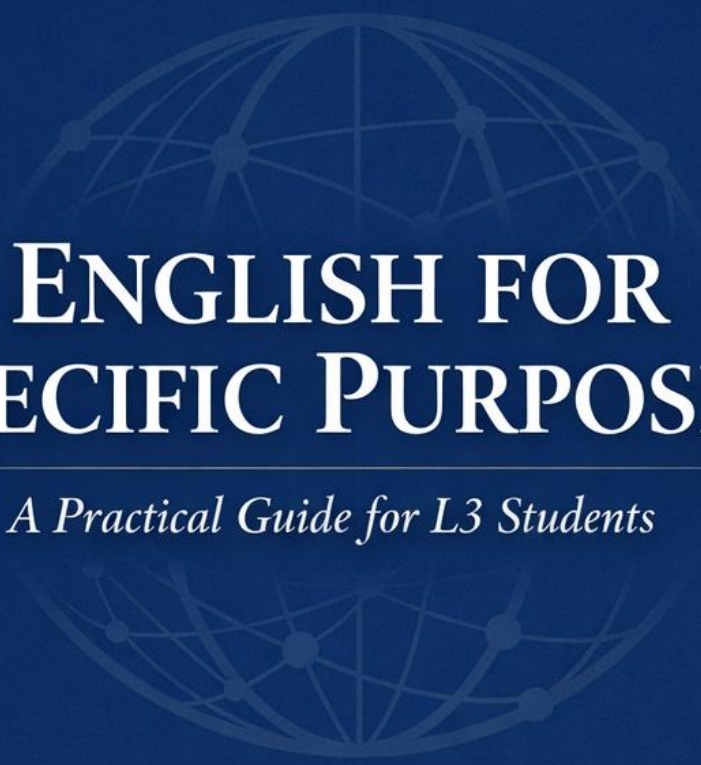


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ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES

A Practical Guide for L3 Students

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CONTENTS

Course description	4
What is English for Specific English (ESP)?	7
English for Specific Purposes: Concept and Scope	7
Definition of ESP	7
ESP Genesis and Development	9
The ELT (English Language Teaching) Tree	9
ESP Characteristics	12
ESP as an Approach to Language Teaching	13
ESP vs. EGP	14
Types of ESP	14
Concept Mastery Knowledge	19
Principles and Practices in Teaching ESP	20
Overview of ESP in Higher Education	20
Objectives in Teaching ESP	21
ESP Teaching and Learning Processes	23
Stages in the ESP Teaching Process	27
ESP Mastery Worksheet	34
Needs Analysis	39
Historical Background of Needs Analysis	39
Definition of Needs Analysis	40
Objectives and Importance of Needs Analysis	42
Types of Needs	43
Types of Needs Analysis in ESP	45
Procedures of Needs Analysis	47
Mapping Learners' Needs in ESP	50
Data Collection Methods in Needs Analysis	51
Interviews	51
Surveys and Questionnaires	52
Focus Groups	54
Observations	56
Document Review	58
Case Study	59
Diagnostic Tests	61
ESP Course Design	63
ESP Course, Curriculum and Syllabus	63
Approaches to Course Design	66
Stages of ESP Course Design	71
ESP Course Design Scenarios	80
Types of Syllabi Scenarios	82
References	85
Appendices	87
Tests and Exams Samples	95

LIST OF TABLES AND FIGURES

Figure 1: The ELT Tree	11
Figure 2: Hutchinson and Waters' Division of ESP Branches	15
Figure 3: Dudley-Evans & St. John (1998) Division of ESP Types	17
Figure 4: ESP Types Summary	18
Figure 5: The ESP Teaching–Learning Interaction	27
Figure 6: Stages in the ESP Process Theory/Reality	31
Figure 7: Target Needs in ESP	44
Figure 8: Learning Needs in ESP	45
Figure 9: Methods for Needs Analysis in ESP	62
Figure 10: Classification of Syllabi (Long & Crookes, 1993)	65
Figure 11: Language-Centered Approach (performance)	67
Figure 12: Skills Centred- Approach	68
Figure 13: Learning Centred- Approach	69
Figure 14: A comparison of Approaches to Course Design	70
Figure 15: Graves' Model of Curriculum Development	71
Figure 16: Framework of ESP Evaluation by Hutchinson and Waters (1987)	77
Table 1: Difference between ESP and GE	14
Table 2: Difference between EAP and EOP	16
Table 3: The Role of the ESP Teacher (Practitioner)	25
Table 4: The Role of the ESP Learner	26
Table 5: Procedures of Needs Analysis	48
Table 6: Sample Focus Group for Law Students	55
Table 7: Observation Checklist /English for Tourism (ESP-Tourism)	57
Table 8: Medical ESP Document Review	59
Table 9: Case Study Checklist/ Business ESP	60
Table 10: Summary of Course design Approaches	70
Table 11: Summary of ESP Evaluation Key Frameworks	79

COURSE DESCRIPTION

This course provides a comprehensive introduction to English for Specific Purposes (ESP), combining theoretical foundations with practical course design and needs-based pedagogy. ESP is approached as a learner-centered, needs-driven branch of applied linguistics that aligns English language instruction with academic and professional communicative demands.

SEMESTER ONE: FOUNDATIONS OF ESP

The first semester introduces students to the genesis, development, and core principles of ESP. It examines how ESP differs from English for General Purposes (EGP) in terms of objectives, content, methodology, and learner orientation. Students explore the main branches of ESP, particularly English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Occupational Purposes (EOP), and analyze their discourse characteristics.

The semester also addresses the objectives of ESP instruction, the roles of teachers and learners, and the stages involved in ESP teaching. Emphasis is placed on learner-centered and needs-based approaches as the theoretical foundation for ESP.

ASSESSMENT CRITERIA

Assessment integrates conceptual knowledge of needs analysis with the practical ability to interpret data and apply findings to ESP course design.

- **Test 1 – /08 points**

Covers introduction to ESP, its characteristics, and distinctions from EGP.

- **Test 2 – /08 points**

Covers ESP teaching methodologies, roles of teachers and learners, and stages of ESP instruction.

- **Participation and In-class Activities – /04 points**

Continuous assessment of engagement in discussions and tutorial tasks.

- **Final Exam – /20 points**

Comprehensive written exam assessing understanding of ESP foundations and principles.

SEMESTER TWO: NEEDS ANALYSIS AND ESP COURSE DESIGN

The second semester builds on the theoretical foundations by focusing on the analytical and practical dimensions of ESP. Students examine needs analysis as the cornerstone of ESP course design, exploring its rationale and different types, including target situation analysis, present situation analysis, learning situation analysis, deficiency analysis, and means analysis.

The course also addresses categories of learner needs by distinguishing between *target needs* (necessities, lacks, and wants) and *learning needs*, and introduces data collection tools such as questionnaires, interviews, tests, observation, and document analysis. Students learn to analyze needs data and apply it to syllabus design, materials development, teaching methodology, and assessment.

Emphasis is placed on the cyclical and dynamic nature of ESP course development and the importance of continuous evaluation and adaptation to changing learner and institutional needs.

ASSESSMENT CRITERIA

Assessment combines theoretical understanding with analytical and applied skills:

- **Test 1 – /08 points**
Covers the concept, rationale, and types of needs analysis.
- **Test 2 – /08 points**
Covers methods of needs analysis and ESP course Design.
- **Participation and In-class Activities – /04 points**
Continuous assessment of engagement and completion of practical needs analysis tasks.
- **Final Exam – /20 points**
Comprehensive written exam assessing needs analysis and its application to ESP course design.

LEARNING OUTCOMES

By the end of the course, students will be able to:

ESP Foundations

- Define and explain the concept, history, and development of ESP
- Distinguish ESP from EGP in terms of aims, content, and methodology
- Identify major branches of ESP (EAP and EOP)
- Explain the objectives of ESP teaching and the roles of teachers and learners
- Describe the stages of ESP instruction and the rationale for learner-centered teaching

Needs Analysis and Course Design

- Explain the concept and significance of needs analysis in ESP
- Distinguish between different types of needs analysis
- Analyze learner needs (necessities, lacks, wants)
- Select appropriate tools and methods for conducting needs analysis

- Interpret needs analysis data and prioritize learner needs
- Apply needs analysis findings to ESP syllabus and course design

SUGGESTED READING

- John Swales – *Genre Analysis: English in Academic and Research Settings*
- Dudley-Evans, T., & St John – *Developments in English for Specific Purposes*
- Hutchinson & Waters – *English for Specific Purposes: A Learning-Centered Approach*
- Basturkmen – *Ideas and Options in English for Specific Purposes*
- Richards – *Curriculum Development in Language Teaching*
- Graves – *Designing Language Courses: A Guide for Teachers*

WHAT IS ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC ENGLISH (ESP)?

"The strength of ESP lies in its commitment to the needs, interests, and goals of particular groups of learners."

— Dudley-Evans & St John (1998)

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

1. Trace the genesis and development of ESP, identifying the main historical and educational factors that shaped its emergence.
2. Explain the structure of the ELT tree, showing how ESP fits within the broader field of English Language Teaching.
3. Identify and discuss the main characteristics of ESP.
4. Differentiate between ESP and EGP, highlighting key differences in purpose, focus, and methodology.
5. Recognize and describe the main types of ESP, including EAP, EOP, EPP, and EVP.

1. ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES: CONCEPT AND SCOPE

English for Specific Purposes (ESP) is a branch of language teaching designed to develop learners' English proficiency for specific situations, referred to as their target needs. By providing instructional objectives, teaching materials, and methods tailored to learners' needs and interests, ESP has grown since the early 1960s to become a major area of foreign language education. Today, ESP is applied not only to adult learners who already have a basic level of English or who study English for particular academic or professional purposes, but it is also increasingly used for learners of general English who have specific learning goals.

2. DEFINITION OF ESP

Many scholars have offered definitions of ESP, reflecting its evolving nature and diverse applications. Some view ESP broadly as the teaching of English for any clearly defined purpose, emphasizing that learners have specific goals for acquiring the language. Others provide more precise definitions, highlighting that ESP involves teaching English for academic studies, vocational or professional contexts, or for non-native speakers who need English to perform specific tasks. In these definitions, the focus is not on learning English for general knowledge or cultural interest, but on developing language skills that enable learners to communicate effectively and efficiently in real-world situations relevant to their field of study, work, or

other specific needs. This reflects the central principle of ESP: teaching and learning are needs-driven, with course content, materials, and methods tailored to the learners' objectives.

Mackay & Mountford (1978) define ESP as a language teaching approach “generally used to refer to the teaching of English for a clearly utilitarian purpose” (p.2). They explain that this usually refers to teaching English for occupational requirements, such as international telephone operators or vocational training programs like hotel and catering staff, or for academic or professional study, such as engineering.

Harmer (1983) emphasizes that ESP occurs in situations where “the student has some specific reasons for wanting to learn a language” (p.1). In other words, learners study English to achieve specific ends rather than for general knowledge or interest in the language itself.

Anthony (1997) describes ESP as “the teaching of English used in academic studies or the teaching of English for vocational or professional purposes” (p.9-10). He highlights that ESP is goal-oriented, focusing on the practical application of language in a learner's field of study or work.

Robinson (1991) states that “the learner of ESP doesn't learn English because he is interested in the English Language or English culture as such, but because he needs English for study or work purposes” (p.2). This shows that ESP is purpose-driven, enabling learners to acquire skills that are directly relevant to their academic or professional context.

Basturkmen (2006) notes that in ESP, “language is learnt not for its own sake or for the sake of gaining a general education, but to smooth the path to entry or greater linguistic efficiency in academic or professional or workplace environment” (p.18). This reinforces the practical and functional nature of ESP.

Hutchinson & Waters (1987) define ESP as “an approach rather than a product” (p.18), explaining that all teaching decisions (content, materials, and methods) are based on the learners' specific reasons for learning English. While certain features of language may be typical in specific contexts, ESP focuses on the learner's goals rather than a separate type of English.

Richards & Rodgers (2001) describe ESP as “a movement that seeks to serve the language needs of learners who need English in order to carry out specific roles (e.g., student, engineer, nurse) and who need to acquire content and real-world skills through the medium of it rather than master the language for its own sake” (p.107). This highlights the task- and purpose-oriented nature of ESP.

3. ESP GENESIS AND DEVELOPMENT

The development of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) is closely linked to changes in the world of education, business, science, and technology after World War II. As international mobility and communication increased, English became the global language for academic exchange, commerce, and technology (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987).

