. 'y' added to rust make rusty.

For purpose of analysis word-forms are classified as simple, complex, and compound.

Simple: The occurrence of a particular form independently constitutes a simple word. A simple word-form may be:

(i) just a minimal base e.g. dog Base+ (Super fix)
(ii) a base and an inflectional suffix, e.g. dogs : Base and inflectional suffix ('s' plural and superfix).

Complex: A word form which contains a base and a
derivational suffix and/or an inflectional suffix,
e.g.

actor : Base + Derivational Suffix (-er) + (Superfix)
actors : Base + Derivational Suffix (-er) + Inflection Suffix ('s' plural) + (Superfix)

Compound: A word form produced out of the linking of two or more elements expressing a simple idea. A simple analysis yields the following types:

(a) two elements, both simple e.g. base ball
(b) three elements, all simple e.g. son-in-law
(c) two elements, one complex e.g. tax collector
(d) two elements, both complex e.g. elevator operator
(e) two elements, one or both e.g. base ball player compound

The normal English type of compound is one that has as its second element a word form carrying the main idea and the first element is a qualifier or determinant, e.g. 'air travel, beer stall, steam engine, etc. Some foreign types i.e. initial determinants are also found in use e.g. 'court-martial', 'Knight errant' etc. Phrasal verbs have much in common with compound word-forms especially when the verbs combine with adverbial particles, e.g. 'give up' 'let loose' etc. They sometimes coalesce to form
compounds e.g. 'under go', 'show down', 'with stand' etc.

Compounds are classified on the basis of their grammatical function as Nouns, Verb, Adjectives etc. Sub-classification can also be attempted in many ways ... by the form of classes of elements that make up the compound by semantic classes, by syntactic function and so on. The majority of compounded word-forms. Both in general and special use, are, however nouns. Some major categories can be classified as under:

Major categories

I. Noun + Noun e.g. girl friend
   Adj + Noun e.g. sweet meat
   Verb + Noun e.g. pick pocket
   Adv + Noun e.g. over draft
   Part + Noun e.g. Off shore

II. Noun + Adj e.g. pale green
    Verb + Adj e.g. (Rare)
    Adj + Adj e.g. ready made

III. Noun + Verb e.g. self control
     Adj + Verb e.g. white wash
     Verb + Verb e.g. make believe (rare)
     Part, + Verb e.g. out live
IV. Phrasal Compound:

a-pain-in-stomach-gesture, forget-me-not
tlove-is-life etc.

V. Compounds formed by derivational/inflectional
elements, e.g. broad shouldered, long-legged
cock eyed, etc.

VI. Hybrids: Compounds make up of foreign elements
attached to native roots are also called Hybrids.
They are quite common in specialist vocabularies.

Words formed for special effects coined for special
purposes travel long distances and undergo wide ranging
transitory impacts before they get firmly embedded in the
language. The instance of hyphenation is a token of many
such features. There is no consistency in the use of
hyphens in most of the compounds. It depends on the taste
of the writer and the degree of fusion. This gives rise
to a number of forms of which the following may be
mentioned briefly:

Blends: Part of one word combined with part of another
resulting in a new word.

e.g. squash = (squeeze + crash)

Telescoping: a tendency to drop syllables and make two
words into one.

e.g. don = (do + on)

**Abbreviation**: forms shortened for convenience

e.g. lab, exam. O.I.G.S.

**Acronym**: preference of brevity sometimes lead to extreme cases when only the initials are used to form full words e.g. WHO, NATO, UNO.

**Syncopation**: the beginning and the end of two forms retained but syllables are lost e.g. pram, econ etc.

**Back formation**: a fruitful source of new forms e.g. back lash, back bite

**Word from Proper Nouns**: e.g. Calico, Watt. etc.

Word-formation which primarily deals with the analysis and formation of new lexemes from the given bases provides a link between syntax and lexicon. The techniques and procedures of word-formation can be extended further to study special patterns of word forms and word groups which manifest themselves most significantly in the following ways:

**Collection**: Coming together of words 'strong tea' and 'heavy drinker'.
Idioms: It is a form of expression peculiar to a particular language and often having a meaning other than the one that it appears to have e.g. as deaf as a post etc.

Proverb: Popular short saying, with words of advice or warning, e.g. 'It takes two to make a quarrel'.

Slang: It is vocabulary which is used in very informal spoken language but not considered good in formal 'correct' English. e.g. a slang word for 'mad' is 'nuts'.

Register: Vocabulary used by speakers in particular circumstances or context, e.g. legal, commercial.

Specialist Texts and Discourse: Specialist texts and discourse are the chief consumers of specialist vocabularies consisting of learned, technical, borrowed or coined words of specialised use. So ESP learner is directly concerned with this area but success in the handling of purpose specific devices and codes depends largely on an understanding of how the total system of communication operates.

Vocabulary Content and ESP

The teaching of vocabulary for ESP cannot be seen
in isolation from the whole system. An analysis of the
needs of the learner in his specified area is to be
supplemented by an assessment of his level of proficiency
in the use of language for general purposes. The
'common core' vocabulary cannot be neglected because
various types of materials in broadly defined areas of
study or vocation draw heavily upon the general or the
core vocabulary of English. In highly specialised
branches the dependence is rather two-fold, in addition
to common core, they draw upon their parent discipline as
there is a mutual feedback among allied areas. Thus,
for example, the problem of deciding upon vocabulary
content in ESP for catering, Hotel Staff and Tourism is
to be seen in terms of three stages viz.

(A) Defining and selecting the vocabulary of General
    English.
(B) Defining and projecting the vocabulary of Business.
(C) Defining and presenting the vocabulary of subject-
    specialism.

We would consider the three stages separately and
observe how the model of productive vocabulary helped
by the techniques of word-formation can be used to
minimise the effort of analysis and hasten the process
of the acquisition of vocabulary to the best use of the learner.

'A'. Defining and selecting the vocabulary of General English. The prospective user of English for Specific Purposes would be better advised to review and strengthen the general vocabulary of English before getting ahead with a specialist vocabulary. As per the principles and elements focussed upon is the proposed model of Productive Vocabulary below are listed some of the chosen elements/roots pertaining to the general vocabulary, having a direct bearing for productive purposes under the procedures outlined earlier.

