

Kun Anroah Muhrofi - Gunan

ESP

MATERIALS DEVELOPMENT:

Theory and Practice



Peneliti Program Pascasarjana
Universitas Brawijaya Malang

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Kun Aniroh Muhrofi- Gunadi

Preface

ESP Materials Development: Theory and Practice partly reflects the concern with the fact that shift of teaching English from General English to specific English will be needed in the near forthcoming years. This is because English teaching has been started since elementary schools. This phenomenon has to be anticipated by the English teachers in the sense that when the students have acquired the language, the English teachers have to concentrate on the teaching not only in the language but more on the specific subject or content. One of the ways to anticipate this phenomena is by functioning. English teachers as a course developer by writing the materials for their students. This can be carried out by themselves or in cooperation with other subject specialists.

The book consists of the theory, principles and practices of ESP where the readers can get the clear idea of General English, ESP, EAP and EOP, the principles of instructional materials and how to get the data, evaluate the data and also to make an analysis on the data. These topics are distributed into five chapters which consist of the theory of English for Specific Purpose; The Practice of ESP in Materials Development; Materials Development in Relation with CLT, Competency Standards of Hotel, and CTL; Methods of Development of Instructional Materials; Procedures and Validation.

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CHAPTER I

The Theory of English for Specific Purposes

A. Introduction

Chapter I provides both conceptual and empirical perspectives that provide the bases for the writing of topics on English for specific purposes (henceforth ESP). Literature review in this section is completed to address several important issues related with materials development.

The literature review will encompass those topics linked with, first, English for Specific Purposes in the sense as forwarded by Hutchinson and Waters (1987) and Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998). ESP is considered relevant for discussion as the teaching of English to cater for students' need of functional skills of English in hotel-related dealing necessitates a strong understanding of principles of English instruction as implemented in a highly particular context rather, than those principles of general English instruction. The knowledge derived from understanding the principles and practices in ESP will serve for the researcher as a thoughtful and useful basis for further methodological processes required in the current study.

Next, the topic of discussion presented in this chapter also deals with functions and notions in English. The use of English in a highly special setting (Widdowson, 1979:8; Widdowson, 1983) requires actively the operation of restricted language functions and notions (Mackay and Mountford, 1978:5), which follows that verbal communication can advance in so efficient and effective a manner that meaning negotiation can be mutually compromised well, which in terms of learning, prospectively enhances acquisition (Long, 1985). As such, it is considered relevant to review what language functions and notions are commonly used in special setting of language use.

In addition to this, communicativeness in the realm of English language teaching has become a landmark that every conduct related with teaching English in the classroom needs to consider. Cur-

rent English classroom practices are desirably those envisioned by the idea of equipping the learners to become English users communicatively. It is therefore all efforts, including the provision of instructional materials, are geared to the implementation of communication-based practices. A review on the concept of communicative competence and its classroom practices seems to be relevant.

Besides, it is also deemed necessary to review issues related with measures of English competencies as recognized in the international circles of hotel industries. In the globalization of people's mobility to travel from one place to another as tourists, English recognized widely as a means of global communication (Parkir, 2000:14-31) has been considered the most established medium of communication (Wongsothorn, 2000:327). The International Hotel Association considered it crucial to establish a code of English competences for all those working in the hotel industries to envision them as an international benchmark to put into account (*Joint Australia Indonesia Competency Standards for Hospitality Industry, 1999*). This standard as its name suggests has international coverage. This implies that standard functions as a point of reference that sets up a kind of accepted quality assurance for anyone working in the hotel Industries to observe in providing hotel-related services through English. Therefore, the review will touch on what the international standards of English are and how far and how the outcome of the current study is in approaching the standards.

Finally, the review will be directed to principles and practices of instructional material development. The current study aims as its ultimate goal at producing a set of instructional materials in the form of a textbook of English. Ellington (1985:28-33) outlines conceptual stages that lead to the decision for producing instructional materials. This implies a necessary need to view what and how principles and practices of instructional material development in general can be practically picked up as the theoretical and practical bases for the purpose of developing the textbook of English as the outcome of this current study.

The following section provides the discussion of each of these five main topics. The topics and their order of the presentation of the topics are set up as follows: ESP: concepts, principles and practices, functions and notions in English, instructional material development and International Competency Standards of English in Hotel Industries.

B. ESP: Concepts, Principles, Types and Practices

ESP is not a new trend in the sphere of English teaching practices. Candlin (1978:vi) and McDonough (1984:1) document that the 1960s can be regarded as the momentous onset for the development of ESP where converging forces in these periods come coincidentally together (Hutchinson and Water, 1987:6) to begin to shape up the now-so-called ESP. To review the development of ESP, it seems fitting to make an analogy with an economy principle. In economics, there has been commonly believed to subsist a working principle of a supply-demand equilibrium. A compelling demand incites the delivery of supplies; sufficiency in supplies holds back demanding forces. Speaking historically, this principle seems to have been applicable to conditions depicting one of the factors that contribute to the emergence of ESP - English for Specific Purposes. Hutchinson and Water (1987:6-8, cf. Candlin, 1978:vi-vii) note three important forces as contributory factors in ESP. First, there is international-scale spreading out of scientific, technical and economic movements (Bhatia, 1986:10), including 'the growth of business and increased occupational mobility' (Kennedy and Bolitho, 1984:1) in which English manage to meet the inevitable demand for a medium of international communication. The other factor is a shift in language studies from a tradition of defining and describing rules of language onto a practice of finding out how language is actually and naturally used in real communication. Studies carried out under this scheme reveal 'varieties' of language along the line with differing social contexts, thus there being, for example, medical English or English of banking. Finally, there comes up in the teaching practices awareness emanating from educational psychology regarding the need to emphasise on the learners' learning welfare. Learners come to learn English with their differing needs and interests, which educationally needs to be attended to (Munby, 1978; Robinson, 1980:10).

Up to the present moment, where ESP has enjoyed almost three decades of its existence, the awareness of the fact that context-dependent English exists and differences in the students' needs and interests in learning English are indisputable has become dominant guiding features in ESP practices (Hutchinson and Water, 1987.8; cf. Brinton, Snow, and Wesche, 2005:vii, 3-7).