The origins of ESP can be traced back to three major forces:

- **The demands of a new world:** The growth of scientific, technical, and economic cooperation created a need for specialized English in fields such as aviation, medicine, engineering, business, and tourism. English was required not for general communication but for specific professional functions.
- **A revolution in linguistics:** Linguistic research shifted from the study of abstract grammar to the analysis of language use in context, particularly through functional and discourse-based approaches associated with (Halliday, 1978). This led to the study of registers, genres, and disciplinary discourse.
- **A new focus on the learner:** Language teaching became increasingly learner-centered, emphasizing learners' goals, needs, and target situations. The work of John Munby introduced systematic needs analysis as a foundation for course design.

ESP emerged in the 1960s as an approach that aims to teach English tailored to specific disciplines and professional domains. Rather than teaching English for its own sake, ESP provides language training for real-world tasks such as writing research papers, attending conferences, negotiating business deals, or guiding tourists.

Scholars such as Hutchinson & Waters (1987), Dudley-Evans & St John (1998), and Strevens (1988) emphasize that ESP is needs-driven, goal-oriented, and context-bound. Over time, ESP has evolved from simple register analysis to include discourse analysis, genre studies, and learning-centered approaches.

4. THE ELT (ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING) TREE

The ELT Tree is a conceptual framework that illustrates the hierarchical and relational structure of the different branches of English Language Teaching. It presents ELT as a unified field that grows into several specialized areas, enabling learners to understand how each branch is connected to the others. At the base of the tree lies General English which provides the foundational linguistic knowledge and communicative competence. From this foundation, more specific branches emerge, including English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Occupational Purposes (EOP), both of which fall under the broader category of English for Specific Purposes (ESP).

By representing ELT in this tree-like structure, the model visually clarifies that ESP is not an isolated discipline but a specialized extension of general language teaching that responds to particular academic and professional needs. As shown in Figure 1, the ELT Tree helps students situate ESP within the wider ELT landscape and understand the progression from general language learning to more targeted and context-specific instruction.

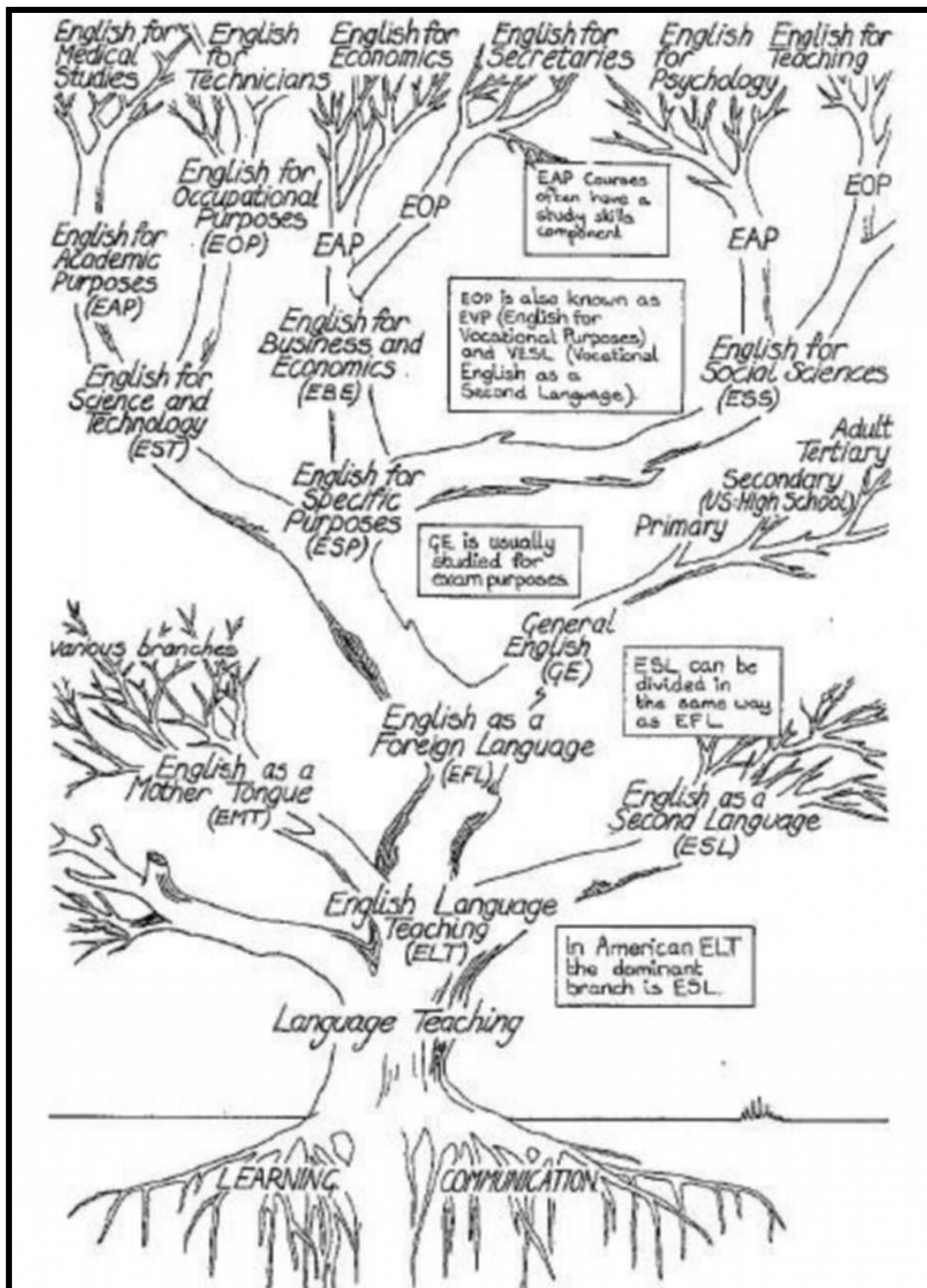


Figure 1: The ELT Tree

5. ESP CHARACTERISTICS

ESP has been defined and redefined over time, but one of the most widely accepted frameworks comes from Dudley-Evans & St. John (1998). They classify ESP features into two groups: ***absolute characteristics***, which are essential to all ESP courses, and ***variable characteristics***, which may differ depending on the learning context. Understanding these features helps teachers design relevant and effective ESP courses.

a) Absolute Characteristics

- **Designed to meet the specific needs of the learner**

ESP courses are built after identifying what learners need English for whether it's studying a subject, doing research, or performing a job.

→An English course for entrepreneurs focuses on pitching, negotiating, and business writing.

- **Makes use of the underlying methodology and activities of the discipline it serves**

ESP teaching reflects the way language is used in real contexts. For instance, the activities mirror the professional or academic practices of that field.

→In tourism ESP, learners practice greeting guests, giving directions, or handling complaints as in real hotel work.

- **Focuses on the language, skills, discourse, and genres appropriate to those activities**

ESP is not just about vocabulary. It includes the structure of texts, the communication style, and the skills used in the target field.

→In academic ESP, students learn how to write abstracts, use academic connectors, and follow research article structures.

- **Is centered on the language appropriate to the activities, in terms of grammar, lexis, register, study skills, discourse, and genre**

ESP concentrates on *real language use* in specific contexts, not on general textbook English.

→A legal English course teaches formal vocabulary, passive structures, and typical legal document formats.

b) Variable Characteristics

- **ESP may be related to or designed for specific disciplines**

ESP can target a single field (e.g., English for Business) or several related ones.

→English for Tourism, English for Science, English for Medicine.

- **ESP may use, in specific teaching situations, a different methodology from that of General English**

Because the goals are specific, teachers may use authentic materials, case studies, or simulations rather

than traditional language drills.

→Role-playing check-in conversations in a tourism ESP course.

- **ESP is likely to be designed for adult learners, either at a tertiary level institution or in a professional work situation**

Most ESP learners are adults or university students who already have some background knowledge.

→Master students learning English to write their theses.

- **ESP is generally designed for intermediate or advanced students**

ESP assumes that learners already know some English and aims to develop specialized competence.

→Students with B1/B2 level learning Business English for international trade.

- **ESP courses are often designed for a specific time frame and are goal-oriented**

ESP courses are usually short-term with clear learning outcomes related to real-life performance.

→ A 6-week English course for airline staff.

- **ESP may focus on one or more language skills**

Unlike general English, ESP can prioritize the most relevant skill.

→English for research focuses mainly on reading academic texts and writing papers.

- **ESP is often assumed to require some basic knowledge of the language system**

ESP does not usually teach beginners but builds on existing knowledge to develop specific communication abilities.

→An engineering student who knows general English learns technical English to read manuals.

6. ESP AS AN APPROACH TO LANGUAGE TEACHING

English for Specific Purposes is best understood as an approach to language teaching rather than a fixed product. Dudley-Evans (1998) emphasizes that while ESP can focus on a specific discipline, age group, or ability level, it does not have to be restricted to these parameters. He describes ESP as an “attitude of mind”, highlighting flexibility in course design and teaching. Similarly, Hutchinson and Waters (1987:18) defined ESP as being an *approach* rather than a *product* by which they mean that ESP does not involve a particular kind of language, teaching materials or methodology. They suggest that the basic question of ESP is *why does this learner need to learn a foreign language?* The answer to this question relates to the learners, the language required and the learning context and thus establishes the primacy of needs in ESP.

The concept of a “*specialized aim*” reinforces this principle, referring to the learner’s purpose for studying English rather than the nature of the language itself (Mackay & Mountford, 1978). Consequently, ESP functions to help learners develop the language skills and competencies needed to perform effectively in a particular discipline, profession, or workplace. Its central goal is to ensure that learners can use English successfully in the contexts for which they require it, rather than learning the language for general purposes.

7. ESP VS. ENGLISH FOR GRNRRAL PURPOSES (EGP)

A clear distinction between English for Specific Purposes (ESP) and English for General Purposes (EGP) is essential for understanding the pedagogical orientation of each. While both share the goal of improving language competence, their focus, methodology, and target learners are quite different as shown in **Table 1**.

EGP emphasizes general language skills such as grammar, vocabulary, reading, writing, listening, and speaking designed for broad academic or everyday communication. In contrast, ESP focuses on the specific language and skills required in particular academic, professional, or occupational contexts, preparing learners to perform real-world tasks such as writing technical reports, delivering presentations, or negotiating in business settings. Methodologically, EGP typically follows a standardized curriculum with general exercises, whereas ESP adopts a learner-centered, needs-based approach, using authentic texts, task-based activities, and simulations tailored to the learners' objectives. ESP is therefore goal-oriented, context-specific, and task-driven, while EGP provides a broad foundation in the language. Understanding this distinction allows educators to design courses and select materials that are directly relevant to learners' needs, ensuring both efficiency and practical value in language instruction.

Table 1

Difference between ESP and GE

Aspect	ESP	EGP
<i>Focus</i>	Language for specific professional or academic contexts	General communication skills
<i>Content</i>	Discipline-specific vocabulary and skills	Everyday vocabulary and grammar
<i>Learners</i>	Adults / university students / professionals	School learners or general learners
<i>Needs</i>	Identified through needs analysis	Broad, not tied to specific purposes
<i>Methodology</i>	Task-based, field-related, authentic materials	Textbook-based, grammar-focused
<i>Example</i>	English for Business, English for Medicine	General English courses in schools or institutes

8. TYPES OF ESP

The classification of ESP into different types helps teachers design courses that respond to academic, occupational, and professional needs. Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 16) admitted that there is not a precise distinction between EAP and EOP “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”.

ESP can be categorized in different ways, but the most common and widely accepted classification comes from *Hutchinson and Waters (1987)*. It is divided according to the learners' needs and the professional or academic context in which English is used as displayed in **Figure 2**.