I. General Prefixes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prefix</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a-</td>
<td>(on, in, out, from, of)</td>
<td>abroad, ashore</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>alight</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ab-</td>
<td>(from, away)</td>
<td>abduct, abjure</td>
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<tr>
<td>variants</td>
<td></td>
<td>accede, affirm</td>
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<td>ac-, af-, ag-</td>
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<td>aggregate</td>
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<td>at-, an-, ap-</td>
<td></td>
<td>attribute, assume</td>
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<tr>
<td>ar-, as-</td>
<td></td>
<td>applaud</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prefix</td>
<td>Meaning</td>
<td>Example Words</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------</td>
<td>---------</td>
<td>---------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ana-</td>
<td>(up, through)</td>
<td>analysis, anatomy, anarchy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ant-, anti-</td>
<td></td>
<td>antisocial, antechamber</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ante-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>be-</td>
<td>(by, on, around, near)</td>
<td>beside, below, beyond, befriend, bestride</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bi-</td>
<td>(twice, two)</td>
<td>bisect, biweekly, bicycle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>de-</td>
<td>(away)</td>
<td>dethrone, decamp</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>es-, ex-</td>
<td>(out of)</td>
<td>escape, expel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>for-</td>
<td>(through)</td>
<td>forgive, forbear</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fore-</td>
<td>(before)</td>
<td>forecast, forerunner</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in-, inter-</td>
<td>(in, inside, within)(single)</td>
<td>income, inland, monopoly, intervene</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mono-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>out-</td>
<td>(out, outside)</td>
<td>outcome, outlandish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>over-</td>
<td>(above, beyond)</td>
<td>overflow, overpower</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pre-</td>
<td>(before)</td>
<td>prehistoric</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>post-</td>
<td>(after)</td>
<td>postpone, postdated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>re-</td>
<td>(back, again)</td>
<td>return, recall</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>self-</td>
<td>(self)</td>
<td>self control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sub-</td>
<td>(under)</td>
<td>subject, sub-division</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>super-</td>
<td>(above)</td>
<td>superman, super-natural</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**trans-** = (across)  
**translate, transmit**

**under-** = (beneath)  
**undergo, underrate**

**with-** = (against, back)  
**withdraw, withhold**

II. Prefixes added to certain roots forming negative or adding negative force:

**in**  
**not**  
**inactive, indecent**

variants

**il, im-, ir-**  
**illegal, irrational, impossible.**

**non-**  
**(ill, bad, not)**  
**nonsense, nonentity, nonplus**

**un-**  
**(not, ......)**  
**unkind, unjust**

**dis-**  
**dislike, disgrace**

**mis-**  
**mistrust, misuse**

**a-**  
**variants**

**an- anti-**  
**apathy, atheist**

**ante-**

III. Some of the commonly used suffixes which produce grammatically classed forms:

(a) Of nouns: denoting agent, doer, beneficiary etc.
-r, -er, -or = trader, player, actor
- cian = musician, electrician
- ist = artist, tourist
-ee = payee, trustee

(b) ..., denoting state, action, result of an action, condition etc.

- age = bondage, breakage, leakage
- ance = brilliance, importance
- cy = accuracy, lunacy
- dom = kingdom, boredom
- hood = manhood, childhood
- ism = socialism, patriotism
- ment = judgement, punishment
- ness = kindness, goodness
- ship = lordship, friendship
- ty = cruelty, penalty
- ure = pleasure, furniture

(c) of Adjectives

- al = natural, musical
- ial = racial, potential
- able = respectable, acceptable
- ible = visible, audible
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-ate</td>
<td>fortunate, fluctuate</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ic, ical</td>
<td>basic, historical</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ful</td>
<td>wonderful, hopeful</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-less</td>
<td>aimless, restless</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ed</td>
<td>gifted, aged</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>-en</td>
<td>wooden, golden</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ish</td>
<td>reddish, boyish</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ive</td>
<td>active, effective</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ous</td>
<td>famous, glorious</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-some</td>
<td>handsome, wholesome</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-y</td>
<td>dirty, wealthy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(d) Of Verbs

- *fy* = beautify, simplify
- *be (ize)*) = legalize, criticize
- *en* = frighten, darken
- *ate* = cultivate, assasinate

(e) Of Adverbs

- *ly* = quickly, suddenly
- *ward* = upward, homeward
- *wise* = otherwise, likewise
IV. Roots

Word-forms in English are most of the time derived from foreign roots, therefore a selection of roots for vocabulary teaching is entirely essential. Brown's (1964) 'Master Word' list consists of fourteen master root elements and whose twenty prefixes pertain to over 14,000 words in Webster's Collegiate Dictionary and a projected 100,000 words in an unabridged dictionary. The roots are highly productive and can be used for identification of the base in Common English words leading to a productive maneuvering by applying root-affix strategies. These roots, however, require a brief review for smooth functioning. Both in English and Latin, verbs have a variety of forms. In Latin most of the infinitive forms end in -ere, -are, -ire e.g. (apere) (to take). To discover English words derived from Latin forms we can drop the infinitive ending and get the base e.g. capero = cap (base) meaning 'to take or seize' as in English words, 'capture, captivity, capsule'. etc. we can then move ahead and discover the variant forms of the base:

Cap as in 'accept'
'deception' (take to, take away)
Ceip as in 'receipt' (take back)

Ceit as in 'deceit' and Ceive as in 'deceive'

The fourteen roots

Capere = (to take or seize)
cap (base)
variants: cap, ceip, ceive, ceit

ponere = (put or place)
pou (base)
variants: pone, pos, pose, posit, posite

ferre = (bear or carry)
fer (base)
variants: fer, lat, lay

scribere = (write)
scrib (base)
variants: scribe, scrip, scriv

receipt, except
conceive, perception
conception, caption
capital etc.

postpone, component
deposit, composite
e tc.

ferry, referee
confer, futile
suffer, infer,
etc.

describe, inscribe
script, scripture
e tc.
plicare  = (fold, bend, twist)
    plic (base)
    variants: plic, play
    plex, play, ply

mittere  = (send)
    mit (base)
    variants: mitt
    miss, miss, mit

specere  = (see or look)
    spec (base)
    variants: spect
    spec, spi, spy

tenere  = (have or hold)
    ten (base)
    variants: tain
    tin.

ducere  = (lead, make shape or fashion)
    duc (base)
    variants: duct,
    duit, duk

    implicit, implicit, complicate, duplicate
    accomplice etc.
    emit, admit
    transmit, mission etc.
    inspect, expect, suspect etc.
    tenure, tenant
    detain, continue
    abstain etc.
    education, conductor
    duke, duchess etc.
facere = (make or do)
fac (base) facile, factory
variants: fic edifice, fashion
fac, fact, fash effective etc.

tendere = (stretch)
ten (base) extend, attention,
variants: tend, tension, etc.
tent

stare = (stand, endure or persist)
sta (base) distant, establish
variants: sist status, station
obstacle etc.

graphere = (write)
graph (base) graphic, telegram
phonogram etc.

Legein = (speech or science reason, study)
Logas (base)
variants: log,
logy logogram, logic
prologue, biology etc.

In addition to these roots we can select other
productive roots from the General Service of English Words (GSL) and use them for productive purposes, particularly at the lower levels. A sample selection is presented below:

agree = -ment, -dis, -able, dis-ble
appear = -ance, dis.... ance, dis....
avoid = -ance, dis....ance, dis....
depend = -ent, -ant, -ence, in.... ance
certain = -ly, -ty, un....ty
mad = -ly, -ness, -en
aim = -less, -lessly, -lessness
art = -ist, -istic
bear = -able, -ably, -ing
ceremony = -ial, -ious
collect = -ion, -or, -ive, -ively, re-
nature = -al, -alise, -alisation
beauty = -ful, -ify, -ous, -cation

(b) & (c): Defining and projecting the vocabulary of
Business English and of subject specialism.