The emergence of ESP as a new movement since its birth has invoked a vast spectrum of responses in English instruction (McDonough, 1984:1), be they at the conceptual level (for example, several academic works in Master, 1998; those in Swales, 1998: and those in Peterson, 1986) and at the practical level (for example, MacLean's *English in Basic Medical Science*, 1975, Webber and Seath's *Elementary Technical English*, 1984; and, White's and Drake's *Business Initiatives*, 1989). As a consequence, there are many conceptualizations concerning ESP (cf. Widdowson, 1983), and models of design of instruction based on ESP (Peterson, 1986), which may contrast each other, and thus potentially leading to confusions among teachers as practitioners in the classroom. To gain a clear picture of the current state of affair of ESP, therefore, it is necessary to review concepts, principles and practices in ESP

C. Concepts of English for Specific Purpose

On the conceptual level, the surfacing of ESP onto the community of English Language Teaching (ELT) profession in 1960s (Master, 1985:17) is not automatically appreciated with warm welcome by all those already there in the community. As a new comer to the ELT circles, the promising popularity in attracting more attention among practitioners and educational experts alike contributes to ESP's rapid development. At the same time new terminologies, such as needs analysis, alien to the mainstream ELT utilized. To some (Widdowson, 1983, for instance), this gives the impression that ESP is a new movement separate from mainstream ELT (McDonough, 1984:1).

Master (1985:17) sees that ESP comes up in response to an increasing need of medium of international communication in almost walks of life in which English as then a *lingua franca* manages to meet the demanding situations. Thus, the concept of ESP starts of from a '... recognition of the need for relevance in English language teaching.' Hutchinson and Waters (1986:1) see it rather differently. The emergence of ESP is due to escalating learning needs other than those of grammar and literature in the already existing ELT practices. They use an analogy that the established situation in 'the City of ELT', of which teaching orientation is conventionally devoted to the teaching of grammar and literature, begins to dramatically change along with the incoming ESP. The already existing ELT, it is argued,

can no more support the new emerging learning needs which begin to get bigger in size. Unable to find a fitting place in the city, the new movement finds another new city called an ESP city as a consequence (Hutchinson and Waters, 1986:1).

McDonough (1984:1) argues that ESP is not a separate development within ELT, nor does it inhibit a new city. It is designated obviously from the instructional bits and pieces in ESP that several ideas from sociolinguistics and linguistics (Master, 1985:17) contribute to shaping the ever developing ESP. However, its two-way incongruous background disciplines on which ESP stands: applied linguistics and educational psychology (McDonough, 1984:2; Hutchinson and Waters, 1986:8) represent a potential source of suspicion that ESP is a separatist. In the ELT tradition, the introduction of linguistic instructional stuff dominates the business of instructional design and teaching practices. A shift from such an ELT tradition to the analytical recognition of the students' learning needs is presumed to characterize the separation of ESP from ELT circles (Master, 1985:18) although it is also recognized long before the emergence of ESP that the success of an ELT course program by design is dependent upon the identification of the aim(s) of the learners. The danger happens, however, when learners' needs analysis is understood in a very rigid meaning which comprises a decisive feature in a course design, thus overruling other considerations (Widdowson, 1983:14).

Another important issue which comes over with the ESP emergence in the world of English Language Teaching (ELT) is a controversy over the differing of conceptualization whether ESP dictates dependency of methodological matters for classroom practices on ESP, or ESP is an approach to teaching English (Swales, 1988:viii), independent of a particular kind of language, teaching material, or methodology (Dudley-Evans and St.John, 1998:2). In spite of the argument, in Swales' words (1988:viii), both view actually acknowledge the important function of methodology. However, both view differ markedly in how methodology should characterize the overall business of teaching processes.

The former view is strongly advocated by Widdowson (1983:108-109) who argues that the method of ESP should not be separated from the learning activities themselves for there is a need to integrally bring together within the framework of ESP specific

areas of activity already identified and those corresponding to learners need. Thus, as Charles puts it to say, the teaching and learning of English in business, for example, necessarily reflects the business contexts where meetings and negotiations normally would take place; in the same way, as Widdowson believes, English learners of EAP, no matter what subject matters they affiliate, need to exercise problem solving methodology (Dudle-Evans and St Johns, 1998:4). Methodology is placed in the exact core of ESP methodological operation (Widdowson, 1983:107). With this regards in mind, ESP is seen as training development of restricted competence in terms of specifying objectives which is considered equivalent to its aims (Widdowson (1983:7) while, it is argued, objectives and aims differ considerably in their operation: objectives work at the training level; aims at the education level.

The latter, on the other hand, is a claim made by Hutchinson and Waters (1986). This new movement upholds the view that ESP must be seen as an approach not a product. ESP is not a particular kind of language or methodology, nor does it consist of a particular type of teaching material. It is an approach to language learning, which is based on learners' need. Methodology is independent of approach to language learning.

In terms of English, viewed from their outlook, Hutchinson and Waters (1986) seems right because the discussion on the English for Specific Purposes (ESP) commonly touches on the discussion of General English. This seems to be inevitable since historically General English has characterized the teaching of English long before the emergence of the influence of sociolinguistics perspectives on General English teaching practices (Master, 1985:17), which leads to the emanation of English for Specific Purposes (cf. Hajjaj 1986) although according to Brumfit (1979), the newness of ESP just lies on the focus of emphasizing the student-centredness.

However, the implication on sustaining exclusively the incompatible concepts of ESP as asserted by either Widdowson (1983) or Hutchinson and Waters (1986) is sizeable in the face of the working levels where, for example, instructional design or material development is necessarily to be put into operational practice. The adherence to the former view potentially results in unnecessary complication in finding out the right choice of exclusive teaching methodology which seems to call for mostly painstaking efforts and to be

strenuously beyond reach for practical purposes let alone on the parts of the teachers. On the other hand, commitment to maintaining the latter belief is, as Swales (1988:vii) sees it to believe, prone to sterile teaching practices hazardous in equipping students with insufficient knowledge and skills necessary for their extensive real life roles.

Emphasizing offensively the contrast of viewpoint concerning ESP as described previously can be contra-productive if the orientation is put forward for practical pragmatism in the classroom. First, not only does the controversy touch on the level of highly academic arguments, but it also tends to shade the real need of classroom practices. Next, classroom practices commonly do not bother too much with theoretical controversies such as the one just illustrated. They just normally carry on what compels to teach although they make mistakes in their undertaking. Candlin (1991:xi) vibrantly characterizes the situation as an unhealthy environment in the teaching profession, in that 'language teaching ... has suffered particularly from these recipes [*of conceptual theorizing*] for ills.' (Note: [*of conceptual theorizing*] added).