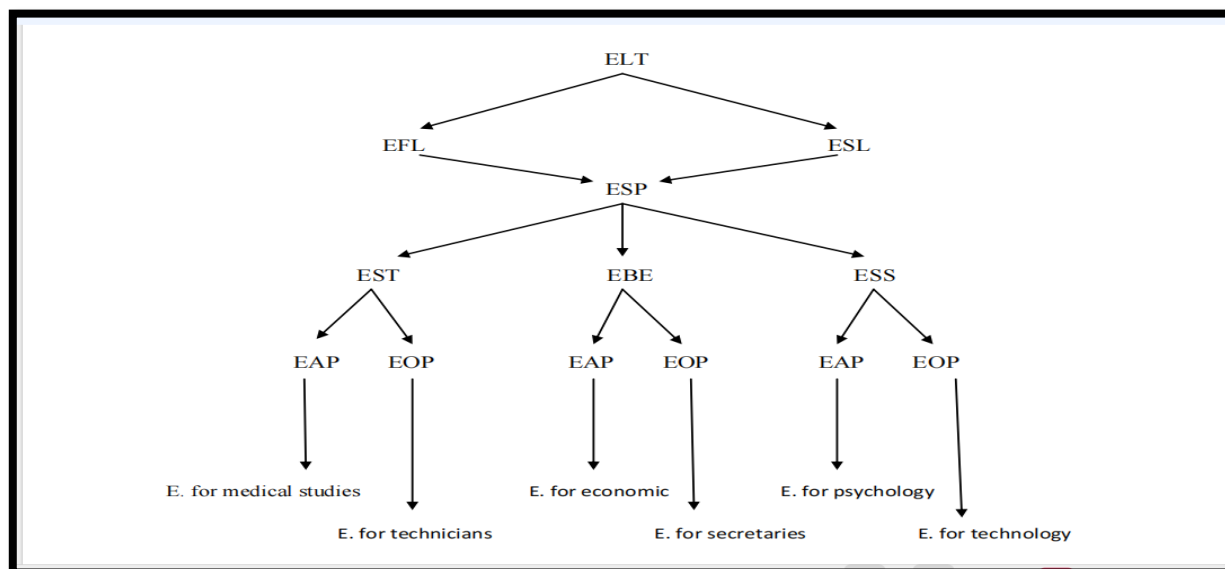


Figure 2: Hutchinson and Waters' Division of ESP Branches

1. English for Academic Purposes (EAP)

This branch of ESP focuses on helping learners use English effectively in academic contexts (reading academic texts, writing essays and research papers, listening to lectures and note-taking, giving oral presentations).

English for Academic Purposes (EAP) focuses on equipping learners with the language and communication skills necessary to succeed in academic contexts. Since each discipline has its own linguistic features, discourse patterns, and communicative practices, EAP is often divided into specialized subtypes. These subtypes address the specific language demands of different fields, ensuring that instruction is purposeful, relevant, and closely aligned with learners' academic goals. In this regard, EAP can be categorized into several subtypes, each addressing the linguistic and communicative demands of a specific academic discipline:

- **English for Science and Technology (EST)** (e.g., engineering students)
- **English for Medical Purposes (EMP)** (e.g., medical students)
- **English for Legal Purposes (ELP)** (e.g., law students)
- **English for Humanities and Social Sciences (EHSS)** (e.g., psychology, sociology students)

2. English for Occupational Purposes (EOP)

This type focuses on workplace and professional communication. The aim is to help learners perform job-related tasks using English (Business correspondence, technical instructions and reports, meetings and negotiations, customer service). Consequently, EOP is structured into distinct subtypes, each responding to the specific linguistic and communicative practices of a given occupational setting:

- **English for Business Purposes (EBP)** (e.g., marketing, sales)
- **English for Tourism and Hospitality (ETP)** (e.g., hotel staff, travel agents)
- **English for Aviation Purposes (EAP)** (e.g., pilots, air traffic controllers)
- **English for Military Purposes** (e.g., peacekeeping missions)

Although both **EAP** and **EOP** fall under the umbrella of ESP, they address different learner goals and contexts. EAP is tied to academic study, whereas EOP is linked to workplace communication.

Table 2

Difference between EAP and EOP

Aspect	EAP	EOP
<i>Main Goal</i>	Academic study and research	Professional or occupational communication
<i>Context</i>	Universities, research centers	Companies, hospitals, industries
<i>Skills emphasized</i>	Academic writing, reading research articles, lectures	Oral communication, technical instructions, job interviews
<i>Example</i>	English for postgraduate studies, academic writing workshops	English for pilots, hotel receptionists, nurses
<i>Time frame</i>	Often pre-experience (before work)	Usually during work or pre-service training

Dudley-Evans and St John (1998, p.6) provide a detailed classification of ESP by professional area. English for Academic Purposes (EAP) covers fields such as Science and Technology (EST), Medicine and Health Sciences (EMP), Law and Administration (ELP), and Business and Economics. EOP, on the other hand, is divided into:

2.1 English for Professional Purposes (EPP)

This type of ESP overlaps with both EAP and EOP. It is designed for specialized professions that demand a high level of English proficiency, often in international and high-stakes contexts. EPP supports professionals such as doctors, engineers, lawyers, journalists, and diplomats in performing advanced communicative tasks related to their fields. The focus is typically on preparing professional reports and formal presentations, as well as mastering technical and disciplinary vocabulary needed for precise and effective communication.

2.2 English for Vocational Purposes (EVP)

This is more practical and skill-oriented than EPP. It is designed for learners who need English for specific trades or technical skills (English for mechanics, English for construction workers, English for nursing assistants). See Figure 3

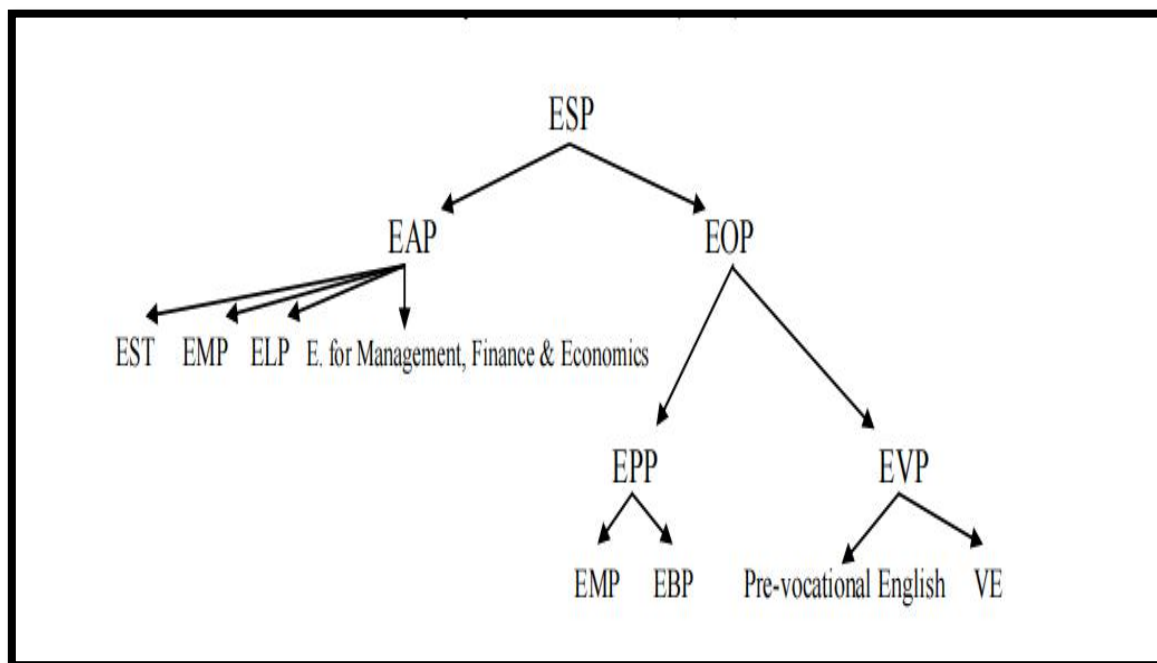


Figure 3: Dudley-Evans & St. John (1998) Division of ESP Types

▪ English for Sociocultural Purposes (emerging area)

An emerging branch of ESP is *English for Sociocultural Purposes (ESPc)*, which focuses on communication in intercultural and social contexts. This area has grown in importance due to globalization, international mobility, and multicultural work and study environments. ESPc courses are designed to help learners navigate social, cultural, and professional interactions effectively, going beyond purely academic or occupational language. Typical content includes cultural orientation, English for daily life, and community interaction, as well as the development of *soft skills* such as communication, teamwork, interpersonal relations, problem-solving, critical thinking, leadership, adaptability, time management, and professionalism. By combining language learning with sociocultural competence, ESP prepares learners to function successfully in diverse international contexts, whether they are studying abroad, migrating, or working in global teams.

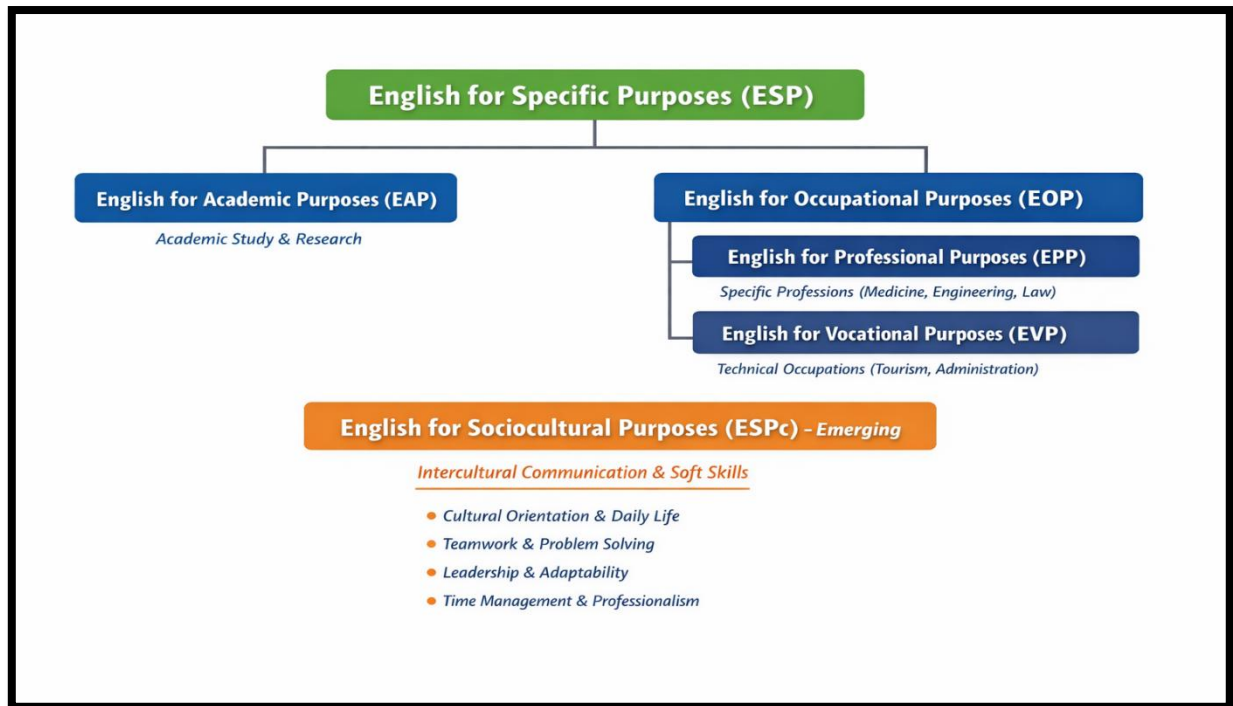


Figure 4: ESP Types Summary

CONCEPT MASTERY KNOWLEDGE

1. Read each statement carefully and decide whether it is **True** or **False**.

- _____. ESP emerged mainly after WWII due to the growth of international trade and technology.
- _____. The rise of ESP was unrelated to learners' specific needs.
- _____. ESP development was influenced by linguistic research and learner-centered approaches.
- _____. The oil crisis of the 1970s had no impact on the spread of ESP.
- _____. ESP focuses on preparing learners to use English in academic and professional contexts.

2. Below are some branches of the *ELT* tree. Label whether they belong to **ESP** or **EGP**.

Branch	ESP or EGP
English for Academic Discourse	
Everyday English Communication	
English for Medical Professionals	
Conversational English for Social Use	
English for Occupational Settings	
English for Travel and Survival	

3. Classify the following statements as **Absolute "A"** or **Variable "V"** characteristics of ESP.

- _____. Course content is determined by learners' professional or academic needs.
- _____. Emphasizes general grammar and daily communication.
- _____. Language is taught through subject-specific content.
- _____. Learners are adults or tertiary-level students.
- _____. Focuses mainly on everyday social situations.
- _____. Often taught in workplace or university contexts.

4. Read each example carefully. Decide whether it reflects **ESP** or **EGP**, and write your answer.

- A group of engineering students takes a 6-week course to learn how to read technical manuals and write project reports. → _____
- A group of teenagers attends a summer English class to improve their general communication skills. → _____
- A law faculty organizes a language course focused on legal vocabulary and courtroom expressions. → _____
- A language center offers an English conversation course for beginners. → _____
- A hospital provides a course for doctors to communicate effectively with international patients. → _____
- A public school offers English classes that teach basic grammar and daily dialogues. → _____

5. Read each situation and **label** it with the correct **type of ESP**:

- A group of engineering students is learning English to read technical manuals. → _____
- A nurse is taking an English course to communicate with patients in a hospital. → _____
- Law students practice understanding legal terminology in English. → _____
- A group of business professionals learns how to give presentations and write reports. → _____
- Sociology students work on reading and discussing academic articles in English. → _____

PRINCIPLES AND PRACTICES IN TEACHING ESP

“The ESP teacher is not simply a teacher of English but a course designer, materials provider, researcher, collaborator, and evaluator.”