ESF course designers/planners have to prune down the broad field of business to the specified needs of particular discipline. A detailed review of the nature
of Business English and of the subject specialist vocabulary i.e. for Catering, Hotel Management and Tourism its listing and teaching will be taken up in the following chapter.
CHAPTER VI

BUSINESS ENGLISH VOCABULARY FOR CATERING, HOTEL MANAGEMENT AND TOURISM
The teacher of EFL/ESL is faced increasingly with requests from his students for specialist courses to meet their specific requirements, and a large number of these requests are for English for Commercial and Business Purposes. This is due to the emergence of English as the main language of international business, essential to the exporter in maintaining his contacts. Indeed to most Hotel and Tourism industry, dealing with customers means using English, in correspondence and documentation. So it has become important to look more closely at what is involved in teaching English for Business Purposes.

In language training for business, teachers and designers of an ESP course are in a state of dilemma. A number of ESP professionals have reported that ESP learners of Business have low expectations about both a language course and a language teacher usually arts-trained with little other than a layman's knowledge of subject area. A professional discussion of business matter is sometimes beyond the competence of the ESP teacher, but this is what the learners need most, and not merely a sequence of general language items rarely connected with their subject. If the needs of the learner is neglected there is lack of
motivation and very little genuine communication takes place. This indicates that a general approach will not serve the purpose. Teachers and course designers then have to fall upon a specific course which has a close connection with the subject concerned. Team teaching is an encouraging development in this direction. One can analyse the specialist business discourse, select prominent features as evidenced by rhetorical patterns and specialist vocabulary. Selection and presentation of a working vocabulary of specialist areas handled by productive procedures caters the specific needs of the learners in a highly motivating manner. A dynamic professionalism on the part of the ESP teacher is the need of the hour and this naturally entails putting considerable effort in developing appropriate pedagogic skills in order to make the teaching highly effective and bridge the gap between language and specific subject.

**Teaching Business English**

While teaching Business English one is catering for two different groups of students: the first are the present employees and the second are future employees. These people have a wide variety of educational backgrounds and may differ considerably from one another in areas of
specialism, job experience and language experience, —
factors which have an influence on devising a suitable
course for their needs.

Before setting about the problems of course design,
however, one must try to establish in Business English as
in all other areas of ESP, the language needs of a
particular student or group of students as accurately as
possible and also determine their entry level. It is quite
a simple task to devise a questionnaire for the student to
complete:

1. **PERSONAL**

   Age: (speed of learning varies considerably
   when learners differ in age group)

   Mother tongue: (allows prediction of certain
types of errors and areas of
weakness through interference)

   Other Languages Spoken: (very often indicates facility
   for language learning)

   Previous Training in English + Dates: learnt years ago, and the man
   who took an extensive course
   last year)
2. WORK

Position: (you don't successfully train the hotel manager in the same way as the caterer)

Job Description: (helps fill out details given in section 3 and hopefully gives you a sample of his competence)

3. NEED FOR LANGUAGE

Activities and degree of Importance: (here appropriate activities are listed e.g. use of telephone, correspondence, and the student marks whether they are essential, useful or irrelevant)

Frequency of Use of English: (speaking, listening, reading, writing. Daily, weekly, less often. A useful guide to fluency and motivation. A man who speaks English every day may score very low on an entry list, but nevertheless 'communicate').
Assessment of own language ability: (again subdivided according to skills - well, fairly well, adequately, badly. Indicates confidence level - a useful guide to learning speed)

This information together with the result of a standard test gives a fairly accurate profile on which to base one's course design. Dividing courses for such practising businessmen, one must start by consolidating the previous knowledge of English and then exposing him to the specialist area with adequate specific vocabulary which would help the student to communicate smoothly.

Of the several strategies formed and fruitfully tried, experience has shown that the diagnostic approach is preferable to the rest in revealing communicative difficulties directly related to target-situation needs. A subject specific ESP programme like business English (Catering, Hotel Management and Tourism) can utilise the diagnostic approach whereby the learners will be taught directly in terms of the problems revealed by the diagnosis. As a matter of fact diagnostic work should be kept up with the teaching activity as a basis for determining the
content of the next phase of teaching. The diagnostic testing relies to a large extent on a specially devised Questionnaire and Structural Interview which reveal the prospective learner's perception of their needs and communicative difficulties. To keep the process of communication going, vocabulary items to particular topic must be readily available.

Another teaching technique in the aural/oral component of English is 'lecturette'. It is a short monologue, delivered by the student to the class on a pre-selected topic and other student take notes. At the end they are asked to write an answer to a question which is based on the contents of lecturette. The method has been quite effective yielding satisfactory results in practising specialist discourse with reference to purpose, presentation, topic selection and evaluation criteria. The method allows enough room for practice in communicative speaking, writing and listening.¹

Broadly speaking all these techniques draw heavily upon carefully selected specialist vocabulary. Thus teaching and listing of Business (Catering, Hotel Management and Tourism) English vocabulary becomes an important

aspect of the challenging job of the ESP teachers and course planners. Important in a course for businessmen is the teaching and practice of the formulae required for discussion and for social purposes. For instance expressions such as "Forgive me, but ...", "I'm afraid that...." and "I wonder if I might ...." are politeness formulae that oil the wheels of discussion. Selecting the formulae to be taught here, one must bear in mind the contexts in which the businessman is likely to use the language and pick those that are most appropriate.

Listening is an essential skill for the businessman, and must be trained as an integral part of any course. The methods of building up from short snippets to full-length pieces are common but again selection of appropriate material is vital. Businessmen most frequently listen on the telephone and at meetings, and so typical examples of these should be used to improve listening comprehension, with emphasis on their particular characteristics.  

Reading and writing skills can be developed in a similar way. But the main problem of teaching business English is the specialised vocabulary. It is evident that in this area, the businessman has no difficulty in handling

the core vocabulary for business but the real problem comes when s/he is exposed to specialised vocabulary i.e. technical terms and semi-technical terms and abbreviations.

Vocabulary helps the student to comprehend the specialised subject who is an alien to it. Various researches have proved that technical terms had an adverse effect on the students' motivation. It was suggested that vocabulary should be given before hand to encourage the students to use it as a tool for specific study. The vocabulary opens the special area to the student who is able to understand the terms, ideas and practices. This should not guide us to the fallacy that general English should be totally neglected. The lists of vocabulary would show a fair number of sub-technical words which would have no special association with special area and so a certain level of competence in general English will be necessary to achieve success in a specialist area. There would be words which would change their meaning slightly in the special area from the normal one. Further, it would be convenient to split the areas of business for example, Catering, Hotel Management and Tourism. Each area should be taken separately with

specialised vocabulary, backed by common core business English. Before going into detail of the specialised area, its selection and listing, it would be justified to consider some more techniques apart from the 'production model' which has been discussed earlier.