Therefore, a compromise is conceivably the paramount solution for the sake of classroom needs. It is an undeniable belief that instruction needs a particular kind of language, teaching material, or methodology and at the same time it also calls for a certain perspective to advance. What is likely more important is to ascertain the state whether English learning in the classroom takes place on the part of the students. Recognition of both for solicitous pragmatism in the classroom seems to be more importantly fruitful than argue how conceptually to place them in the world of teaching practices in real classroom contexts. For example, it would be prolific to recognize and adopt a view that there is a need to reflect the methodology of the professions and disciplines that ESP can serve. Also, the nature of interaction between the ESP teacher and learners, recognized as methodology, can be different from that in English for General Purposes (EGP) classes (Dudley-Evans and St Johns, 1998:4). Eclecticism, as it may be called, clearly echoes Nunan (1991) when he says:

An important task confronting ... teachers concerned with second and foreign language learning is to overcome the pendulum effect in language teaching, (... which....) is most evi-

dent in the area of methodology where fads and fashions, like theories of grammar, come and go with monotonous regularity. The way to overcome the pendulum effect is to derive appropriate classroom practices from empirical evidence on the nature of language learning and use and from insight into what makes learners tick (Nunan, 1991:1)

Thus, to take a stand to keep up selective measures of concepts becomes apparently necessary at this stage. This then is followed up with taking a real action albeit potentially resulting in yet unfruitful outputs. This is true with the current study. There is no attempt to strictly adhere to differing conceptualizations on ESP as aforementioned. Thus, there is no place in the current study to question how to place a methodology nor is there a place to doubt the significance of taking a viewpoint approach. However, it should be acclaimed from the outset that attachments to both views are limited down to ideas obtainable and workable from both, or possibly others in order to be put into practice. In other words, there is a dynamic need to experientially venture with the existing concepts and take the lessons learned. Johns (1998:9) states that ‘... despite the obstacles..., we must continue our efforts to make our classes as specific to student purposes and approaches to learning as possible.’ This study then makes good use of potential ideas of the existing concepts on ESP, be they from Widdowson's or Hutchinson's and Waters', or possibly others' where relevant.

As a concluding remark for this section, however, it is necessary to raise several important points resulting from the discussion abovementioned, two of which are worth pointing out. First, the idea that ESP is an approach independent of a particular kind of language, teaching material, or methodology encourages the exploratory surfacing of an important field of language instruction to date. This is the so-called Language for Specific Purposes (LSP for short) or Language for Special Purposes (Robinson, 1980:5)¹ which according to Widdowson (1983:1) has also gained a significant ground of popularity in the spheres of language teaching prior to the establishment of ESP claimed as an approach to language instruction. Principles of both, essentially however, share common grounds. This

¹ the terms 'special' is thought to suggest special languages i.e. restricted languages
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LSP likely is fitting with and considers the lion's share of the view initiated by Hutchinson and Waters (1986), in which ESP is viewed as an approach to language teaching, independent of a particular kind of language, teaching material, or methodology (Dudley-Evans and St.John, 1998:2). Thus, if this is correct, then the commonly-known ESP, in order to cater for a wider spectrum of practices in language instruction in general, should be understood as LSP. Second, intensive exploratory works in the interest of the importance of teaching contents through language also pave their own way to the presumably-new enterprise of refinement of the so-called content-based instruction as outlined by, for example, Brinton, Snow and Wesche (1989) in their content-based second language instruction

a. Principles of English for Specific Purpose (ESP)

Discussions on principles of ESP are seemingly inevitable from not referring to underlying concepts under which ESP is philosophically theorized. As abovementioned, the underlying principle on which to base the current study is eclecticism in the sense that the study selectively adopts the ideas best suited to developing the instructional materials as the ultimate output of the current study. With this in mind, accordingly, the discussion on principles in ESP is also performed on the basis of the principle. To start with, a perspective desirably needs establishing: ESP is a systematic approach to English instruction that needs to consider methodological practices in line with the purpose established on the basis of learners' needs and the learners' disciplines as well as professions thus recognized.

At the conceptual level, as its name suggests one prevalent and outstanding principle ESP holds is specificity of purpose. Care, however, must be exercised in this matter. The general principle of language teaching dictates a need to put language ability analysis into effect. This principle, as Widdowson (1983:15) puts it to state, has long been recognized in the practice of language teaching business as early as 1921 when Palmer maintains the importance of recognizing the learners' aim, which is also later preserved in a statement made by Morris in 1954. In this perspective, specificity of aims is associated with the need to analyse language abilities as required to perform successfully in a particular context, within which context can be interpreted to mean professions or disciplines. Thus, con-

text of language use is conceptually the overall gamut as the basis of analytically specifying the learners' aim.

Later development of ESP, however, begins to demonstrate a shift in giving the meaning of specificity of purpose. As Widdowson (1983:15) further puts it to date aforementioned, to some specificity is more narrowly interpreted to mean learners' learning needs. This latter view, in Widdowson's viewpoint, designates an analysis beyond the tradition of principles of language teaching in general. This new emerging view, however, soon gains ground and is further maintained as an important set of guidelines for those wishing engaged in ESP business. For instance. To Munby (1974), rather than on the teacher or the institution, supreme orientation in ESP teaching needs to be placed on the learner-centeredness. Strevens (1980) prioritizes specificity viewed from learners' learning needs as the first point to ponder in designing an ESP course. Robinson (1980:10) also argues that learners' learning needs are the key element in any ESP course. A similar view is also attributed to by Dudley-Evans and St.John (1998:4) when they strongly characterize ESP.

Conceptually, learner-centeredness issues appear plausibly amenable. In practice, however, operational constraints may acutely pose if critical cautions are not put into effect. As such, the latter view of specificity of purpose in terms of learners' learning needs calls for further comments. When the concept of individual learners' learning needs is projected onto the scheme of individualized and autonomy of language learning as is defined by Allwright, (1988:35-44), specificity in learners' need can be educationally fruitful. It is potentially fruitful as in the scheme the learners' needs constitute an important attention as a learning focus (Brookes and Grundy. 1988:1-11). In such autonomous learning circumstances, learners can identify learning sources that fit their needs provided purposefully to cater for learning needs. Even, to Robinson (1980:10) in such a learner-focused instruction context, 'the learner and the teacher should be constantly aware of these purposes and not introduce irrelevant material into the course.' In the traditional English instruction setting (Allwright,1988:35-44), however, where learners are inculcated with equal treatments of instructional materials as though they were of homogeneous needs while they inspire needs differently, operational constraints may rise in the teaching and learning process as it normally happens in a whole-class teaching prac-

tices. The rigidity in interpreting the concept of individual learners' needs can be a source of confusions on the parts of teaching practices. In the context of a large class sizing up to, say for instance, 20 or 40 learners in a one-time session as it commonly takes place in Indonesia, it is persistently unmanageable to cater for learners' differing aspirations should these be met. Thus, it seems safe to interpret individual learners' learning needs in terms of groups of learners having relatively similar learning goals. If this thinking readily can lay a common ground, then, the concept of learners' learning needs is best understood in terms of Morris (1954), Palmer (1921), and Widdowson (1983). in that there is of vast consequence to interpret individual learners' needs as a scheme referring to particular contexts of learning, including learners' disciplines or professions.