— *Dudley-Evans & St John*

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

1. Identify the main objectives of ESP and relate them to learners’ academic or professional needs.
2. Describe how ESP teaching and learning differ from General English.
3. Explain the roles of the ESP teacher and learner in the learning process.
4. Outline the main stages of the ESP teaching process.

1. OVERVIEW OF ESP IN HIGHER EDUCATION

English for Specific Purposes (ESP) has evolved as a distinct and purposeful branch of English Language Teaching (ELT). Unlike General English, which focuses on everyday communication, ESP targets the specific linguistic and communicative needs of learners in academic, professional, or occupational settings. Its emergence in the 1960s was a response to the rapid development of science, technology, and international trade, which created a demand for English courses tailored to particular disciplines and professions.

In higher education, the dominant branch of ESP is English for Academic Purposes (EAP). EAP focuses on helping university students acquire the English language skills needed to succeed in academic contexts. For example, students studying in English-medium universities must learn how **to** read and analyze academic texts, write research papers, summarize sources, and present their findings in seminars or conferences. These are not general language skills but they are discipline-specific communicative practices.

Example 1:

A student of engineering may need to learn how to write technical reports, describe processes using precise verbs (e.g., calculate, measure, assemble), and interpret data in English.

Example 2:

A student of economics might focus on developing the language of argumentation, such as expressing cause and effect (as a result of, due to, consequently) and comparing economic trends using data-based descriptions.

Example 3:

Medical students may need to understand English for Medical Purposes (EMP), where they learn how to read research abstracts, describe symptoms, or communicate with patients in clinical contexts.

ESP is therefore *goal-oriented* i.e. students learn English not for general social interaction but to perform tasks relevant to their field of study or work. The language learned is closely linked to the learner's discipline, and this connection increases motivation **and** relevance. When students understand that English is a tool to access global knowledge, publish their work internationally, or advance their careers, they become more engaged and purposeful in their learning.

In sum, ESP in higher education serves as a bridge between language learning and disciplinary expertise. It empowers learners to participate in their academic communities, communicate research findings globally, and prepare for international professional contexts. By focusing on specific communication skills within a particular field, ESP ensures that language instruction is relevant, purposeful, and immediately applicable to students' academic and career goals.

2. OBJECTIVES IN TEACHING ESP

The ultimate goal of any teaching and learning process is to enable learners to understand and use language meaningfully and purposefully. In the case of ESP, the objective goes beyond mastering general English; it focuses on helping learners acquire the language, skills, and awareness necessary to function effectively in their academic or professional fields. According to Basturkmen (2006:133), there are five main objectives that guide ESP instruction:

- a. to reveal subject-specific language use,
- b. to develop target performance competencies,
- c. to teach underlying knowledge,
- d. to develop strategic competence, and
- e. to foster critical awareness.

These objectives align closely with Stern's (1992) broader framework for language education, which encompasses linguistic, proficiency, cultural, and affective goals, providing a holistic foundation for ESP teaching. Together, they emphasize that ESP instruction is goal-oriented, context-sensitive, and learner-centered, ensuring that learners are not only linguistically competent but also prepared to perform effectively in their academic or professional environments.

a. Revealing Subject-Specific Language Use

The first objective of ESP teaching is to make students aware of how language is used in specific disciplines or professions. Basturkmen (2006:133) explains that this involves exposing learners to the authentic language patterns, genres, and communication styles typical of their field. For examples:

- **English for Business:** Students may explore how negotiation strategies are conveyed through polite expressions such as "*we might consider...*" or "*perhaps a better alternative would be...*", helping them understand the role of tone and diplomacy in professional interactions.

- **English for Engineering:** Learners can study the structure of technical reports, paying attention to grammatical features like the passive voice and process descriptions, for instance, “*the system was tested under varying conditions.*”

b. Developing Target Performance Competencies

The second objective of ESP instruction is to develop learners’ ability to perform effectively in their target situations, whether academic or occupational. Basturkmen (2006:135) refers to this as achieving proficiency objectives, emphasizing that learners should not only understand the language but also be able to use it for real-world communication. For example, medical students studying English for Medical Purposes (EMP) may practice giving oral case presentations, conducting patient interviews, or writing patient histories, while law students might simulate courtroom discussions or draft legal memos. This focus on performance ensures that learners are prepared to apply their language skills in authentic settings.

Stern (1992) similarly highlights that true language proficiency is demonstrated when learners can communicate appropriately and purposefully, adapting their language to the demands of real contexts, rather than merely reproducing grammatical forms. By prioritizing target-situation performance, ESP instruction bridges the gap between knowledge of language and effective, goal-oriented language use.

c. Teaching Underlying Knowledge

ESP instruction must also address underlying disciplinary knowledge, ensuring that students understand the concepts, processes, and conventions that shape communication in their specific fields. Basturkmen (2006:137) categorizes this as a cultural knowledge objective, using Stern’s (1992) terminology. This approach recognizes that ESP teaching is not limited to language forms; it also involves helping learners grasp how knowledge is constructed, organized, and shared within particular academic or professional communities. For example, in English for Academic Purposes (EAP), students learn the standard structure of research articles: introduction, literature review, methodology, results, and discussion and understand how these elements contribute to academic credibility, clarity, and coherence.

Similarly, students in tourism or hospitality programs may learn to write promotional texts that respect cultural norms, local values, and customer expectations, ensuring their communication is both professional and contextually appropriate. By integrating language learning with disciplinary content understanding, ESP instruction enables learners to participate as informed members of their discourse community, bridging the gap between linguistic competence and professional or academic literacy.

d. Developing Strategic Competence

Strategic competence, as defined by Basturkmen (2006:139), is “the link between the context of situation and language knowledge.” It refers to the learner’s ability to use communication strategies to overcome

difficulties, clarify meaning, and adapt language to the specific context. In ESP instruction, developing strategic competence equips learners with the skills to maintain effective communication even when their linguistic knowledge is incomplete or challenged by unfamiliar situations. For example, in an ESP course for business professionals, learners may practice paraphrasing, requesting clarification, or reformulating ideas during meetings with international clients. In scientific or academic contexts, students may learn to rephrase complex findings, simplify explanations, or use visual aids to clarify oral presentations. By focusing on strategic competence, ESP teaching ensures that learners are flexible, resourceful, and able to communicate purposefully, making it a crucial skill for successful participation in global professional and academic environments.

e. Fostering Critical Awareness

The fifth objective, as Basturkmen (2006:143) highlights, is to foster critical awareness i.e. helping learners become conscious of how language reflects cultural, institutional, and power relations within their field. Stern (1992) similarly categorizes this as a combination of cultural and affective objectives, emphasizing sensitivity and reflection in communication.

For example, in an ESP class for journalists, students might analyze how language choices influence objectivity, bias, or audience perception. In academic writing, learners might examine how citation practices reflect values of intellectual honesty and academic integrity.

By fostering critical awareness, ESP teaching moves beyond linguistic training to encourage reflective, ethical, and culturally responsive communication.

The objectives of teaching ESP, as proposed by Basturkmen (2006) and connected to Stern's (1992) framework, reveal that ESP is not merely about vocabulary or grammar rather it is about purposeful, context-bound language use. By pursuing these objectives, teachers can guide learners toward linguistic proficiency, cultural understanding, and professional competence. In this sense, ESP becomes a bridge between language education and the learner's academic or career identity.

3. ESP TEACHING AND LEARNING PROCESSES

ESP is a learner-centered approach that tailors English language instruction to the academic, professional, or occupational needs of learners. Unlike General English, ESP is goal-oriented, focusing on the vocabulary, functions, and discourse conventions relevant to a specific field.

For example:

- In English or Medicine, learners practice explaining symptoms, writing patient records, and understanding medical research articles.
- In English for Business, they may focus on negotiation, presentation, and email-writing skills.
- In English for Engineering, students work with technical manuals and project descriptions.

The ESP approach makes learning meaningful and motivating, as learners engage with authentic tasks linked to their future professions. As Strevens (1988:44) explained, the key processes of ESP include shaping the input, encouraging learners' motivation, managing learning strategies, and promoting practice and use all adapted to learners' specific contexts.

Because ESP is learner-centered and focused on real-world tasks, the roles of both the teacher and the learner differ from those in general English classes. The teacher acts as a facilitator, guide, and resource provider, helping students access relevant materials, understand disciplinary conventions, and develop strategies for effective communication. Teachers also design tasks, select authentic materials, and provide feedback tailored to learners' goals.

At the same time, learners take an active role, engaging with authentic tasks, reflecting on their performance, identifying gaps in their knowledge, and applying strategies to achieve their communicative goals. This partnership ensures that ESP instruction is interactive, practical, and directly linked to learners' academic or professional contexts, reinforcing the purpose of the course.

3.1 The Role of the ESP Teacher (Practitioner)

The ESP teacher, often referred to as the *ESP practitioner*, plays multiple interconnected roles that go well beyond traditional language teaching. Hutchinson and Waters (1987:21) emphasize that, for the ESP teacher, course design is often a substantial and important part of the workload, highlighting the central role of planning and adapting instruction to meet learners' specific needs. This highlights that an ESP practitioner is not only a teacher but also a *course designer, materials developer, researcher, collaborator, and evaluator*. In practice, this means the ESP teacher must analyze learner needs, select or create authentic materials, design tasks aligned with target situations, conduct ongoing assessment, and adapt instruction to ensure relevance and effectiveness. By taking on these diverse roles, the ESP practitioner ensures that teaching is learner-centered, goal-oriented, and closely connected to the real-world academic or professional context of the students.

Table 3*The Role of the ESP Teacher (Practitioner)*

Role	Description	Example in Practice
<i>Teacher</i>	Delivers lessons, explains linguistic structures, and facilitates communication activities relevant to learners' fields.	In English for Tourism, the teacher helps learners practice speaking with customers using polite expressions.
<i>Course Designer</i>	Designs the syllabus based on needs analysis, learners' goals, and target situations.	In English for Business, the teacher designs a module on writing effective proposals and reports.
<i>Material Developer</i>	Adapts or creates teaching materials that integrate authentic texts from learners' disciplines.	Uses engineering project reports, medical case studies, or company memos as class input.
<i>Researcher</i>	Conducts ongoing needs analysis and investigates learners' professional communication patterns.	Observes how law students write legal briefs to identify useful language features.
<i>Collaborator</i>	Works with subject-matter experts to ensure content accuracy and relevance.	Cooperates with a medical professor to create dialogues based on patient–doctor interactions.
<i>Evaluator</i>	Assesses both language progress and task performance within professional contexts.	Uses rubrics that evaluate clarity, accuracy, and appropriateness in business presentations.

As Kashani et al. (2007) emphasize, the ESP teacher is not primarily a content expert, but rather a facilitator and guide, helping learners bridge the gap between language knowledge and disciplinary application. ESP practitioners create supportive, learner-centered environments where students can engage confidently in authentic tasks, whether writing technical reports, giving presentations, or negotiating in professional settings. By creating supportive, learner-centered environments, the ESP teacher enables students to practice English confidently through authentic tasks, such as writing technical reports, delivering presentations, or negotiating in professional contexts.

3.1 The Role of the ESP Learner

The ESP learner plays an active role in the learning process, rather than simply receiving knowledge. Learners bring with them prior knowledge and experience from their specific disciplines, which serves as a valuable resource for acquiring language and understanding how it is used in context. As Kashani et al. (2007:87) point out, learning in an ESP context is often individualized rather than standardized, with students more receptive to new ideas and approaches. Learners are encouraged to take responsibility for their own learning, applying strategies, reflecting on performance, and accepting the outcomes of their efforts. This active engagement enables them to develop the skills, confidence, and autonomy needed to use English effectively in real academic, professional, or occupational settings.

Table 4*The Role of the ESP Learner*

Learner Role	Description	Example in Practice
<i>Active Participant</i>	Engages in classroom discussions, projects, and simulations that reflect real-life use of English.	In English for Nursing, students role-play patient consultations or case briefings.
<i>Autonomous Learner</i>	Takes responsibility for learning outside the classroom by using self-study tools and online materials.	A student in English for Computer Science explores English programming tutorials on their own.
<i>Goal-Oriented Learner</i>	Focuses on specific outcomes such as improving writing for research publication or passing an exam.	An EAP student aims to publish in international journals.
<i>Reflective Learner</i>	Monitors progress and identifies personal strengths and weaknesses.	Keeps a portfolio documenting written assignments and self-evaluations.
<i>Collaborative Learner</i>	Shares disciplinary knowledge with peers and supports group tasks.	In a business ESP course, students collaborate to create and present a marketing plan.