**Vocabulary in Context**

The meaning of a word is not always the dictionary meaning or what it literally denotes. What the word connotes in a particular context is more important than its denotation and is sometimes the only meaning warranted by the context in which it is used. Connotation is the implication of something more than the accepted or primary meaning and refers to the qualities, attributes and characteristics suggested by the word. For example, the word 'dictatorship' denotes 'a form of government controlled by an individual', but it connotes (for the people of democratic countries, any way) brutality, ruthlessness, injustice etc.

The question basic to the teaching of vocabulary is: how should we teach our students vocabulary? We cannot teach them vocabulary direct. This is because it is not always possible to identify the meaning of a
word outside some other kind of contexts and also because the meaning of a word is determined by the other words in the contexts, that is, by collocation. For example 'a run on the bank' is different from 'a thief on the run'. Vocabulary lessons that emphasise learning facts about words independent of the contexts in which they are used in sentences do not yield the right kind of results, for the student fails to understand the different collocational and connotative possibilities of the words. Moreover, our lessons should aim at teaching the students not merely lexis but also grammatical patterns of the language. So the first thing that we have to bear in mind is that vocabulary has to be taught from textbooks in which the use of word is contextualised.

Words of normal difficulty are best taught in contextual areas. There are advantages in using a connected context illustrating the words that are to be taught. This connected context should be presented orally to the class. Additional words can be taught as alternatives to those chosen in the connected context. For example, if the area is food; various dishes can be learned as alternatives to the simple selection of the passage. If

---

the conversation gives coffee as the choice of the
speaker, tea, milk, chocolate, water, wine, beer, etc.
can be learned as alternatives.

A composite picture of people sitting at a table
with a variety of food set before them can be used as
stimulus in connected meaning-to-expression practice.

Practice can be controlled in varying situations
by changing a key word or phrase. This change forces
the use of the words that have to be practised. For
example, in practising the words lunch, breakfast, and
dinner, the key situation words might be morning, noon,
and evening. The teacher might thus say, it's morning;
he's eating breakfast. It's noon; he's eating lunch.
It's evening; he's eating dinner. He might then cue
the class by saying It's morning, it's evening, or it's
noon, and have them respond by saying, He's eating
breakfast, lunch or dinner.

Use of audio-visual aids and realia

Teaching and learning of vocabulary could be
consolidated with the help of visuals or real objects
or models of real objects. They are highly effective
in showing meanings. The television would present the
exact situation to the students, which they can learn and imitate. For example, names for food appearing in stores and on restaurant menus can be learned with the help of television or with plastic toy models of the hundreds of foods now available. Television/Video would help the learners not only to acquire vocabulary but help them to pronounce correctly and develop an awareness of the para-linguistic features involved in the language.

Selection and Listing of Vocabulary for Specific Purposes (Catering, Hotel Management and Tourism)

The main point relates to the number of words that are required to be taught to a specific learner so that s/he may have the basic competence for speaking, listening, reading and writing. This point is highly important because unless we have some kind of selection and control, we are in grave danger of being lost in the jungle of words. Selection presupposes an assessment of the ability of the average learner to learn. The criteria of selection are mainly frequency and range. We can fall back on the works of authors regarding selection, which have been mentioned earlier. It would be advisable to decide upon the basis of selection and listing as also the purposes such lists will be aimed at. A general
purpose Business English Vocabulary will be an unwieldy project and not much different from an abridged business dictionary. We would do better by specifying and delimiting our target by classifying the vocabulary under specific purposes and similarly classifying users in terms of their level and need. We can prepare vocabulary list for the new entrants, for the practitioners whose mother tongue is not English but who fulfil their requirements in English. A specialised vocabulary of English for specific purposes representative of English-contact-situations will, however, be essential to all categories of users.

A special vocabulary will serve as an aid to developing skills of reading and understanding initially and to be incorporated with speech and writing at the later stages. Its purpose is to provide the learner with a strategy for reading difficult text in their specific area. Its aim is to show how language is used as medium for the study of business and thus to prepare him for making effective use of vocabulary learnt in his own speech and writing. For purpose of selection an analysis of the English-contact-situation can be attempted as under:

Reading : Textbooks, journals, papers, documents etc.
Listening : Lectures, symposium, conferences etc.
Speaking : Informal discussion, dealing customers discourse etc.

Writing : Reports giving and taking messages, complaints, taking order etc.

In agreement with these objectives a pattern for the selection and listing of English Vocabulary for Catering, Hotel Management and Tourism, is suggested below. For the purpose of convenience each of the above mentioned area has been dealt with separately. The lists drawn can, however, be enlarged keeping in view the learner's requirements at a particular level of use. Selection of entries has been made on the basis of the principle outlined above. The pattern of listing in each area is as given below:

Before we get on to the list of special vocabulary in Catering, Hotel Management and Tourism, it is advisable to have a close look at the lists of special vocabulary drawn by Michael West

As in the case of the Reading Book, a Classified List is also necessary, as a means of knowing what items one has got already for use in an exercise or End Piece—e.g. What names of foods have been taught...5

Selection from the list of Minimum Adequate Vocabulary given by Michael West (1960)

Core Business Vocabulary

FOOD AND COOKING

Bad. To go bad
Bake.
Bell.
Bitter.
Boil.
Bottle.
Bread. Bread and Butter
Breakfast.
Burn.
Butter.
Cake.
Coal.
Coffee.
Cook.
Corn.
Cup.
Dinner.
Eat. Ate
Egg.
Empty.
Fat.
Feed. Fed.
Fish.
Flour.
Food.
Fork.
Fresh.
A glass.
To help.
A helping.
Hungry. Hunger.
Ice
Jug.
Juice.
Kitchen.
Knife.
Loaf.
Lunch.
Market.
Meals.
Meat.
Milk.
Mix.
Nice.
Oil.
Packet.
Plate.
Pot.
Pure.
Ripe.
Salt.
Smoke.
Sour.
Spoon.

BUSINESS
Address
Business
By-Bought
Carriage.
Change (of money)
Cheap.
Clerk.
Complain. Complaint.
Cost.
Dollar.
Expensive.
Goods.
Hire.
How many?
How much?
Keep accounts.
Look after
Loss.
Manage (-r)
Market.
Meeting.
Money.
Notice.
Offer.
Office. Officer.
Ounce.
Own. Owner.
Parcel.
Penny.
Per Cent.
Pound.
Price.
Profit.
Quantity.
Receipt.
Rent.
Sailor.
Seaman.
Sell. Sold.
Servant. Service.
Shilling.
Shop. Shopkeeper.
Spend. Spent.
Store.
Supply.
A Waiter.
Weight.
Worth.