At a more practical level, however, ESP shares several features of operational classroom interest. Strevens (1980:108-109), for instance, establishes a set of guiding definition that ESP is the English teaching characterized by the following points, being, first, devised to meet the learner's particular needs; second, related in themes and topics to designated occupations or areas of study; third, selective (i.e. 'not general') as to language content; finally, restricted as to the language 'skills' included when indicated.

The definition maintains the importance of recognition of learners' needs over other facets such as discipline- or profession-based themes/topics, selective content, and restriction on language-related aspects. The definition mentions no signal on the involvement of methodology. This definition essentially confirms the kind of ESP that is against the one envisioned by Widdowson (1983) as previously discussed. Though not comprehensive in terms of the scope for teaching purposes (cf. Dubin and Olstain, 1986:6), in terms of practical purposes, however, the definition clearly puts several components in teaching under the sub ordination of the component 'the learners' need'. For instance, the definition provides a general direction as to how other an ESP syllabus is developed based on the recognition of learners' needs (Munby, 1978:2). Recognition of needs of prospective learners makes it possible for syllabus developers to explore the characteristics of target audience's need. This then facilitates other subsequent processes such as themes/topics selection to be included in the syllabus under interest. At the same time, selection of language contents and skills to be taught becomes spe-

cific, be they structural, situational, functional, notional, thematic, or lexical (cf. Dubin and Olstain, 1986:106). Such an approach, claims Stevrens (1988), is beneficial in some respects: the approach saves time, is relevant to the learner, successful in imparting learning, more cost-effective than General English (Dudley-Evans and St.John, 1998.9)

Close to Steven's definition, another set of ESP definition is forwarded by Dudley-Evan and St.John (1998), who establishes two main characteristics of ESP: absolute characteristics and variable characteristics. As its term implies, absolute characteristics set up the utmost standard within which all types of ESP presupposes the features required therein; whereas variable characteristics imply conformity for some particular or restricted types of ESP. Absolute features of ESP in this regard include the following (Dudley-Evan and St.John, 1998:4-5): first, 'ESP is designed to meet the specific needs of learners; second, ESP makes use of the underlying methodology and activities of the disciplines it serves; finally, ESP is centered on the language (grammar, lexis, register), skills, discourse, and genres appropriate to these activities.'

On variable characteristics, Dudley-Evan and St.John, (1998:5) define the following points: first, 'ESP may be related to or designed for specific disciplines; next, ESP may use, in specific teaching situations, a different methodology from that of general English; also, ESP is likely designed for adult learners, either at a tertiary level institution or in a professional work situation. It could, however, be used for learners at secondary school level; finally, ESP is generally designed for intermediate or advanced students.'

A closer look at the ESP principles reveals that the absolute features of ESP as characterized by Dudley-Evan and St.John (1998) abovementioned represent ideas compromising those by Widdowson (1983) particularly with reference to the notion of a need to the utilization of discipline and/or profession-based teaching methodology. At the same time, nevertheless, the features also remain to echo the strongest claim of a 'new era' ESP, in that learners' learning needs are of utmost importance. In addition, the features embody attention necessarily paid to the instructional contents reflecting linguistic perspectives, implying an involvement of language as a means for communication. Further examination to these features obviously reveals that the unconditional principles of ESP seem

to rest on three-pronged pillars: learners' needs, appropriate methodology and language-related aspects. Thus, in this viewpoint any ESP course is reasonably those investing these three main beliefs at the bare minimum in its business.

The further four principles of ESP are adjustable to conditions. First, orientation to specific disciplines (and professions alike) implies correspondingly an emphasis on contents or subject matters as the message to be conveyed. This resounds a need to explore how content-based instructions (Brinton, Snow and Wesche, 1989) as well as task-based language teaching (Beglar and Hunt, 2002:96-105) might be performed for meaningful classroom practices. Of concern is its appropriate placement under an instructional principle of languages across the curriculum (Grenfell, 2002:1). The possible use of teaching methodology different from that of general English sets up another point of adjustability in the principles of ESP. Methodology perceived as 'classroom tasks and activities and the management of learning' (Nunan, 1991:2) can mean a vehicle for learners that facilitates the delivery of instructional messages to intended goals (cf. Richards and Rogers, 1986). Variability in using classroom tasks and activities as well as learning management is justifiable regarding several factors (see, for example, Nunan, 1991; Brown, 2001, and Richards and Renandya, 2002). Thus, the implementational selection of these methodological parameters may vary in practice along the line with factors such as learners' language learning strategies, language skills and components taught, and syllabus designs, including 'types' of English. Next, ESP is linked with both adult learners and/or possibly advanced students. This principle is possibly best perceived in the context of target needs as conceptualized by Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 55-56). When target needs are meant to include necessities, lacks, and wants, these constructs are normally attributable to adults and, it is argued, not necessarily advanced learners though. Young learners, it is questionable, may not yet possess these adults' facets as their world is the world still characterized with attempts to understand their surrounding and finding self (Rixon, 1991:33). Therefore, the last two principles are basically expected to be naturally so. And, thus for instance, English for young learners by definition is beyond the community of ESP (cf. Mackay and Mountford, 1978.2-3).

Another view regarding the features of ESP is proposed by Hutchinson and Waters (1986). To emphasize this illustration there are some points that should be understood what ESP is not. Some points that ESP is not are the following. In the first place, ESP is not a matter of teaching 'specialised varieties' of English. The fact that language is used for specific purposes does not imply that it is a special form of the language, different kinds of other forms. Besides, ESP is not a matter of science words and grammar for scientists, hotel words and grammar for hotel staff etc, but ... is what the people actually do with language and the range of language and abilities which enables students to do. Finally, 'ESP is not different in kind of any form of language teaching that it should be based on the principles of effective and efficient learning' (Hutchinson and Waters, 1986: 18-19).

Robinson (1991:2-4) establishes several criteria for a course in order to be based on ESP, two of which are important. These are as follows: First, 'ESP is normally directed to a goal'. In learning English, a learner is guided by aims which may come either internally or externally or both. Or, to say in another way, a learner's underlying force for learning English is the establishment of a purpose or purposes associated with academic or occupational demands of using English. Second, 'An ESP course is based on a need analysis'. This criterion dictates that prior the undertaking of the teaching-learning business, there needs to be a kind of working out to portray as accurately as possible what the learners aspire with English.