ESP learners are typically *intrinsically motivated*, driven by a clear desire to improve their performance in their academic or professional fields. Unlike learners in general English courses, they see a direct connection between language learning and achieving their professional or academic goals, which fosters engagement and persistence (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998). Their learning is practical, self-directed, and deeply contextualized, as they focus on tasks and language relevant to real-world situations, such as writing technical reports, giving presentations, negotiating contracts, or conducting research.

ESP learners often bring prior disciplinary knowledge, skills, and experiences, which the teacher can leverage to design meaningful activities and discussions (Basturkmen, 2006). They are encouraged to reflect on their own performance, identify gaps in knowledge, and select strategies to overcome challenges, promoting learner autonomy and strategic competence (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). Moreover, ESP learners develop awareness of cultural, institutional, and professional norms in their field, which enhances their ability to communicate effectively and ethically within their target community (Strevens, 1988).

In essence, ESP learners are goal-oriented, active participants whose engagement is shaped by clear professional or academic purposes. Their motivation, prior knowledge, and reflective approach make them collaborative partners in the learning process, capable of applying language skills in authentic contexts.

The Teaching–Learning Interaction

The teaching–learning interaction in ESP is based on a *collaborative partnership* between the teacher and the learner. Effective ESP instruction relies on the teacher providing structure, resources, and guidance, while learners contribute their prior knowledge, disciplinary expertise, and motivation. This collaboration creates a shared space where linguistic, professional, and academic competencies can develop together, ensuring that learning is meaningful and contextually relevant.

As Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) note, the teacher often assumes the role of guide and co-learner, facilitating the learning process while supporting learners as they take a more active and responsible role in shaping their own learning outcomes. Learners are encouraged to engage with tasks, reflect on their progress, and apply strategies to meet real-world communicative demands.

This balance between guidance and autonomy ensures that learners acquire the language necessary for their specific fields, while also developing the confidence, strategic competence, and critical awareness required to use language effectively in authentic academic, professional, or occupational contexts. By fostering this interactive dynamic, ESP instruction becomes a purpose-driven process in which both teacher and learner contribute to achieving practical and meaningful outcomes.

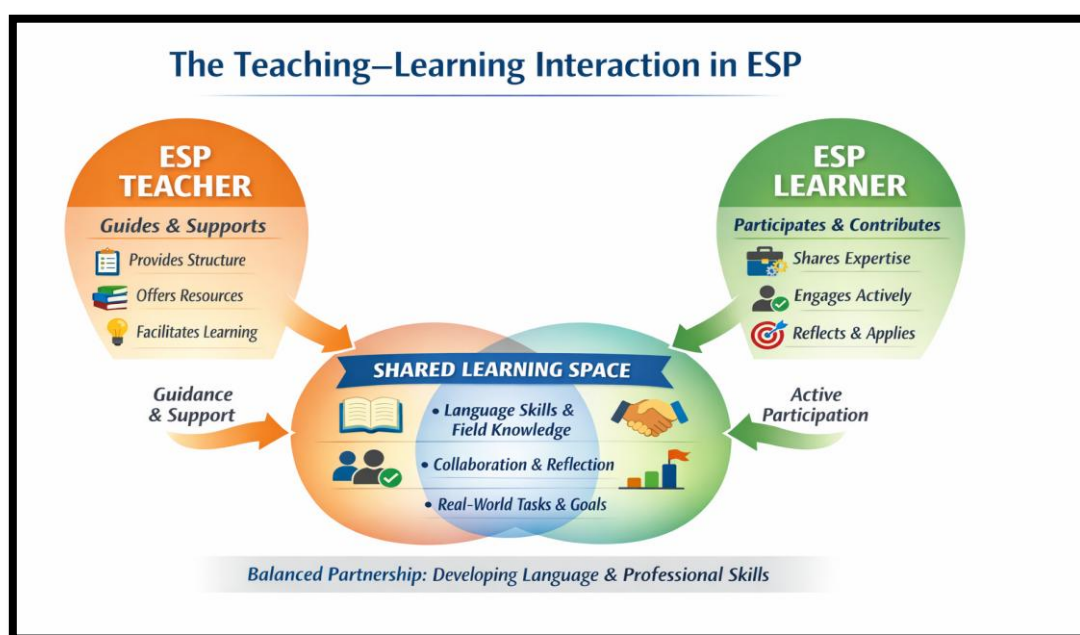


Figure 5: The ESP Teaching–Learning Interaction

4. STAGES IN THE ESP TEACHING PROCESS

Teaching English for Specific Purposes (ESP) is widely recognized as a systematic, goal-oriented process that integrates several interdependent stages to meet learners' specific needs. According to Dudley-Evans and St John (1998), these stages: *needs analysis*, *course design*, *materials selection and production*, *teaching and learning*, and *evaluation* form a cyclical framework in which each phase informs and enhances the others. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) also emphasize that the ESP teaching process is dynamic and flexible, adapting to learners' evolving goals and contexts. Needs analysis provides the foundation by identifying learners' target situation requirements (Munby, 1978), while course design and materials development ensure that instruction is relevant, authentic, and contextually meaningful. Teaching and learning then focus on practical engagement with discipline-specific tasks, and evaluation allows teachers to monitor

effectiveness and make continuous improvements. By following this structured yet adaptable framework, ESP instruction ensures that learners acquire not only language proficiency but also the professional or academic competencies required for real-world application.

4.1 Needs Analysis

Needs analysis is the foundation of any ESP course. It involves identifying and analyzing the learners' specific language requirements, professional goals, current proficiency levels, and preferred learning styles. For example, engineering students might need English for writing technical reports and describing processes, while medical students might need to understand patient records and medical terminology.

The ESP practitioner gathers data through *questionnaires*, *interviews*, and *observations* to design a course that truly responds to learners' real-world needs. This stage **defines** clear learning outcomes and determines the *target situation* (what learners will need to do in English) and the *present situation* (what they can currently do).

Example: In an English for IT course, needs analysis might reveal that students struggle with explaining technical processes in English, so the course will focus on describing functions, giving instructions, and using ICT terminology.

4.2 Course and Syllabus Design

Based on the findings of the needs analysis, the ESP practitioner develops a course framework that defines the content, structure, and learning objectives of the course. This framework guides the selection of topics, communicative skills, and genres that are directly relevant to the learners' academic or professional context (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998). Communicative skills may include tasks such as report writing, presentations, email correspondence, or negotiations, while genres are chosen to reflect authentic materials, such as research articles, technical manuals, or business letters.

For instance, in an English for Business course, students may practice drafting business proposals, preparing presentations, and employing polite negotiation strategies. In an English for Engineering course, learners may focus on describing technical procedures using precise structures, such as the passive voice ("The system was tested under varying conditions"), or interpreting diagrams and schematics. By aligning the syllabus with real-world tasks, the ESP course ensures that learners develop language competence and professional communication skills simultaneously, bridging the gap between classroom learning and the practical demands of their discipline (Basturkmen, 2006).

Example: A course for Business students might include modules on writing professional emails, negotiating, and delivering presentations. Objectives would specify what students should achieve, e.g., "Students will be able to write clear, concise, and polite business correspondence."

4.3 Materials Selection and Production

ESP courses often require customized materials that reflect the authentic language and tasks learners will encounter in their academic or professional contexts. Teachers may adapt existing resources or create new materials using real-life documents such as emails, technical manuals, research abstracts, reports, or case studies (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998). In this role, the ESP practitioner functions as a materials developer, ensuring that texts are not only linguistically appropriate but also professionally relevant and meaningful.

Students interact with these materials by analyzing language use, discourse conventions, and field-specific terminology, which helps them understand how knowledge is communicated within their discipline. This engagement connects classroom learning to real-world tasks, allowing learners to practice authentic communication, develop professional literacy, and acquire strategies for using English effectively in their specific domains (Basturkmen, 2006).

Example: In an English for Tourism course, learners might analyze real hotel brochures or simulate giving guided tours in English.

4.4 Teaching and Learning

The teaching and learning stage represents the practical implementation of the ESP course. Instruction is learner-centered, task-based, and oriented toward authentic communication, reflecting the specific needs and goals identified in the needs analysis (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998). Rather than relying on traditional, lecture-based methods, the ESP teacher assumes the role of facilitator and language consultant, guiding learners as they explore, experiment, and apply language in meaningful contexts.

Learners actively engage in discipline-specific tasks such as simulations, case studies, role plays, project work, and problem-solving exercises. For example, business students may conduct simulated negotiations or draft company reports, while computer science students might describe software processes or present project proposals in English. Medical students might practice patient interviews or write case histories, and engineering students could interpret technical manuals or produce lab reports.

Through these interactive activities, students develop both linguistic competence and professional skills, including strategic communication, technical writing, presentation abilities, and critical thinking. This approach emphasizes authenticity and practicality, ensuring that learners can transfer skills from the classroom to their academic or professional environments (Basturkmen, 2006). By actively participating in

the learning process, students become autonomous, reflective, and capable of applying English purposefully in real-world tasks, which is the central goal of ESP instruction.

Example: In an English for Engineering class, students might collaborate on mini-projects, such as designing and describing a technical prototype in English, allowing them to apply specialized vocabulary and structures meaningfully.

4.5 Evaluation

Assessment and evaluation in ESP are integral, continuous processes that ensure learners develop both language proficiency and the practical skills needed in their academic or professional fields. They are closely linked to the teaching cycle, feeding back into needs analysis, course design, and materials development to keep instruction relevant, adaptive, and goal-oriented (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987).

Evaluation measures the effectiveness of the course, teaching methods, and materials, as well as learner progress and satisfaction. It can take two main forms:

- **Formative evaluation**, conducted during the course, allows teachers to make immediate adjustments and provide feedback. Examples include class discussions, exercises, presentations, and draft submissions.
- **Summative evaluation**, conducted at the end of the course, assesses whether learning objectives have been met. This may include exams, project reports, research summaries, or simulated professional tasks.

Assessment in ESP goes beyond traditional testing. It is contextualized, and aligned with real-world tasks. Key approaches include:

- **Authentic Assessment:** Learners demonstrate their ability to use English in realistic contexts, such as drafting business proposals, preparing technical reports, or presenting research findings (Basturkmen, 2006; Strevens, 1988).
- **Self- and Peer-Assessment:** Learners reflect on their own or peers' work to identify strengths and areas for improvement, fostering autonomy, critical thinking, and strategic competence (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987).

Example: After delivering a semester-long (EAP) course, the teacher may gather feedback through questionnaires and classroom observation. If students report difficulty with academic writing conventions, future courses will include more guided writing tasks.

Dudley-Evans and St. Johns (1998) use circular representations to illustrate the five key stages of the ESP process: *needs analysis*, *course (and syllabus) design*, *materials selection (and production)*, *teaching and learning*, and *evaluation*. These stages are interdependent and cyclical phases that reflect the dynamic interaction between the different elements of the ESP course design.

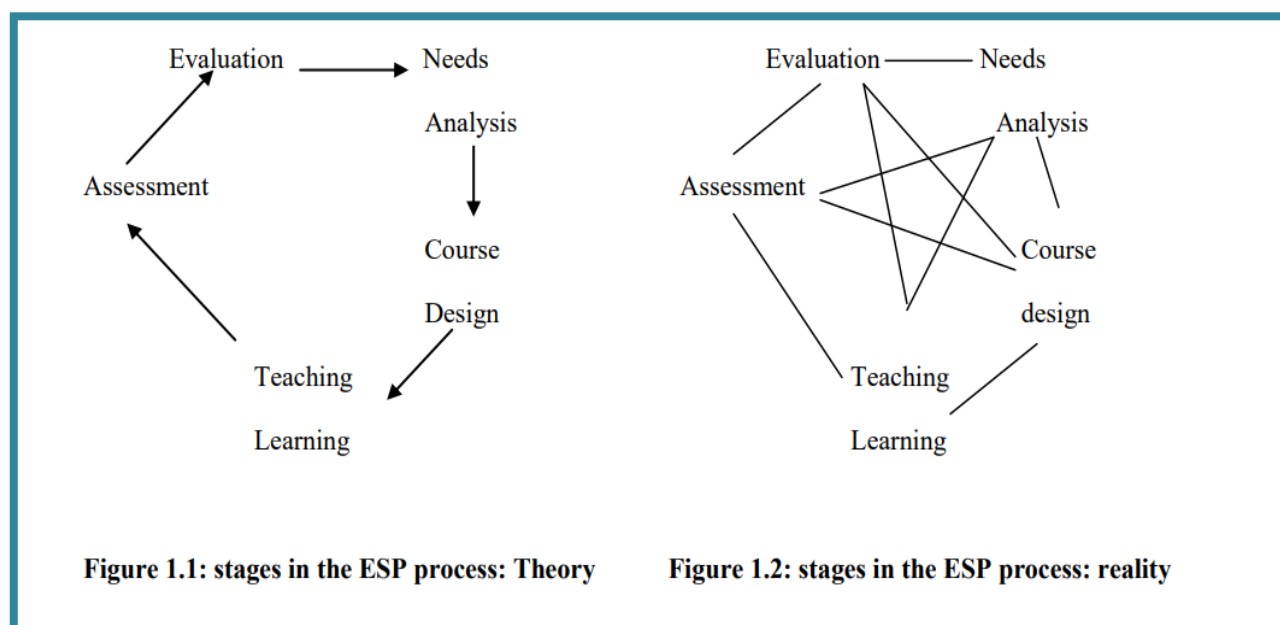


Figure 6: Stages in the ESP Process Theory/Reality

Figure 1.1 shows the stages of designing and implementing English for Specific Purposes (ESP) course.