TRAVEL

Accident.
Aeroplane.
Bag. Baggage.
Bell.
Board. On board.
Boat.
Branch
Bridge.
Captain.
Carriage.
Case. Suit Case.
Foreign. Foreigner.
Guide.
Harbour.
Hotel.
Journey.
Language.
Load.
Map.
Passage. Passenger.
Path.
Pavement (Side Walk)
Porter.
Rail. Railway. Railroad
Ride.
River.
Road.
Sea.
Ship.
Show me round.
Sick. To feel —
Station. Station-master.
Steam.
Strange. Stranger.
Ticket.
Tip. A —, To —
Tourist.
Train.
Travel.
Walk.
Way.
Whistle.
World.

ENTERTAINMENTS, SOCIABILITY, VISITING

Bow.
Cards.
Dance.
Dinner.
Gentleman.
The development of teaching vocabulary corresponds to the progress of human society through ages. As the human society evolved specialised organs such as army and clergy, and set up departments of sophisticated activities like medicine, engineering and technology and now commerce and business, an increasing need was felt of having terms
which could convey a fixed sense to the expert, in an unambiguous manner. In ordinary language, we are in many cases free to choose any one word out of a group called synonyms which express the same idea. In professional language it is almost impossible. 6

Catering:

One of the reasons for change stock of English Vocabulary is the influence of foreign language on the English word-stock. The influence of French Language in this area has been enormous.

**Technical Terms**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a la carte</td>
<td>Ordered as separately priced items from the menu.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acetobacter</td>
<td>Bacteria</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aerobic</td>
<td>Alive in the presence of oxygen.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anaerobic</td>
<td>Alive in the absence of oxygen.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alcohol</td>
<td>is an odourless liquid obtained through fermentation of sugar containing liquid.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brioche</td>
<td>small sweet cake made with light yeast dough.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brut.</td>
<td>Lacks sweetness completely.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bentonite</td>
<td>Colloid clay</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Busboy</td>
<td>Assistant to waiter. May pass bread and rolls, pour coffee and assist in clearing tables.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Busbox</td>
<td>Large metal or heavy-duty plastic box used to carry dirty dishes from dining room to kitchen.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chafing Dish</td>
<td>Five-piece unit (stand, heating units, water pan, food pan and cover) for keeping food hot on buffet.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cuvee</td>
<td>Stock of blended wine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cruet set</td>
<td>Sprinkler pots for salt pepper, and mustard.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Course</td>
<td>Food items eaten at a particular time and sequence during a complete meal.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Croissant</td>
<td>Crescent-shaped bread-roll.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Check</td>
<td>Bill of payment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clientele</td>
<td>Customers of patrons.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cutlery</td>
<td>All knives, forks and spoons.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crockery</td>
<td>All plates, cups, saucers and serving dishes made of china glass, procelain or generally earthenware.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Term</td>
<td>Definition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------</td>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commissary</td>
<td>Department supplying equipment and provision. In mobile unit catering, the place where drivers pick up all supplies. Location caterer often refers to base of operations containing kitchen, storerooms, office etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cover</td>
<td>The place on a table taken by the cutlery, glassware and linen for one individual.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decor</td>
<td>Furnishing and decoration of room.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>De Tons</td>
<td>Of the day.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dry</td>
<td>Lacks sweetness.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distillation</td>
<td>The process of capturing and cooling the vapour of a boiling liquid.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Etiquette</td>
<td>Rules of personal behaviour in polite society.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eau-de-vie-de-moire</td>
<td>Distilled juice of marc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fermentation</td>
<td>The action of yeast on any sugar containing liquid.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fortified Wines</td>
<td>Wines strengthened in alcoholic content.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guest</td>
<td>Customer or patron of a restaurant or hotel.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Term</td>
<td>Definition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------</td>
<td>------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hors d'oeuvre</td>
<td>Extra dish served as appetizer before or during a meal.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Isinglass</td>
<td>Bladder of sturgeon fish.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liqueur</td>
<td>Sweetened and flavoured spirit.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lees</td>
<td>Residual wine with dead yeast.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liven</td>
<td>Tablecloths, napkins, dusters, traycloths.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Magnum</td>
<td>Double size wine bottle, usually 52 fluid oz, used mostly for sparkling wines or champagne.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marianate</td>
<td>To soak in a mixture of oil vinegar, salt, pepper, garlic and sliced onions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mis-en-scene</td>
<td>Preparing the restaurant environment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mis-en-place</td>
<td>Meaning literally &quot;Put in Place&quot; but refers to preparation before the service starts.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Muffin</td>
<td>Light, flat, round spongy cake.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mare</td>
<td>Pips, skin and residual fermented wine.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Order Taker</td>
<td>Person located in room service who takes down food and beverage orders when guest places them from their hotel room over the telephone.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Term</td>
<td>Definition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------</td>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-plated</td>
<td>Food served into a guest plate before it is brought before a guest.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Portion</td>
<td>Amount of food allotted to one person.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pate</td>
<td>Paste of meat.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pupitres</td>
<td>Bottle racks that can be tilted around an axis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proof</td>
<td>Alcohol content in a beverage.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residents</td>
<td>Person staying in the hotel.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rose</td>
<td>Pink by the addition of alcohol or spirit.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sou-chef</td>
<td>Assistant chef should be able to carve meat at buffet table.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Still wine</td>
<td>Lacking carbonation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sparkling wines</td>
<td>Wines that contain carbon dioxide.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tip</td>
<td>Small present of money for service rendered.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sautéed</td>
<td>Tossed in a shallow pan.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table d'hote</td>
<td>Meal at fixed time and price for guests at hotel.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vin de goutte</td>
<td>Running wine.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vin de presse</td>
<td>Wine made from residual fermented wine.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yeast</td>
<td>Micro organism used in fermentation.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Glossary of Specific food items

A la King : served in cream sauce made with mushrooms and green pepper.
A la Newburg : served in rich cream sauce made with eggs, cream and wine.
Amandine : With almonds.
Antipasto : (Italian) An appetizer.
Aubergine : (French) Eggplant.
Au Gratin : (French) With grated cheese.
Baklava : (Turkish) Paper thin dough in many layers with chopped nuts between layers soaked in honey.
Bar-le-Duc : (French) With currant Jelly.
Bearnaise : (French) Sauce made with Shallots wine, eggs and butter.
Bigarade : (French) Sauce of roast duck drippings made with orange juice.
Bintzes : Crepes, egg pancakes filled with cheese etc. fried or baked.
Boinllabairsse : (French) Fresh fish chowder made with wine, cream and tomato sauce.
Cafe Espresso : (Italian) Black Coffee served with lemon or cognac.
Canape : (French) Bite-size bits of savory food served on bread, decorated, and served cold.

Chaud-Froid : (French) Sauce for eating food to be decorated for fancy buffet work.

Chicken Cacciatorre: (Italian) Chicken sauteed with onion, peppers and tomatoes.

Chop Suey : (Chinese) Veal, chicken, pork, beef or shrimp sauteed with celery, onions, and bean sprouts.