Other features are claimed to be the characteristics of ESP. These include the characteristic that the undertaking of an ESP course is specified for a certain time period. Also, the target audience is adult learners.

So far, the discussion has dealt with what characterize an ESP course. The characteristics of ESP as outlined by several people in the ESP sphere above imply several points for a course to be developed on the ESP principles. First, an ESP course is necessarily based on the learner needs analysis; nevertheless, this principle should be exercised with cautious measures not to be overemphasized. Next, the target audience of an ESP course is typically adult learners-although it is argued that English course participants consisting of adult learners do not necessarily indicate that the course is an ESP course. Another important implication for classroom practices is that

the teachers of ESP classes duly have to a) get acquainted with specific content or subject matters, b) establish a close and mutual cooperation with subject matter specialists, dan c) be ready to adopt and apply relevant teaching methodologies that may be different from those would normally be employed in the teaching of general English. Also, the development of instructional materials in an ESP course essentially reflect to some extent an observance to results of the learner needs analysis, content of subject matters and specific disciplines or areas of study and professions or occupations.

b. ESP: Types and Practices

Prior to discussing practices with which ESP is generally associated, it is desirable to address issues related with practices in English language teaching which lay an emphasis on the specificity of disciplines or areas of study and professions or occupations. This will benefit the discussion that follows with regards to possible practices in the implementation of the English language teaching within such specified areas. Secondly, the discussion on area-specific teaching of English serves as a framework to examine the applicability of 'principled approach to the teaching of rules of use, and restore rhetoric, in a new and more precise form, to its insightful place in the teaching of language' (Widdowson, 1979:17).

D. Types of ESP

Based on the specificity in terms - thus far by and large understood to be - of disciplines or areas of study and professions or occupations, the fact that there has been a long list indicating such a specificity stemming from ESP (see Hutchinson and Waters, 1987:17 for the tree of ELT) is prevalently undeniable. For example, Dudley-Evans and St.John (1988: vii) document this list as containing several acronyms like: EAP (=English for Academic Purposes), EBP (=English for Business Purposes), EEP (=English for Educational Purposes), EGAP (=English for General Academic Purposes). EGBP (=English for General Business Purposes), ELP (=English for Legal Purposes), EMP (=English for Medical Purposes), EOP (=English for Occupational Purposes), ESAP (=English for Specific Academic Purposes), ESBP (=English for Specific Business Purposes), EST (=English for Science and Technology), EVP (English for Vocational Purposes). Robinson (1994:xii) has another EPP (English for Professional

Purposes). McDonough (1984:6) adds to the already long list: EEP (=English for Educational Purposes), and ERP (=English for Recreational Purposes) and others. And this list can be lengthened.

Ubiquitous existence of these synonyms deserves a critical address. The purpose, of course, can be of different interest. The current study takes tourism as its broad ground within which English is fit into place as a medium of interaction. A quick look at these lists reveals that there exists no acronym presumably to be labelled as ETI (=English for Tourism Industries). Thus, the questions that immediately arise are follows: are these in the list really types of ESP? If any, on what bases are these types of ESP created and how? Are there agreed standards to which to refer? Or are they creative inventions? To answer these questions, a critical review is called for.

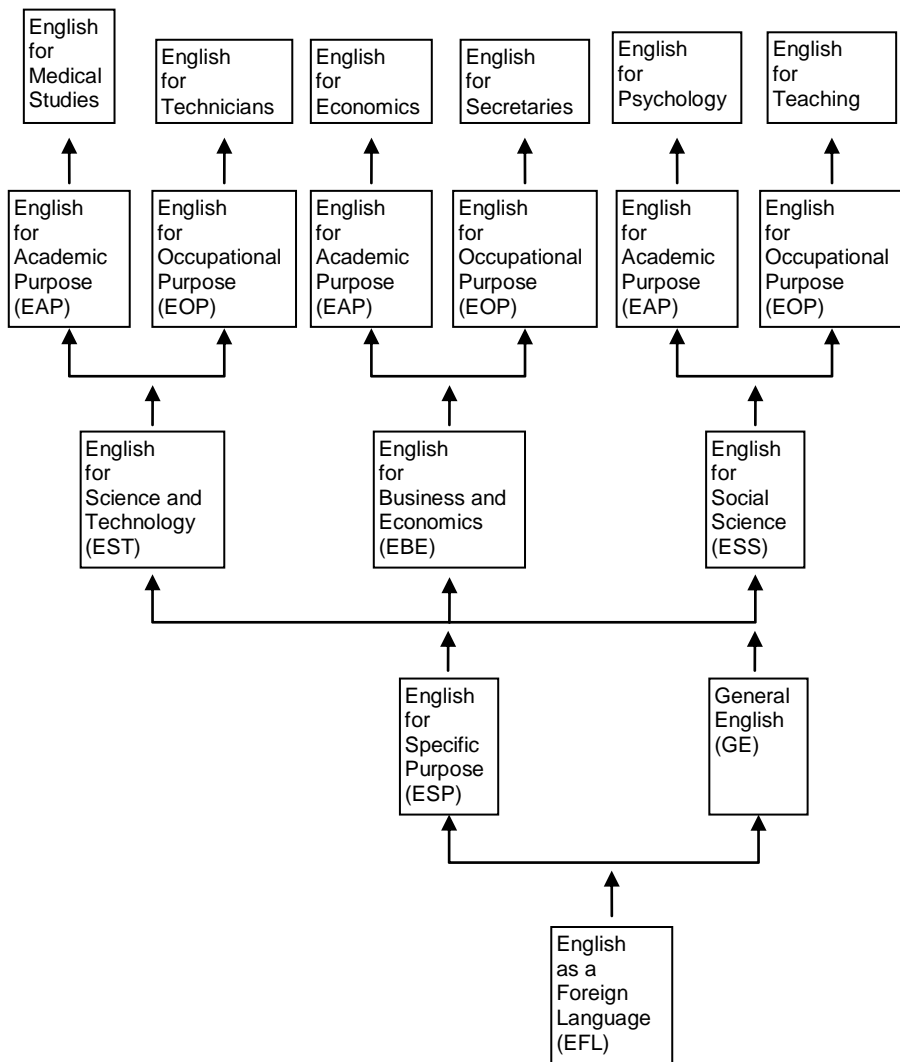
To start with, it is worth reviewing several categorizations as proposed by ESP experts. An interesting classification is offered by Hutchinson and Waters (1937:17), In showing the relation of ESP in the realm of language teaching, they make use the tree of ELT which roughly can be adapted in Figure 2.1. As shown in Figure 2.1, the stalk at which ESP to branch begins at EFL (=English as Foreign Language), sharing the same source with GE (=General English). ESP then makes three other succeeding branches: EST (=English for Science and Technolgy), EBE (=English for Business and Economics), ESS (=English for Social Sciences).