Figure 1.2 illustrates that the stages of the ESP process are *interdependent* and *cyclical*, with each stage influencing and informing the others. This cyclical nature means that stages can be revisited, revised, or refined as necessary to ensure that the course remains relevant and effective. For example, insights gained during the evaluation stage can feed back into the needs analysis, helping to identify emerging learner requirements, while observations from the teaching stage may prompt adjustments in course design or materials selection. Such interactions highlight the dynamic and flexible character of ESP instruction, emphasizing its responsiveness to both learner progress and contextual demands.

Nevertheless, before an ESP course can be designed effectively, instructors must also consider additional contextual and institutional factors, such as learners' prior knowledge, available resources, time constraints, institutional policies, and the specific communicative tasks learners are expected to perform in their academic or professional settings. Taking these factors into account ensures that the course is practical, goal-oriented, and closely aligned with learners' real-world needs, which is central to the ESP approach (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998).

Miliani (1994) identified four key points that have to be examined and analysed before designing an ESP course, after exploring the Algerian context. These are:

- **Situation analysis:** This involves examining learners' general needs, institutional expectations, learner profiles, attitudes, and available materials. For example, engineering students may require reading technical manuals but have limited exposure to English, which affects how the course should be structured. Understanding these contextual factors allows the ESP practitioner to design a course that is both realistic and effective.
- **Setting aims and objectives:** Based on the results of needs identification and analysis, instructors formulate the course's general aims and specific objectives. These statements describe what learners are expected to achieve by the end of the course. For instance, students may be expected to write professional emails, prepare reports, or present project findings in English. Clear objectives provide direction for course design, teaching methods, and assessment.
- **Generating Syllabus Content:** Syllabus content should be sequenced logically, ensuring a smooth and coherent progression of learning (Benyelles, 2009:58). Materials must be connected so that learners can follow the course without gaps or confusion. For example, a tourism ESP course might progress from learning basic greetings, to handling reservations, describing tourist attractions, and creating brochures. A well-structured syllabus allows learners to build skills progressively and confidently.
- **Assessment:** Collecting data about the syllabus, either before or during course implementation, enables instructors to adjust content and improve its effectiveness. Assessment identifies strengths and weaknesses in the syllabus and ensures alignment with learners' needs and objectives. Tools such as surveys, quizzes, or diagnostic tasks can highlight gaps in technical vocabulary, writing skills, or communicative abilities, providing actionable feedback for syllabus refinement and future course design.

The teaching of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) is organized as a *cyclical, dynamic, and interdependent process*, consisting of five core stages: needs analysis, course and syllabus design, materials selection and production, teaching and learning, and evaluation. Each stage is closely linked to the others, meaning that decisions or insights in one stage can influence and reshape the others. For example, a needs analysis may identify gaps in learners' technical vocabulary, which informs the choice of syllabus content and materials. During teaching, observations of learner difficulties or successes may lead the teacher to modify instructional strategies or adapt materials. Evaluation, both formative and summative, provides feedback on learner progress and the effectiveness of the course itself, which can then trigger revisions in needs analysis, syllabus organization, or even course objectives. This interdependence ensures that ESP instruction is never rigid or linear but is instead flexible, reflective, and responsive to learners' evolving academic or professional requirements. By viewing the stages as a continuous loop rather than isolated steps, ESP practitioners can create courses that are not only goal-oriented but also adaptive, enabling learners to

develop both the language and professional skills necessary for real-world contexts (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Basturkmen, 2006).

ESP MASTERY WORKSHEET

ACTIVITY 1: INTERPRETING ESP OBJECTIVES

Decide whether it is True or False and justify your answer.

1. ESP objectives focus primarily on teaching specialized vocabulary unrelated to communicative performance. _____
2. The effectiveness of ESP objectives depends on how accurately they mirror the learners' professional or academic situations. _____
3. ESP objectives are fixed in advance and should not change once the course begins. _____
4. A mismatch between course objectives and learners' target needs can result in low motivation and reduced transferability of skills. _____
5. Needs analysis is optional in ESP because teachers already understand students' general language difficulties. _____

ACTIVITY 2: GOALS AND CONTEXTS IN ESP

Choose the most appropriate answer.

1. In ESP, objectives are most effective when they:
 - a) Are determined solely by institutional syllabi.
 - b) Translate target situation requirements into observable communicative competencies.
 - c) Focus only on accuracy and error correction.
2. When designing an ESP syllabus, prioritizing target discourse practices means:
 - a) Modelling the course after authentic language use in professional contexts.
 - b) Reducing the amount of discipline-specific vocabulary.
 - c) Avoiding input from subject-matter experts.
3. The primary value of needs analysis is that it:
 - a) Provides insight into how English functions in learners' real academic or occupational environments.
 - b) Identifies general grammar weaknesses common across disciplines.
 - c) Serves as a post-course evaluation tool.
4. In ESP course planning, "learning needs" refer to:
 - a) Preferred seating arrangements in class.
 - b) The skills, resources, and strategies required to achieve target performance.
 - c) The psychological attitude of the teacher.
5. When objectives are misaligned with learners' target situations, the most likely outcome is:
 - a) Higher satisfaction with generic materials.

- b) Limited relevance and ineffective language transfer to real-life tasks.
- c) Increased grammatical precision.

ACTIVITY 3: ESP OBJECTIVE DESIGN

Complete each sentence with the correct concept or term.

1. ESP is an approach to language teaching that begins with a systematic _____ analysis.
2. Objectives in ESP specify what learners should be able to _____ in target communicative contexts.
3. The two main branches of ESP are _____ and _____ purposes.
4. A well-designed ESP course translates _____ needs into instructional goals.
5. ESP objectives are expressed in terms of _____, not just knowledge of linguistic form.

ACTIVITY 4: DIAGNOSING NEEDS AND OBJECTIVES

Scenario: A group of logistics students must write shipment reports and interact with foreign suppliers. The ESP teacher initially uses general business materials focusing on advertising and marketing. After midterm feedback, learners report the content is irrelevant to their future work.

→ Identify the **needs** overlooked and propose how the **objectives** should be reformulated to meet the learners' target communicative requirements.

ACTIVITY 5: REDEFINING CLASSROOM ROLES

Decide if each statement is True (T) or False (F) and explain briefly.

1. The ESP teacher's role ends once materials are chosen from published textbooks.
2. ESP teachers act as facilitators who adapt and design content to reflect learners' contexts.
3. The ESP learner plays a passive role, relying entirely on teacher direction.
4. Collaboration with subject specialists enhances the teacher's understanding of authentic discourse.
5. Both teacher and learner share responsibility for maintaining course relevance.

ACTIVITY 6: DYNAMICS OF ESP ROLES

Choose the best answer for each item.

1. The ESP teacher functions most effectively when acting as:
 - a) A content authority disconnected from learners' fields.
 - b) A co-designer integrating linguistic and disciplinary insights.
 - c) A grammar coach emphasizing accuracy over authenticity.
2. Learner autonomy in ESP is essential because:
 - a) Learners possess insider knowledge of their discipline that shapes course focus.

- b) It reduces the teacher's workload.
 - c) It allows the teacher to skip evaluation.
3. When the ESP teacher revises course materials after receiving learner feedback, this reflects:
 - a) A learner-centered and adaptive teaching philosophy.
 - b) An inconsistent approach to course planning.
 - c) A disregard for initial objectives.
 4. The ESP teacher as "researcher" implies that they:
 - a) Continuously investigate learners' discourse practices to improve instruction.
 - b) Collect data only for publication purposes.
 - c) Focus on linguistic theory over classroom practice.
 5. The relationship between ESP teacher and learner is best described as:
 - a) Transactional and hierarchical.
 - b) Symbiotic and collaborative, where both co-construct knowledge.
 - c) Detached and impersonal.

ACTIVITY 7: ROLES AND RESPONSIBILITIES

Insert the correct terms.

1. The ESP teacher is often seen as a _____ who guides rather than dictates learning.
2. ESP learners are expected to contribute their _____ expertise to contextualize language learning.
3. The teacher's role includes designing or adapting _____ that align with target communicative situations.
4. The learner's increasing _____ ensures responsibility for strategy use and progress.
5. Effective ESP learning depends on ongoing _____ between teacher and learner.

ACTIVITY 8: SHARED ROLES IN PRACTICE

Scenario: In a course for law students, learners request case-based writing practice. The teacher modifies tasks to include drafting legal correspondence and invites students to contribute authentic documents.
 → Identify how both teacher and learner roles evolve in this situation. What pedagogical principles are demonstrated?

ACTIVITY 9: UNDERSTANDING ESP STAGES

Mark each statement as True (T) or False (F).

1. Needs analysis is a one-time process completed before course design.
2. Materials development occurs independently of needs analysis results.
3. Evaluation in ESP examines both learner achievement and course effectiveness.

4. The ESP process follows a closed linear model with no stage overlap.
5. Teaching in ESP integrates feedback loops that influence course redesign.

ACTIVITY 10: THE ESP FRAMEWORK

Select the best answer.

1. The **cyclical** nature of the ESP process means that:
 - a) Evaluation feeds back into future needs analysis and syllabus revision.
 - b) Each stage functions independently with no overlap.
 - c) Materials development is unrelated to evaluation outcomes.
2. A **comprehensive needs analysis** typically includes:
 - a) Observation of target tasks, interviews, and analysis of authentic documents.
 - b) Random sampling of general English textbooks.
 - c) Post-course reflection only.
3. **Evaluation** in ESP differs from general English testing because it:
 - a) Focuses on learners' ability to perform authentic tasks within specific contexts.
 - b) Emphasizes grammatical error counting.
 - c) Measures only vocabulary knowledge.
4. The **course design** stage transforms:
 - a) Needs analysis findings into structured objectives, syllabus, and assessment plans.
 - b) Evaluation results into teaching materials.
 - c) Materials into learner profiles.
5. Neglecting the **evaluation** stage of an ESP course may result in:
 - a) Limited evidence for course improvement and unverified learner outcomes.
 - b) Greater teaching efficiency.
 - c) Better student satisfaction through reduced testing.

ACTIVITY 11: SEQUENCING ESP STAGES

Complete each statement with one appropriate term.

1. The ESP process begins with _____, identifying target communicative demands.
2. Results of this stage are translated into a coherent _____ that defines learning objectives.
3. _____ creation ensures that materials reflect real-life discourse.
4. The _____ phase operationalizes the syllabus through active classroom implementation.
5. _____ concludes the cycle, providing data for refinement and future planning.

ACTIVITY 12: DIAGNOSING A FLAWED ESP PROCESS

Scenario: A teacher designs a course for IT students using a generic academic English syllabus. Students later report that the lessons do not reflect workplace communication, such as email exchanges or project briefings.

→ Which stages of the ESP process were insufficiently addressed? How could revisiting these stages improve the course's relevance and effectiveness?

NEEDS ANALYSIS

“What distinguishes ESP from General English is not the existence of a need as such but rather an awareness of the need.”

— Hutchinson, T., & Waters, A. (1987).

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

1. Define Needs Analysis and its importance in ESP
2. Differentiate between Target Needs and Learning Needs
3. Identify common types of Needs Analysis
4. Explain the procedures of Needs Analysis

1. HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF NEEDS ANALYSIS

The historical development of needs analysis in ESP can be better understood when presented in a clear chronological sequence. During the *mid-twentieth century*, language teaching was largely dominated by general English and structural syllabi that focused on grammar and vocabulary progression rather than on learners' purposes. However, after World War II, major socio-economic changes including rapid scientific growth, technological advancement, and the expansion of international communication created a strong demand for English as a tool for specific academic and professional functions. Scientists, engineers, and students needed English to read research articles, write reports, and participate in technical discussions rather than for everyday social interaction. These contextual pressures created the conditions for the emergence of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) and, consequently, for the systematic development of needs analysis.