Chow Mein : (Chinese) Basically the same as chop suey; meat and vegetables served with crisp noodles.

Coq au Vin : (French) Chicken cooked in wine sauce.

Chioppino : (Italian) Shellfish meat cooked in highly seasoned tomato sauce. Fish stew.

Eu Brochette : (French) On skewers, Kabobs.

Escalopes : (French) Thin slices of meat, usually Veal.

Fettucini : (Italian) Narrow egg noodles.

Florentine : With Spinach.

Garbanzos : Chick peas.

Glace : (French) Glazed, usually with a gelatin.
Hasseupfeffer : (German) Rabbit stew in thick sauce.
Hollandaise : Sauce made of butter, eggs, and lemon juice.
Hunter : With browned onions and mushrooms in brown sauce.
Indienne : Any curry dish usually served with rice.
Jardiniere : (French) served with cooked vegetables on the side.
Jeroboam : Double magnum of wine, usually champagne.
Julienne : (French) Cut into thin strips.
Kart offel Kloesse: (German) Potato dumplings.
Lasagne : (Italian) Layers of wide noodles alternating with cheese and meat cooked in a rich tomato sauce, then baked.
Lyonnaise : (French) With onions.
Maitre d'Hotel Sauce : (French) Sauce made of butter, parsley and lemon.
Mousseline : Hollandaise sauce to which whipped cream or beaten egg whites have been added.
Pilaf : Rice sauteed in butter then cooked in meat stock. Might also refer to Oriental stew dishes with meat, vegetables and rice. Any stew-type dish prepared with rice.
**Prosciutto**: Smoky Italian ham, sliced paper thin for an antipasto salad.

**Pullman Loaf**: Loaf of bread, 1 3/4 - 2 lb without domed top. Average 28 (1/2 in) slices or 36 (3/8 in) slices. Cut lengthwise for canapes, averages 6 or 7 slices.

**Quiche Lorraine**: (French) Rich cheese and bacon pie served hot.

**Russe**: (Russian) Served with sour cream.

**Saltimbocco**: (Italian) Veal bits with ham and cheese, sauteed in seasoned butter and wine.

**Sandwich**: Various items of food presented between two slices of bread. The variations are legion.

**Scallopini**: (Italian) Thin slices of veal with mushrooms and seasoning, cooked in butter and sherry.

**Shashlik**: (Russian) Various food items, meat and vegetables, served in brochette; flame is optional.

**Shish-kebob**: (Armenian) Lamb, onions, green peppers and tomatoes broiled on skewers.
Spumoni : (Italian) Ice Cream.
Sukiyaki : (Japanese) Meat sliced paper thin or shrimp with onions, spinach and bean sprouts sauteed quickly on brazier at the table, seasoned with soy sauce.
Tournedos : (French) Fillets of beef wrapped in strips of bacon, grilled.
Velonte : (French) Cream sauce made of chicken or veal stock, thickened with butter and flour.
Veronique : (French) served with grapes.
Vinaigrette : (French) Salad dressing of vinegar oil and spices.
Wiener Schitzed : (German) Breaded veal cutlet served with lemon and anchovy garnish.
Yorkshire Pudding : (English) Popovers made in pan drippings from, and served with, roast beef.
Zabaglione : (Italian) Rich custard made with eggs and wine.

Glossary of technical Terms for Hotel Staff

Architraves : are the mouldings round doors and window.
Bedding: the term used for the articles on a bed and normally includes the launderable linen.

Block Tips: are a share of tips, usually from tours, conferences, etc.

Cantilevered: refers to articles resting on a bracket projecting from a wall.

Ceramics: are articles made from clay, e.g. China.

Checkout: is the American term for a departure in a hotel.

Cleaning Agents or Materials: include abrasives, detergents, solvents, polishes etc.

Cleaning Equipment: includes brooms and brushes, electrical equipment, containers, cleaning cloth etc.

Cutlery: spoons, forks as well as knives.

Departure: is a room from which a guest is expected to leave or has already left.

Ergonomics: is the study of mankind in relation to his working environment.

Furnishings: includes soft furnishings, carpets, and furniture.
General Assistant: is a person who in a small hotel assists generally in any department.

In situ: 'on the spot' or 'on site'

OOO: Out of order.

Ready room: is one which has been serviced and is ready for re-letting.

Refurbish: to give 'new look' to a room.

Re-sheeting: putting out clean towels in a bedroom and making up the beds with clean sheets and slips.

Room State or Occupancy List: The list on which the maid states whether the room is vacant or occupied and, if possible, the number of sleepers in each room, and it is required by the receptionist and control office in a large hotel, at regular times each day.

Soft Furnishings: include curtains, cushions, loose covers, bedspreads and quilts, but not carpets.

Spread-over: The total number of hours over which a duty extends in any one day, e.g. 7 a.m. - 2 p.m. and 6 - 10 p.m. has a spreadover of 15 hours.
Textiles: are woven fabric, e.g. cotton sheeting.

Turning Down: The term applied to the work maids do each evening in guests' bedrooms in hotels.

Uniform: a 'dress' of special material, colour and design, usually provided by the establishment for certain staff.

Vacant room: one previously serviced and not yet occupied.

Vacated room: one from which the guest has left.

Glossary of terms for Tourism

Affinity Group 1: A group bound together by a common interest or affinity. Where charters are concerned, this common bond makes the members eligible for charter flights. One must have been a member of the group for six months or longer. They must travel together, on the departure and return flight, but they can travel independently where ground arrangements are concerned.
| **Airline** | Any air transport enterprise offering or operating a scheduled international air service. |
| **Amenities** | Features which enable a visitor to enjoy various attractions and which drew him to a country and for the use of which he normally has to pay. These refer to recreational and entertainment programmes, cultural and art centres, hotels, restaurants, transport services etc. |
| **Attractions** | Natural or man-made features which collectively or singly create the appeal of a country. |
| **Baggage** | Personal property of passengers or crew carried on an aircraft by agreement with the operator. |
| **Baggage Accompanied** | The baggage carried on the same aircraft as that on which the passenger is carried. |
| **Baggage Un-accompanied** | The baggage not carried on the same aircraft as that on which the passenger is carried. |
Baggage Excess: That part of the baggage which is in excess of the free baggage allowance and for which the passenger has to pay extra freight charges.

Baggage Tag: A document issued by the carrier solely for identification of checked baggage.

Brochure: A pamphlet bound in the form of a booklet.

Camping site: A place providing simple and inexpensive shelter to travellers.

Cargo: Equivalent to the term 'goods', meaning anything carried in an aircraft other than mail or baggage, provided that unaccompanied baggage moving under an airway bill is also cargo.

Cargo Transfer: Cargo arriving at a point by one flight and continuing its journey by another flight of the same or a connecting carrier.

Cargo Transit: Cargo arriving at a point and departing therefrom by the same through flight.