Each of these branches subsequently let off two other immediate branches, yielding each EAP (=English for Academic Purposes) and (EOP (=English for Occupational Purposes) or EVP (English for Vocational Purposes). Further each of these two branches are those Englishes for Medical Studies, Technicians, Economics, Secretaries, Psychology and Teaching respectively.

In specifying ESP, Hutchinson and Waters (1987:16) as illustrated in Diagram 1.1 above essentially utilize two main bases for vertical classificaton. These bases are (1) categorization based on distinction between work ard study, occupying the next level just below the topmost branches; and (2) specialism occupying the next level just below categorization based on distinction between work and study. The topmost branches represent individual courses, which is necessarily not a classification because it, is argued, there can be differing courses taking place in this respect.

In this framework, then specialism constitutes a primary distinctive norm for further classification. In this regards, seemingly specialism is arbitrarily seen from three areas: *Science and Technology*, *Business and Economics*, and *English for Social Science*. If so, it is argued, then there are possibilities of adding other specialisms, for example *Humanities*. In the second level, the distinctive norm used is of two kinds: study and work or occupation. Based on this norm there accordingly spring two kinds of ESP: one for study orientation and the other for work.

If all this classification is true, then, the question arising is do people study for its own sake? Similarly. do people work for its own sake? How about those who study to work later? Or, those who work to study later (cf. Robinson, 1994:2)? These questions are important for the purpose of not only critically evaluating the classification offered by Hutchinson and Waters (1987) but also proportionally placing the kind of English to be engaged for the purpose in the present study. When the concern is addressed to the first two questions and the answers are affirmative, then, it is likely that the classification is fitting. However, when directed to the third and fourth questions, the classification can be overwhelming. For example, do students studying at a tourism college learn English to study only or to work only or both? When English is viewed as a medium for communicating tourism theories, certainly they learn English to study. But, when English is viewed as a means necessary to facilitate their future profession, they need to learn English for work. Thus, they need both. The current study is concerned with the latter. Therefore, the kind of ESP to be dealt with in this study is the one for work or profession orientation.



**Figure 1.1 Classification of ESP by the British Council, 1975
(Adapted from McDonough. 1984:6)**

As seen in the figure above, ESP is directly categorized on the basis study and work, resulting in two immediate types of ESP: English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English Occupational Purposes (EOP). EAP is further distinguishable as English for Science and Technology (EST), which, according to Hutchinson and

Waters (1987), is placed the other way around, thus EST is super ordinate to EAP.

In the British Council scheme it is not clear though on which basis EAP is specified into EST. However, when touching on the types of courses primarily, ESP, according to McDonough (1984:7), is recognizable on the basis of study and work. To Mackay and Mountford (1978:3), the use of language for study and/or work is attached to requirements in occupational, vocational, academic, or professional areas. On the basis of study, for instance, there are English for Electronic Engineering, English for Computer Science, and English for Social Sciences; whereas on the basis of work, there are English for Secretaries, English for Hotel Staff, and English for Doctors for example. Beside a classification by study and work, there are, however, other classifications of ESP based on research projects and geographical ones.

Robinson (1991:2-4) uses two versions to classify ESP. In the first version, ESP is distinguished into three: EOP (=English for Occupational Purposes) that is associated with work-related needs and training; EAP (=English for Academic Purposes) that deals with academic study needs, and EST (=English for Science and Technology) that involves both work- and study-related needs, thus cutting across both EOP and EAP. In making ESP classification, Robinson (1991:2) considers it necessary to take into account the degree of experiences of the learners. For example, in EOP, participants with different work experiences may be grouped differently. So do they in ESP as a school subject and in ESP for study in specific disciplines. Therefore, for instance, newcomers' ESP class will be different from an ESP class with more work experiences.

Almost similar to the classification in version 1 illustrated in Figure 1.2, classification version 2 also still considers learners' degree of experiences. However, in version 2, which is applicable to USA context, ESP is classified into three: EAP (=English for Academic Purposes), APP (=English for Professional Purposes), and EVP (=English for Vocational Purposes). This is shown in Figure 2.4. In his perspective, however, EST, considered to be 'the senior branch of ESP', characterizes these three types of ESP. He further specifies that EST at the level of training business and commerce areas falls within EOP/EVP or EPP; whereas EST deals with EAP, but at the training level EST may be seen to be EOP or EVP. This classification

actually mirrors Robinson' ESP classification in version 1 described above in which EST characterizes EOP and EEP (cf. Widdowson, 1983:9).

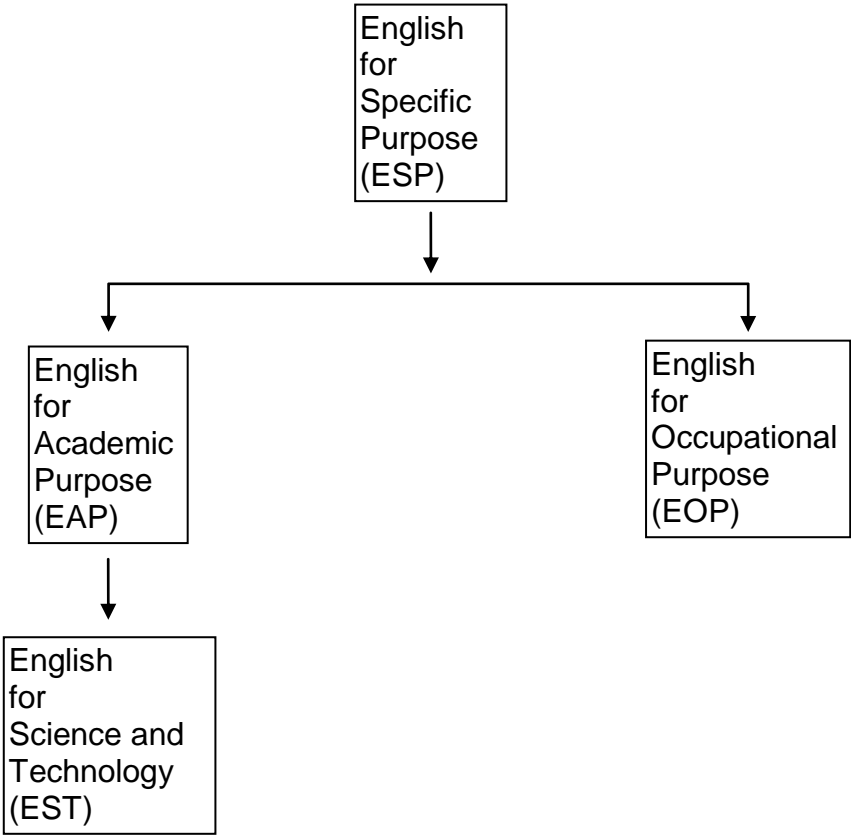


Figure 1.2 Classification of ESP by the British Council, 1975 (Adapted from McDorough, 1984:6)