Before ESP became formally established, an important precursor appeared in the 1920s through the work of Michael West in West Bengal, India. West argued that language teaching should be based on what learners need to do with the language in real situations and on the most efficient ways to achieve those goals within limited instructional time. Although he did not use the term *needs analysis* in its modern technical sense, he introduced the fundamental principle that language instruction should be purposeful, selective, and learner-centred. His work therefore represents an early conceptual foundation for later ESP developments.

The **1960s** marked a turning point with the emergence of ESP as a distinct field. This shift is often associated with the *Makerere Conference* Conference (Commonwealth Education Committee in 1961), where language teaching began to move from general proficiency to discipline-specific communication. During this period, register analysis and early discourse analysis influenced syllabus design, and researchers

attempted to identify the linguistic features of scientific and technical English. Although these early approaches focused more on analysing texts than on analysing learners, they provided the methodological basis for more comprehensive models of needs analysis.

In the **1970s**, needs analysis became more systematic and explicitly learner-centred. Munby's model of communicative syllabus design introduced a detailed framework for identifying target situation needs, including communicative events, participants, settings, and required skills. This period marked a shift from analysing language forms alone to analysing communicative functions and real-life situations. At the same time, ESP practitioners began to recognize the importance of the present situation, that is, learners' current proficiency levels, difficulties, and learning conditions, alongside their target needs.

By the **1980s**, needs analysis had evolved into a multidimensional and cyclical process. Scholars such as Hutchinson and Waters argued that needs analysis should include not only target needs (what learners must do in the target context) but also learning needs, which concern how learners can most effectively acquire the language. This represented a shift from a purely product-oriented view to a more process-oriented and learner-centred approach. Later, Dudley-Evans and St John expanded the concept further by incorporating environmental factors, stakeholder perspectives, and ongoing evaluation, establishing needs analysis as a continuous component of course design rather than a one-time preliminary stage.

Today, needs analysis is recognized as the foundation of ESP methodology. It integrates insights from applied linguistics, discourse analysis, communicative language teaching, and curriculum design. Its historical evolution reflects a broader transformation in language education from viewing language as an abstract system to treating it as a practical tool for specific academic, professional, and social purposes.

2. DEFINITION OF NEEDS ANALYSIS

In ESP, the term “*needs*” in needs analysis can have different meanings or types. It often refers to the learner's study or job requirements, meaning what learners are expected to achieve by the end of a course. This represents a goal-oriented definition, where needs are closely aligned with course objectives. Widdowson (1990) adds that needs can also refer to what learners must do to actually acquire the language, which represents a process-oriented view connected to transitional learning behaviors. Additionally, needs can be defined from a broader social perspective, as what a user institution or society considers necessary or desirable for learners to acquire through a language program (Mackay & Mountford, 1978).

Needs analysis has been defined in various ways within ESP and EAP scholarship, reflecting the evolution of the field from a focus on specialized language forms to a broader concern with learners, contexts, and learning processes. Although scholars differ in emphasis, they all view needs analysis as the fundamental mechanism that links language teaching to the specific academic or professional purposes for

which English is required. Early definitions concentrated mainly on identifying the linguistic features of target discourse, while later approaches incorporated learners' goals, proficiency levels, learning strategies, and institutional constraints. As a result, needs analysis is now understood as a multidimensional and dynamic process that informs decisions about course objectives, content selection, teaching methodology, and assessment. The following definitions by major ESP scholars illustrate how the concept has been conceptualized and expanded over time.

Robinson defines needs analysis as a central and indispensable stage in ESP course design. For her, it is not limited to identifying linguistic content but involves determining the objectives of the course, the skills required, and the appropriate teaching methodology. She also emphasizes that needs analysis should be ongoing and cyclical, forming part of the formative evaluation of a course rather than being conducted only at the beginning.

According to **Strevens**, needs analysis is the necessary starting point for any language programme designed for specific purposes. He links it closely to the identification of the characteristics of specialist discourse, arguing that understanding the nature of language used in particular professional or academic fields is essential for selecting relevant course content.

Hutchinson and Waters view needs analysis as the foundation of any ESP course, stating that all decisions about content and methodology should be based on learners' needs. They broaden the concept by distinguishing between *target needs* (what learners need to do in the target situation) and *learning needs* (how learners can most effectively learn). Their definition moves beyond a purely objective analysis of language to include a learner-centred and process-oriented perspective.

Hamp-Lyons considers needs analysis a fundamental component of ESP and EAP course design. She highlights its role in aligning course objectives, materials, and assessment with the actual communicative demands placed on learners in academic contexts. For her, needs analysis ensures coherence between teaching practices and real academic tasks.

Dudley-Evans and St John provide one of the most comprehensive definitions. They describe needs analysis as the process of establishing both the "*what*" (the content and skills to be taught) and the "*how*" (the teaching methodology). They further explain that needs analysis aims to develop a comprehensive understanding of the learner and the learning context. It involves identifying learners as individuals with specific goals, motivations, and expectations; analysing them as language users who must perform particular communicative tasks in defined target situations; assessing them as language learners with distinct proficiency levels, strengths, and weaknesses; and examining the learning environment, including institutional constraints, available resources, and teaching conditions. This multidimensional perspective

allows course designers to interpret data accurately and to make informed decisions about course content, methodology, and assessment. Their model presents needs analysis as a multidimensional and interpretative process.

Munby approaches needs analysis through his *Communicative Needs Processor*, a detailed framework for identifying target situation requirements. His model specifies communicative events, participants, settings, interaction types, and required skills, making needs analysis a systematic and data-driven procedure for syllabus design.

3. OBJECTIVES AND IMPORTANCE OF NEEDS ANALYSIS

Needs analysis serves several interrelated objectives that make it the methodological foundation of ESP course design. One primary objective is to identify the *target situation requirements*, that is, the communicative tasks learners must perform in their academic or professional contexts. This includes determining the relevant skills (e.g., reading research articles, writing reports, participating in meetings), the genres they will encounter, and the level of proficiency required. As emphasized by Munby, analysing communicative events, participants, settings, and interaction types allows course designers to specify the linguistic and pragmatic competencies needed for effective performance.

A second objective is to analyse the *present situation*, which involves assessing learners' current proficiency levels, strengths, weaknesses, and previous learning experiences. This diagnostic dimension ensures that the course bridges the gap between what learners can do and what they need to be able to do. In this respect, Hutchinson and Waters distinguish between target needs and learning needs, highlighting that effective course design must consider not only the end goals but also the processes through which learners can realistically achieve them.

Needs analysis also aims to understand learners as individuals with specific motivations, expectations, and learning strategies. According to Dudley-Evans and St John, this involves examining learners as people, as language users, and as language learners, as well as analysing the learning environment, including institutional constraints, time allocation, available resources, and stakeholder expectations. This comprehensive perspective allows for informed pedagogical decisions that are sensitive to contextual realities.

Another important objective is to provide a basis for syllabus design, materials development, methodology, and assessment. Strevens considers needs analysis the necessary starting point for selecting relevant language content, while Hamp-Lyons highlights its role in aligning teaching practices and

assessment with real academic tasks. Without such alignment, ESP courses risk becoming general English courses with specialized vocabulary rather than truly purpose-driven programmes.

In terms of importance, needs analysis ensures that ESP courses are relevant, efficient, and learner-centred. It prevents the inclusion of unnecessary content and focuses instruction on what learners actually need to perform in their target contexts. Robinson further stresses that needs analysis should be ongoing and cyclical, forming part of the formative evaluation of the course. Continuous needs analysis allows teachers to adjust objectives, materials, and teaching strategies as learners' needs evolve, thereby increasing the effectiveness and flexibility of the programme.

Needs analysis is essential because it links language teaching to real-world communication, informs all stages of course design, supports contextualized and authentic learning, and enhances the validity of assessment. It is therefore not merely a preliminary step but a dynamic process that underpins the entire ESP teaching and learning cycle.

4. TYPES OF NEEDS

Finding out about and analyzing the needs of the students is vital in ESP teaching. In fact one of the main contributions of ESP to the wider world of English Language Teaching has been the development of thorough needs analysis. John Munby's *Communicative Syllabus Design* (1978) is, probably, the most thorough and widely known work on needs analysis. In his work, Munby introduced a very well detailed set of procedures for discovering target situation needs. He called this set of procedures the *Communication Needs Processor (CNP)*. The CNP is formed by a group of questions related to key communication variables (topic, participants, medium etc.) which can be used to spot the target language needs of any group of learners. This work was considered to be a turning point in the development of ESP. Thanks to the elaboration of the CNP, it became easy to identify the needs of any group of learners.

However, the CNP proved to be a turning point in quite another way. By taking the analysis to its logical conclusion, it showed the ultimate sterility of a language-centered approach, to needs analysis. Why was this so? The answer lies in 'what we mean by needs?' In the language-centered approach, the answer to this question would be 'the ability to comprehend and/or produce the linguistic features of the target situation', for example the ability to understand the passive voice. Thus, what the CNP produces is a list of the linguistic features of the target situation'. But there is much more to needs than this.

Hutchinson & Waters (1993) make clearer distinction that needs consist of two things namely *target needs* and *learning needs*.

1. Target Needs

They refer to what learners need to know and be able to do in English in order to function effectively in their target academic, professional, or occupational situations.

Target needs include three useful terms that is *necessities*, *lacks*, and *wants*.

- **Necessities:** are the type of need which is determined by the demands of the target situation. It means that what learners have to know is how to function effectively in the target situation.

→Engineering students need to understand technical manuals and write laboratory reports.

- **Lacks:** are gaps between the target proficiency and the existing proficiency of learners. Lacks can be organized only after teachers or course designers already know the needs of learners.

→Students may understand general English but lack technical vocabulary related to engineering.

- **Wants:** concern with the awareness of needs that specify the ESP situation. Awareness is a kind of perception which may vary according to one's viewpoint.

→Students may want to improve speaking skills for presentations, even if reading technical texts is more essential.



Figure 7: Target Needs in ESP

2. Learning needs

They refer to the ways in which learners can most effectively acquire the language skills required to meet the target needs. While target needs focus on the *what* and *why* of language use in real contexts, learning needs focus on the *how* i.e. the strategies, resources, and support that help learners bridge the gap between their current proficiency and the requirements of the target situation.

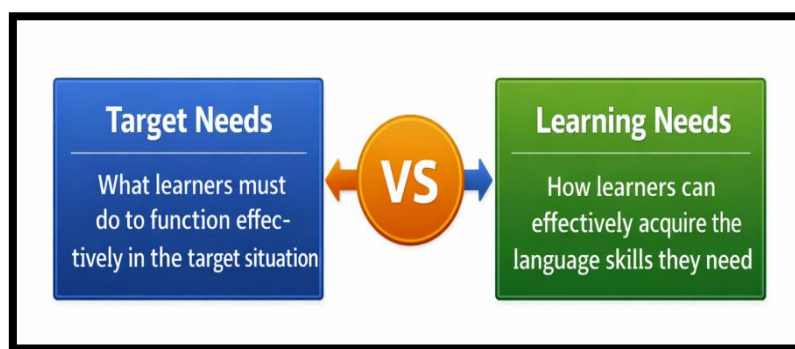


Figure 8: Learning Needs in ESP

5. TYPES OF NEEDS ANALYSIS IN ESP

Needs analysis in ESP can take several forms, depending on the purpose of the study and the perspective adopted. Each type provides unique insights that help course designers align instruction with learners' actual requirements and the demands of the target situation (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998). The most commonly recognized types of needs analysis include *Target Situation Analysis*, *Present Situation Analysis*, *Learning Situation Analysis*, *Means Analysis*, and *Stakeholder Analysis*

▪ **Target Situation Analysis (TSA)**

Target situation analysis examines the language and communication skills learners need to perform effectively in their specific academic, professional, or occupational context. It focuses on the tasks, genres, and communicative functions required in the target situation, guiding the selection of relevant course content. For example, business students may need to write professional emails, make presentations, and negotiate contracts, while medical students may need to interpret clinical reports and communicate with patients.

Why is the language needed?

- for study;
- for work;
- for training;
- for a combination of these;
- for some other purpose, e.g. status, examination, promotion.

How will the language be used?

- medium: *speaking, writing, reading etc.*;
- channel: *e.g. telephone, face to face*;
- types of text or discourse: *e.g. academic texts, lectures, informal conversations, technical manuals, catalogues.*

What will the content areas be?

- subjects: *e.g. medicine, biology, architecture, shipping, commerce, engineering;*
- level: *e.g. technician, craftsman, postgraduate, secondary school.*

Who will the learner use the language with?