Carrier: A public transportation company such as air or steamship line, railroad, bus etc.
Carriage : Equivalent to the term transportation, meaning carriage of passengers and/or baggage by air.

Carriage Domestic : Carriage in which, the place of departure, the place of destination or stop over and the entire transportation are within one nation or its territories.

Carriage International : Carriage in which, the place of departure and any place of landing are situated in more than one nation.

Charter : The bulk purchase of any carrier's equipment for passenger or freight.

Charter Flight : A flight booked exclusively for the use of a specific group of people who generally belong to the same organisation or who are being 'treated' to the flight by a single host. Charter flights are generally cheaper than regularly scheduled line services.

Conducted Tour : A pre-paid, pre-arranged vacation in which a group of people travel together under the guidance of a tour leader who stays with them from the start to the end of the trip.
Coupons: Documents issued by tour operators in exchange for which travellers receive pre-paid accommodation, meals, sightseeing trips, etc.

Courier: A professional travel escort who accompanies carriers.

Destination: The place at which a traveller terminates his journey.

Destinational Tourist: A tourist who terminates his journey at a particular country for the purpose of making a tour travelling from place to place for pleasure in that country.

Destinational Traffic: Tourists carried by transportation lines and terminating their journey at one particular place.

Disembarkation: The leaving of an aircraft after a landing, except by crew or passengers continuing on the next stage of the same through flight.

Domestic tourist: A local person who makes a tour travelling from place to place for pleasure, business, family, mission, meeting etc. within the country.
Embarkation: The boarding of an aircraft for the purpose of commencing a flight, except by such crew or passengers as have embarked on a previous stage the same through flight.

Escort Tour: A profession tour escort often called Tour Manager or Courier.

Exchange voucher: A document issued by a carrier or its agents requesting issue of an appropriate passenger ticket and baggage check or provision of services to the person named in such document.

Excursionist: A temporary visitor staying less than twenty-four hours in the country visited.

Facilities: Services which enables tourists to enter and move around the country with the maximum of ease and the minimum of obstacles and to secure maximum enjoyment of their visit.

Ground Arrangements: All services provided for the traveller by his tour operator after the traveller reaches his first foreign destination.
Group Inclusive Tour : A tour which includes group air
ground arrangements for a minimum of
15 persons.

Guaranteed Tour : A tour which is guaranteed to operate
unless cancelled 60 days prior to
departure.

Guide : A person who is licenced to take
paying guests on local sightseeing
excursions.

Guided Tour : A tour conducted only by local city
guides.

Hotelier : A person, firm/ or corporation which
provides hotel accomodation and/ or
meals, refreshments etc, to visitors.

Inclusive Tour : A tour which includes all elements of
an itinerary, making for anything
except personal extras during the
course of the tour.

Itinerary : Pertaining to a journey. A tourist
itinerary is a composition of a series
of operations that are a result of the
study of the market.

Joint Agent : A person having authority to transact
business for two or more transportation lines.
Land Arrangement: Also referred to as Ground Arrangements.

Mass Tourism: Large scale movement of travellers and the development of a standardized product.

Motel: A place which provides way side amenities for tourists travelling by road, by automobiles. It provides under one roof all usual facilities expected by the tourists including attached bath.

Optional: In travel literature the word means that the traveller has a choice of taking or not taking the service mentioned.

Package: A travel plan which includes most elements of a vacation, such as transportation, accommodations and sight seeing.

Passenger, Transfer: A passenger arriving on one flight and continuing his journey on another.

Passenger Transit: A passenger continuing his journey on the same through flight.

Passport: A document issued by national governments to their own citizens as verification of their citizenship.

Pansion: A French word, widely used throughout Europe, meaning guest house or boarding house.
Resort : A spot which is frequented by tourists.
Rest House : Semi-hotel establishments situated in out-of-the-way places.
Stop over : A point, between origin and destination of an itinerary at which passenger remains for a period of time.
Suggested Itinerary : A preliminary itinerary provided by tour operators for the traveller's consideration.
Tariffs : The published fares, rates, charges and or related conditions of carriage of a carrier.
Tourism : The practice of touring or travelling for pleasure or recreation and the guidance or management of tourists as a business.
Tourist : A temporary visitor staying at least twenty-four hours in the country visited and the purpose of journey may be leisure or business.
Tourist Centre : A village or town with a definite concentration of tourist resources, material base and infrastructure of tourism development.
Tourist Charter: A flight booked exclusively for the use of a specific group of tourists who generally belong to the same organization.

Tourist Flow: Undisturbed and even movement of tourists from one country to another for the purpose of travelling for pleasure.

Tourist Object: Any object from a natural, socio-economic or cultural-historical viewpoint which has some specific attractions for the tourists.

Tourist visa: A document issued under the authority of the Government to a person visiting a particular country as a tourist.

Transit Traffic: Tourists carried by transportation lines and passing through a country en route to some other destination.

Transit visitor: A visitor who is passing over or through a country en route to some other destination.

Travel Agent: A person, firm or corporation qualified to provide tours, cruises, transportation hotel accommodation, meals, sight seeing and all other elements of travel to the public as a service.
Travel Kit : A sort of container which contains accessories or tools.

Visa : An endorsement on the passport issued by the representative of a Government.

Visa, Tourist : An endorsement on passport issued to a person who wishes to visit a country as tourist.

Visa, Transit : An endorsement on passport which is issued to a tourist whose destination is somewhere else and is passing across.

Vouchers : Also referred to as coupons.

Whole Saler : A travel oriented organisation that creates and presents ready-made travel package or tailor-made travel programmes exclusively at the request of a travel retailer.

Youth Hostel : A building which offers clear, simple and inexpensive shelter to young people exploring their own country or the world, travelling independently or in groups for holiday or educational purposes.
# STANDARD ABBREVIATIONS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A.I.</td>
<td>Air India</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B.I.T.</td>
<td>Bulk Inclusive Tour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D.I.T.</td>
<td>Domestic Independent Tour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D.O.T.</td>
<td>Department of Tourism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E.T.C.</td>
<td>European Travel Commission</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E.T.C.</td>
<td>Euro-Traveller's Cheque</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E.T.C.I.</td>
<td>Euro-Traveller's Cheque International</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F.H.R.A.I.</td>
<td>Federation of Hotel and Restaurant Association of India</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F.I.T.</td>
<td>Foreign Individual Tour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G.I.T.</td>
<td>Group Inclusive Tour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I.A.</td>
<td>Indian Airlines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I.A.T.A.</td>
<td>International Airport Authority of India</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I.C.A.D.</td>
<td>International Civil Aviation Organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I.F.T.O.</td>
<td>International Federation of Tour Operators</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I.H.A.</td>
<td>International Hotel Association</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I.T.A.</td>
<td>International Touring Alliance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I.T.</td>
<td>Inclusive Tour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I.T.C.</td>
<td>Inclusive Tour Charter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I.T.D.C.</td>
<td>India Tourism Development Corporation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N.T.B.</td>
<td>National Tourism Board</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N.T.O.</td>
<td>National Tourism Organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P.A.T.A.</td>
<td>Pacific Area Travel Association</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abbreviation</td>
<td>Full Form</td>
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<td>--------------</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>R.T.A.C.</td>
<td>Regional Tourist Advisory Committee.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R.T.O.</td>
<td>Regional Tourist Office.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S.S.T.</td>
<td>Supersonic Transport.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S.T.D.C.</td>
<td>State Tourism Development Corporation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T.A.</td>
<td>Travel Agent.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T.A.A.I.</td>
<td>Travel Agents Association of India.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U.F.T.A.A.</td>
<td>Universal Federation of Travel Agents Association.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>W.A.T.A.</td>
<td>World Association of Travel Agents.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>W.T.O.</td>
<td>World Tourism Organisation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Y.H.A.I.</td>
<td>Youth Hostel Association of India.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER VII