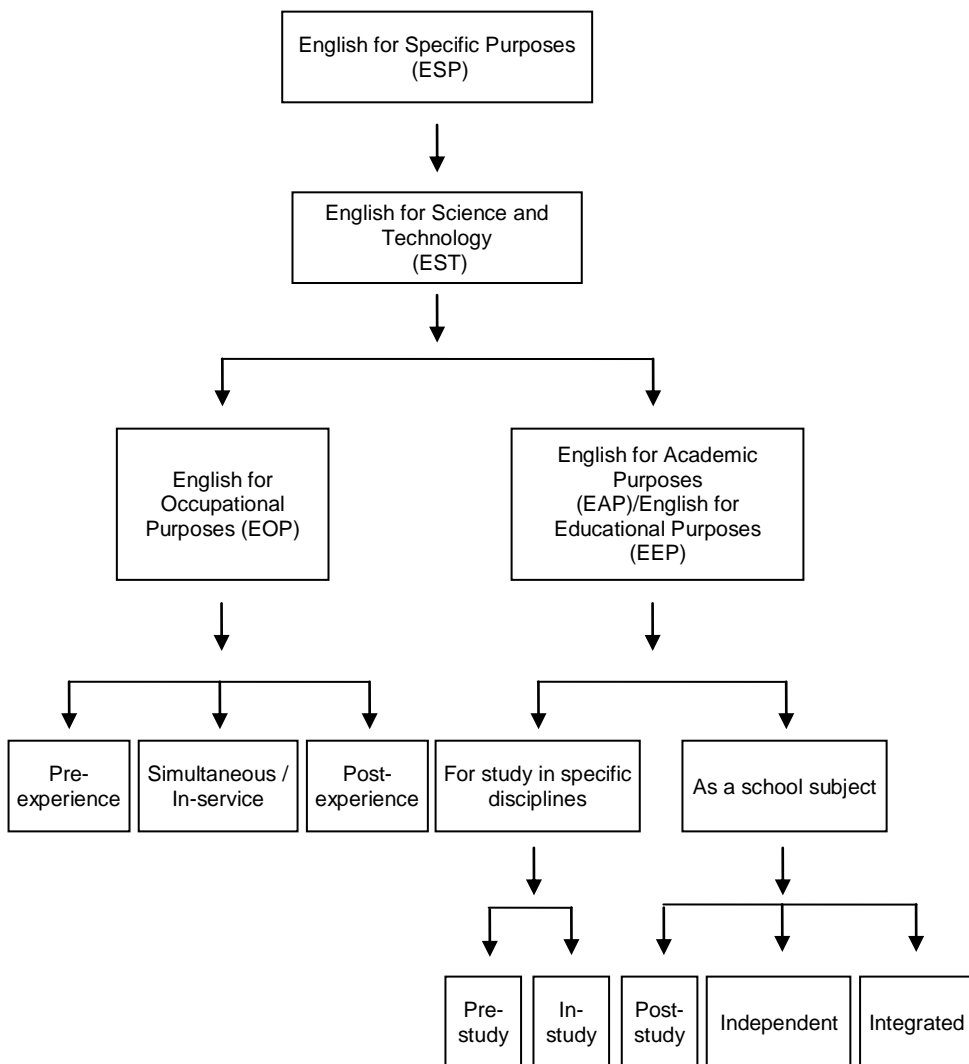
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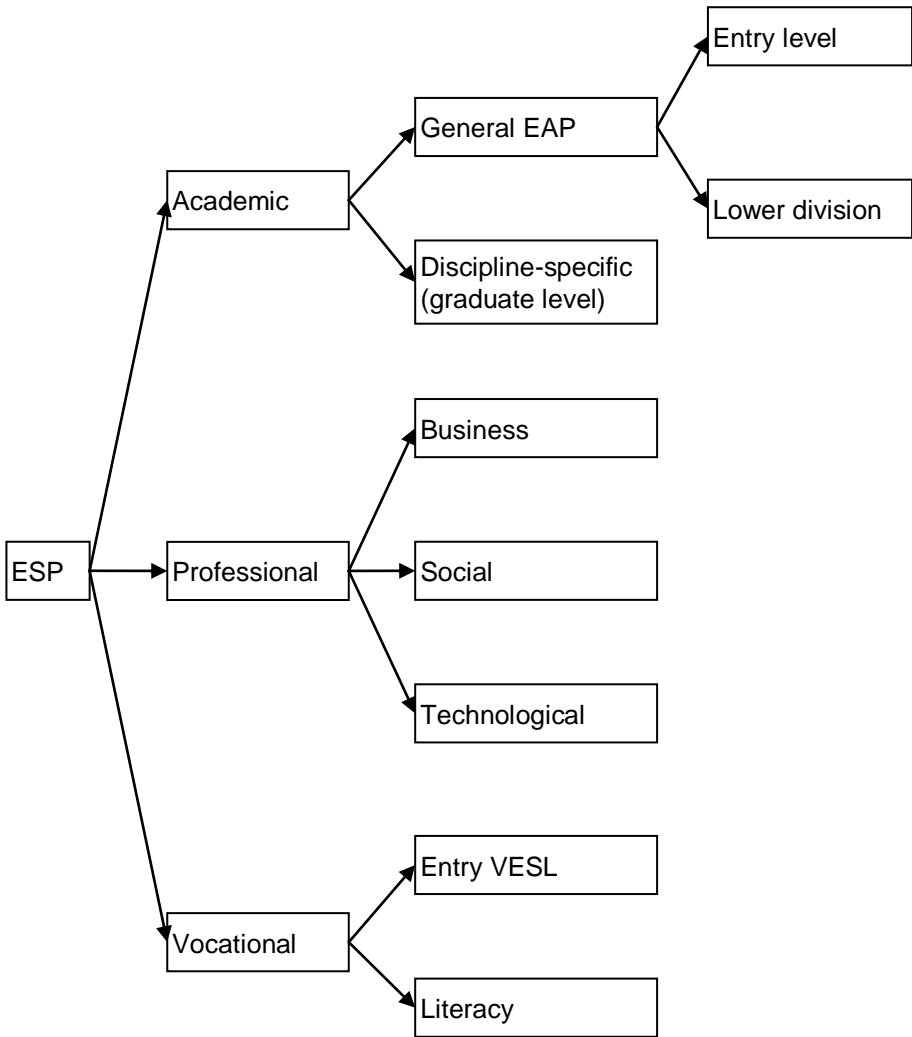
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**Figure 1.3 Types of ESP Version 1
(Adapted from Robinson, 1994:3)**

Although feeling somewhat uncomfortable, Swales (1988:vii) acknowledges the categorization of ESP as is mentioned by Robinson's ESP classification in version 2 described above. Thus, ESP is classified into 3 (three), which essentially reflects classification on the basis of distinction between work study: 1) English for Academic Purposes (EAP), 2) English for Occupational or Vocational Purposes (EOP) and (EVP), 3) English for Professional Purposes (EPP).



**Figure 1.4 Types of ESP Version 2
(Adapted from Robison, 1994:4)**

A useful point in his view is worth attending. When discussing EST, he uses an interesting concept to further classify EST; this concept, he claims, is also applicable to other process of sub-classifying other ESP doings (Swales, 1988:v). This concept concerns 3 (three) categorization bases: institutional setting, subject-matter, and activity-type. The first type of ESP holds ESP courses in such institutional-settings as: 1) schools, particularly technical secondary and

trade schools, 2) technical colleges, polytechnics, be they at undergraduate, postgraduate. or research and academic staff levels, 3) and specialized institutions, including technical translations, patents, research administration etc. The second type of ESP holds ESP courses in such subject-mater based contexts as shown in Figure 2.5 that follows.

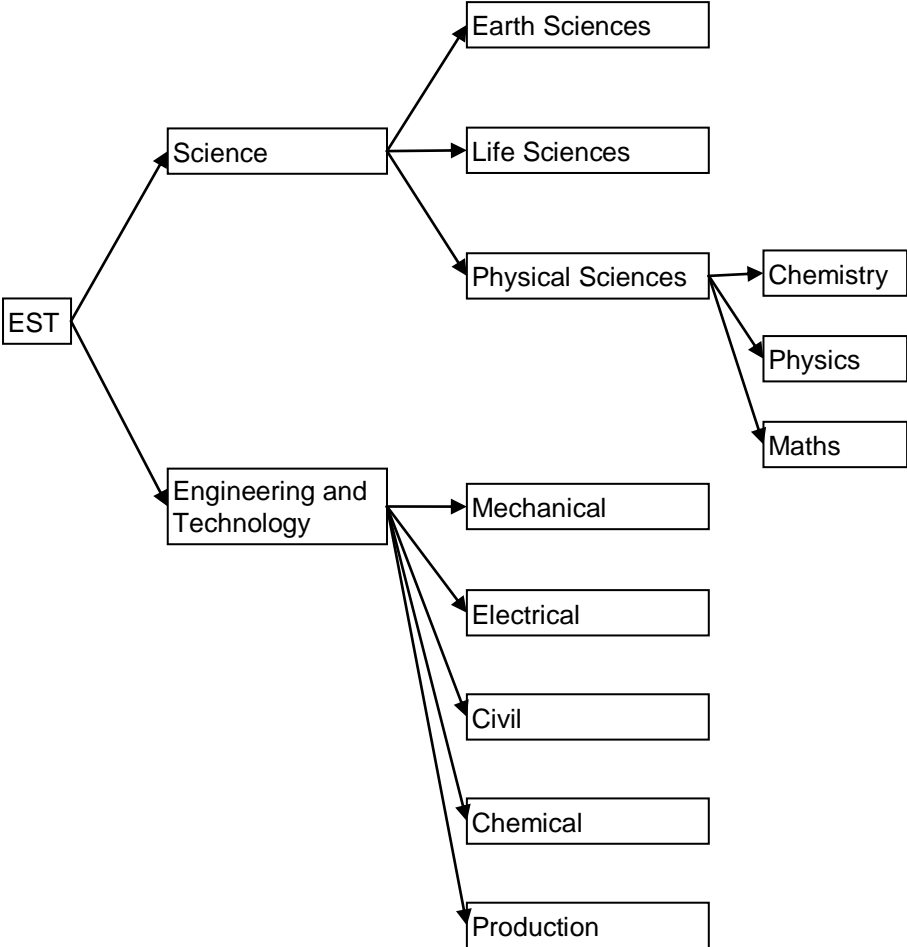


Figure 1.5 EST Types
(Adapred from Swales, 1988:v)

The third category is related with the types of activities the students are supposed to keep with regards to lecture-related activities. These simply include study skills involving the use of language. Including in this is a set of specialized English skills such as the

following: note taking, taking parts in seminars, reading and note-taking on textbooks, writing research reports, etc.

Swales' categorization of ESP thus far discussed has basically been similar to ESP classifications outlined by others. However, the elaboration of categorization on the basis of students' activities provides other important operational perspectives. His approach to such a categorization is typically based on the recognition of language skills such as listening, speaking, reading, and writing, which, in the face of principles of English course design (Tomlinson and Masuhara, 2004) and materials development (Graves, 1996) provides useful pedagogical access and directions. It should be clear by now that types of ESP are real and exist. They come in many faces (McDonough, 1984:6) or types (Robinson, 1991:2), thus, potentially bewildering (Widdowson, 1983:9). Attempts have been made to clarify the classification; yet obscurity remains (Swales, 1988:xvi). Viewed from the bases of classification thus far exerted. nevertheless, the classification has generally been drawn on two levels. The first level concerns a conceptual criterion. It establishes a three-partite distinction of a work/occupation/profession, study/academic and discipline-research. At this level, practical operations for the purpose of language training are not yet relevant since the criterion merely provides an indication of direction of membership. The second level deals with an actual criterion. Due its specificity nature, this level is operational, in that practices for training purposes begin to be tangible. For instance, the target audience of the training turns out to be more obvious; needs analysis become apparent, and syllabus designing as well as material development may proceed accordingly and so on.

A reflection upon the review reveals that, first, the classification on ESP seems to be founded on a wobbly principle. Of theoretical concern is that to be more systematic, ESP classification ought to have systematically taken a model for taxonomical procedures as, for instance, proposed by Carolus Linneaus when applying the principles in biology to classify animals or plants. Therefore, there seems to be a need in finding out the clarity of criteria so that the *kingdom*, *familia*, *species*, *genus*, and *ardo* of ESP types can be more firmly established. Second, it appears also very likely that ESP is flexible, in that, to quote Robinsons' words, it is adjustable to 'developments in all three realms of studies: language, pedagogy, and content'