CONCLUSION
Throughout this piece of work I have been seeking to investigate the issues that are raised by the idea of ESP. This idea provokes questions of fundamental and theoretical kind about the definitions, aims, applications, course design/ methodology and the teaching of vocabulary for special purposes. To turn back to these major issues in an inferential summing up we need to highlight the tussle going on between General Purpose English (G.P.E.) and English for Specific Purposes (E.S.P.)

In ESP we are dealing with students for whom the learning of English is auxiliary to some other primary professional or academic purpose. It is clearly a means for achieving something else and is not an end in itself; and that something else has been independently formulated as a set of aims, and any course of instruction designed with these in mind will have established its own appropriate objectives accordingly. This being so, ESP (or ought logically to be) integrally linked with areas of activity (academic, vocational, professional) which have already been defined and which represent the learner's aspirations. The learning of ESP is in consequence an essentially dependent activity, a parasitic process and it follows that the pedagogy of ESP must be
dependent too. It has no purpose of its own; it exists only to service those that have been specified elsewhere.

It is this inherently dependent nature of ESP that distinguishes it from general purpose English (GPE). GPE has somehow to create the conditions for its own existence as a school subject; it has to make provision for learners who have no particular aim in view beyond the end of the course. This means that its objectives have to be independently formulated and the necessary purposeful activity is in consequence more difficult to achieve. Whereas in ESP, which has no separate subject status, it is a matter of exploiting the opportunity afforded by already existing purposes, in general purpose English it is a matter of creating purposes out of nothing by pedagogic invention.

The evolution of ESP has resulted out of the seething pressures of social, economic and professional needs, less generalised in nature and more related to learner's needs and purposes in education, vocation, business and society. ESP courses are suitable both for the native and foreign learner. In ESP teaching one has to be selective as s/he will have to choose the relevant
language activities considering the need and purpose of the learner.

The growth of ESP has been so rapid that many critics have started suspecting its credibility. In its march ahead ESP has come to be identified with several distinct approaches and methodologies. Theoretically it has been seen to emerge out of the concept of language variety known as 'register'. It is felt that registral framework is not very useful for ESP course design. With the help of sociolinguistic research and developments in related fields, ESP has broken the shackles of registral approach and has now embraced notional, functional and communicative ideas. Practitioners of notional/functional ideas claimed that structure should not be taught, something rather less tangible, usually 'functions' should be taught. We have argued that Grammar is a means through which linguistic creativity is achieved and an in adequate knowledge of the Grammatical system would lead to serious limitation on the capacity for communication.

The basic aim of ESP is to enable the learner to create and construct utterances both spoken and written which have desired professional, academic or educational
value or purpose. This brings us to a crucial point in language teaching where one has to decide what information is to be conveyed or what communicative act is to be performed, by selecting a syntactically, lexically and phonologically appropriate form and uttering it spontaneously and fluently. This leads us to syllabus design and methodology. The important point is that the course content should be such as to engage the students' interest, otherwise the students will not be motivated and will not authenticate the language presented as meaningful use by the application of procedures for making sense. The working of these procedures is the basic business of methodology, whose central concern is to stimulate problem solving activities of the kind which are congruent with the students' specialist preoccupations and for which language is needed as a contingency. Thus methodology should be placed at the very heart of the operation with course design directed at servicing its requirements and not the reverse. The exercises and various figures showing syllabus design process and material design process entails that course designers and planners should keep abreast with such trends. In no way these exercises and design processes and methodology stand as any claim or are in any sense definitive, but
the designers and planners should take into account the needs of the students and the nature of the abilities which must be developed to meet them and last but not the least related to theoretical considerations within the context. It has been pointed out that language teachers armed with teaching aids like Television English backed by Video and Computer technology could make teaching highly effective.

Vocabulary has always been an important aspect in the language teaching curricula but it has suffered because of the status of grammar. It has been argued that lexis is as important as grammar in the process of communicating meaningfully. When it comes to ESP, vocabulary is the nucleus of teaching English for Special subject areas and topics, leading to varied purposes. It goes without saying that each subject has its own vocabulary, both general and special. Specialist vocabularies are made up of technical terms which live within the subject. Generally it is the technical or special vocabulary which poses a serious threat to learners and teachers. The real aim behind the teaching of language is to develop the ability of the learners to perform the communicative task, be it in speech or writing.
A sound study of vocabulary helps the teacher to break open the shells of complexity and triggers the communicative skills to work like a well-oiled machine.

A productive model of teaching and learning vocabulary has been proposed in this study. The model maintains a perfect link between theory and classroom needs. It provides ways and means by which word formation and word analysis leads to the development of vocabulary. There has been a serious lacunae attached to the learning of vocabulary as it is most of the time memorized and then forgotten. The model negates the role of rote learning and offers opportunity for pleasurable practice. The other thing that the model keeps in mind is the motivation which is all the time kept on the run. This enables the learners to appreciate and discover successfully the subject he chose himself. Simplification is always a characteristic of good teaching and it also enhances the learners acquisition power. Self-directed learning is another alternative. Vocabulary cannot be taught in vacuum because it is not possible to understand words outside some other kind of contexts. Teaching of lexis from the text books in which the use of word is
contextualised would be highly effective. The invasion of technology in all the discipline has been so tremendous that it has crept into the domain of English Language Teaching. Audio-Visual aids and realia with the help of Television and Video could be highly fruitful in showing the meaning.

In this piece of work, we have made an attempt to analyse and present specialist vocabulary of Catering, Hotel Management and Tourism, which is accepted terminology of the discipline. It has been felt that the core business vocabulary does not provide my sort of serious obstacle in the special area. It is the terminology which stands as a stumbling block for the learners. A close study of technical term and its listing has been taken up from different aspects of its use and presented in the form that it may give ample room for the learner to enlarge his/her vocabulary as per requirement. The lists are not exhaustive but included to serve as illustration.

The teaching of the specialized vocabulary could be planned on the strategy of the productive model as proposed in this work to bring about a dramatic result.
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