- native speakers or non-native;
- level of knowledge of receiver: *e.g. expert, layman, student;*
- relationship: *e.g. colleague, teacher, customer, superior, subordinate.*

Where will the language be used?

- physical setting: *e.g. office, lecture theatre, hotel, workshop, library;*
- human context: *e.g. alone, meetings, demonstrations, on telephone;*
- linguistic context: *e.g. in own country, abroad.*

When will the language be used?

- concurrently with the ESP course or subsequently;
- frequently, seldom, in small amounts, in large chunks

- **Present Situation Analysis (PSA)**

Present situation analysis assesses the current language proficiency and communicative abilities of learners, comparing them with the requirements identified in the target situation analysis. This comparison identifies gaps or lacks (the areas where learners' existing skills fall short of what is needed). For instance, students may understand general English but lack technical vocabulary or the ability to produce professional writing. By identifying these gaps, teachers can focus instruction on the areas that require the most attention.

- **Learning Situation Analysis (LSA)**

Learning situation analysis investigates the context and conditions that influence how learners acquire language, including their previous learning experiences, cultural background, motivation, attitudes, expectations, preferences, and learning styles. For example, some learners may prefer task-based activities and short practice sessions, while others may benefit more from collaborative projects or online exercises. Understanding these factors allows teachers to adapt instructional strategies and create a learning environment that maximizes engagement and effectiveness.

- **Means Analysis**

Means analysis examines the resources, constraints, and conditions that may affect the design, implementation, and evaluation of the ESP course. These factors include the curriculum, syllabus, teaching materials, instructors, pedagogical methods, assessment strategies, classroom time, budget, facilities, and technological support. For example, limited access to digital resources or insufficient classroom hours can influence how activities are planned and delivered. By evaluating these means, teachers can ensure the course is feasible and sustainable within the given institutional context.

- **Stakeholder Analysis**

Stakeholder analysis considers the perspectives of parties other than learners, such as teachers, employers, course designers, or institutional administrators. This ensures that the ESP course meets the expectations of all stakeholders and balances competing priorities. For instance, employers may emphasize professional writing and reporting skills, while learners may prioritize improving speaking fluency or presentation skills. Incorporating stakeholder input helps to create a course that is both relevant and broadly supported.

6. PROCEDURES OF NEEDS ANALYSIS

Needs Analysis (NA) is a systematic process that identifies what learners need to learn, why they need it, and how best to help them achieve it. According to Hutchinson & Waters (1987) and Dudley-Evans & St John (1998), the procedure typically involves the following steps:

- **Identify the Target Situation**

The first step involves understanding the specific context in which learners will use English and the tasks, skills, and competencies required. This includes analyzing the workplace, academic, or professional setting to determine what learners must be able to do. For example, engineering students may need to read technical manuals, write laboratory reports, and communicate effectively with colleagues in English. Target situation analysis helps course designers focus on realistic, discipline-specific language requirements.

- **Assess Learners' Present Situation**

Next, the current language proficiency of learners is evaluated, including their strengths, weaknesses, and prior knowledge. This step identifies what learners already know and what they still need to master. For instance, students may understand general English but lack discipline-specific vocabulary, academic reading skills, or listening comprehension. Present situation analysis allows teachers to **diagnose gaps** and plan instruction that addresses learners' immediate needs.

- **Identify Deficiencies or Gaps**

This step involves comparing learners' current abilities with the demands of the target situation to highlight specific areas that need improvement. For example, learners may be unable to write professional emails or technical reports required in their future careers. Recognizing these gaps helps prioritize content and ensures that the course focuses on essential skills rather than general English.

- **Determine Learning Needs**

Learning needs focus on how learners can best acquire the necessary skills, taking into account learning styles, motivation, previous experiences, and available resources. For example, students may benefit from task-based activities, collaborative projects, or guided practice to improve technical writing or presentation skills. This step ensures that teaching methods are aligned with learners' preferences and optimized for effective learning.

▪ Consider Stakeholder Perspectives

Learners' perceptions alone may not capture all requirements for a successful course. This step involves considering the expectations of teachers, course designers, employers, or institutional administrators. For example, employers may emphasize accuracy in report writing, while learners may prioritize improving oral communication. Incorporating these perspectives helps balance competing priorities and makes the course relevant to all stakeholders.

▪ Select Data Collection Methods

Accurate and comprehensive data are essential for effective needs analysis. Teachers must choose appropriate tools and techniques to gather information, including questionnaires, surveys, interviews, classroom observations, and analysis of authentic texts or professional materials. Using multiple methods ensures a holistic understanding of learners' needs, covering both target and learning situations.

▪ Analyze and Report Findings

The final step involves organizing, interpreting, and reporting the collected data to inform course design. Analysis highlights priorities, identifies skill gaps, and recommends teaching strategies. For instance, if the analysis reveals that learners' highest priorities are technical vocabulary, report writing, and task-based speaking, the course can be structured around these areas. Clear reporting ensures that the course is aligned with both learners' needs and the contextual demands of their discipline or profession.

Table 5

Procedures of Needs Analysis

Step	Focus	Key Activities	Example
1. Identify Target Situation	Context in which learners will use English	Analyze workplace/academic/professional tasks, skills, and competencies	Medical students: read patient charts, write clinical case reports, discuss treatment plans
2. Assess Present Situation	Learners' current proficiency and abilities	Evaluate strengths, weaknesses, prior knowledge	Tourism students: understand general English but cannot handle hotel guest interactions or give guided tours in English
3. Identify Gaps/Deficiencies	Differences between current abilities and target requirements	Compare present situation with target situation	Computer Science students: can read general English but cannot write technical documentation or comment code in English
4. Determine Learning Needs	How learners can best acquire required skills	Consider learning styles, motivation, prior knowledge, and resources	Law students: benefit from case studies, role-play mock trials, and legal document drafting exercises
5. Consider Stakeholder Perspectives	Expectations of others (teachers, employers, institutions)	Collect opinions, balance priorities	Hospitality employers: emphasize guest communication skills; learners want to improve presentation skills for conferences
6. Select Data Collection Methods	Tools to gather accurate information	Questionnaires, surveys, interviews, observations, text analysis	Use surveys with students, interviews with hospital staff, observation of tour guides, analysis of technical manuals
7. Analyze and Report Findings	Organize and interpret data to inform course design	Prioritize needs, recommend strategies, guide syllabus	ESP course focuses on medical report writing, guided tour English, legal drafting, or coding documentation depending on discipline

Procedures of Needs Analysis in ESP



MAPPING LEARNERS' NEEDS IN ESP

	Statement	Target Needs (Necessities)	Lacks	Wants	Learning Needs
1	Learners need to participate in technical meetings with non-native speakers				
2	Students struggle to infer meaning from specialized texts in their field				
3	Learners would like to feel confident speaking in online international conferences				
4	Students must understand the structure of formal lab reports				
5	Learners find it hard to summarize lengthy professional articles accurately				
6	Students want to improve small talk skills with colleagues during breaks				
7	Learners need to write clear and concise technical instructions				
8	Students cannot yet use discipline-specific collocations correctly in writing				
9	Learners would like to reduce hesitation when giving impromptu presentations				
10	Students must participate in collaborative projects in English to meet workplace expectations				

WHICH STEP OF NEEDS ANALYSIS?

	Action	Step of Needs Analysis (to be filled by students)
1	Determining what classroom activities will help learners bridge gaps in skills	
2	Summarizing the collected data to suggest priorities for the course syllabus	
3	Observing learners during a simulation of real-life tasks	
4	Interviewing employers to understand workplace expectations	
5	Identifying which vocabulary and communication skills learners lack for their target situation	
6	Reviewing learners' current English skills through a placement test	
7	Listing the tasks learners must perform in their academic or professional context	
8	Discussing with teachers and course designers which skills are most important	
9	Designing questionnaires to collect learners' opinions about their learning preferences	
10	Comparing learners' abilities with the demands of their future workplace	

5. DATA COLLECTION METHODS IN NEEDS ANALYSIS

Needs analysis is a foundational step in designing ESP courses. Its purpose is to systematically identify the language skills, knowledge, and learning priorities of the target learners, ensuring that instruction is relevant and effective (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998). Central to NA is data collection, which provides empirical evidence about learners' needs, professional tasks, and expectations. Choosing appropriate methods ensures that course design is aligned with actual learner requirements and real-world demands. The most common data collection methods in ESP needs analysis include:

INTERVIEWS

Interviews are a core qualitative instrument in Needs Analysis within ESP. They are defined as systematic, purposeful conversations designed to elicit detailed information about learners' target communicative practices, present language proficiency, perceived difficulties, and professional goals. Unlike questionnaires, interviews allow for probing, clarification, and contextualization, which results in richer and more nuanced data.

From an ESP perspective, interviews operationalize the learner-centered philosophy proposed by Hutchinson & Waters, where course design is grounded in the learners' target situation and learning needs. They enable researchers to move beyond surface descriptions by identifying communicative events, discourse genres, interactional roles, sociolinguistic constraints, and affective factors (such as meeting anxiety).

Similarly, Munby emphasizes that identifying target communicative events (e.g., negotiating, reporting, persuading) requires direct consultation with stakeholders, which interviews facilitate effectively.

▪ Types of Interviews in ESP Needs Analysis

In Needs Analysis, *structured interviews* use a fixed set of pre-planned questions asked in the same order to all participants, which ensures consistency and makes the data easier to compare across respondents, but they offer limited flexibility for probing deeper into unexpected issues.

Semi-structured interviews follow an interview guide with key questions while allowing the researcher to ask follow-up questions, seek clarification, and explore emerging themes; this type is the most widely used in ESP because it balances comparability with depth and captures discipline-specific language needs.

Unstructured interviews are open, conversational, and exploratory, with no rigid question order, enabling participants to speak freely about their experiences and communicative practices; they are particularly useful

in the early stages of needs analysis when the researcher seeks insider perspectives and has limited prior knowledge of the target discourse community.

▪ **Advantages and limitations of interviews**

Interviews offer several important advantages in Needs Analysis. They provide rich, detailed, and context-specific data about learners' target tasks, difficulties, motivations, and expectations. Because the researcher can ask follow-up questions, interviews allow for clarification and deeper exploration of answers, which helps uncover real communicative practices and discipline-specific language features that may not appear in questionnaires. They are also useful for identifying learners' attitudes, affective factors, and preferred learning strategies, making them a valuable tool for designing relevant ESP courses.

However, interviews also have some limitations. They are time-consuming to conduct, record, transcribe, and analyze, especially with large groups. The quality of the data depends on the researcher's interviewing skills, and poorly conducted interviews may lead to bias or incomplete information. In addition, the data are often subjective and difficult to quantify, and participants may describe what they think they need rather than what they actually do in real communicative situations.

▪ **Needs Analysis Interviews for a Business English Course**

A researcher conducts semi-structured interviews with employees in an international sales department to identify their English language needs. Sample questions include:

-“Which tasks in your job require English the most?”

-“Do you write emails, reports, or proposals in English? What difficulties do you face?”

-“Do you participate in meetings or negotiations in English? How comfortable are you?”

-“Which skills (speaking, writing, listening, reading) do you want to improve the most?”

SURVEYS AND QUESTIONNAIRES

Surveys and questionnaires are systematic, structured tools used to gather information from a large group of participants in a relatively short time. They are particularly useful in educational contexts because they allow researchers or course designers to capture both *quantitative data* (numerical ratings, rankings, frequencies) and *qualitative data* (open-ended responses, comments, explanations). Quantitative data can show trends, such as how confident students feel about specific skills, while qualitative data can reveal nuanced insights, such as why they struggle with certain tasks or what motivates them to learn.

The main purpose of using surveys and questionnaires in ESP is to identify learners' needs, preferences, and skill gaps, so that instructional content can be targeted more effectively. For example, learners may report their self-assessed proficiency levels, indicate which tasks they find most challenging, or specify their preferred learning strategies (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998). By analyzing these responses, course designers can prioritize content, decide on teaching methods, and tailor activities to address the most pressing needs of the target population.

▪ **Example in Journalism**

Consider a journalism program aiming to improve students' English skills for reporting and media writing. A survey for journalism students might include questions like:

○ **Familiarity with professional terminology:**

-“How confident are you in understanding terms like *press release*, *editorial*, *byline*, or *lede*?”

(Options: Very confident / Somewhat confident / Not confident)

○ **Writing and reporting skills:**

-“How confident are you in writing news articles in English?”

-“Which type of writing do you find most challenging? (e.g., feature stories, news reports, opinion pieces)”

○ **Learning preferences:**

-“Which learning methods help you most? (e.g., workshops, peer review, online tutorials, guided reading)”

▪ **Advantages and limitations of Questionnaires and surveys**

Questionnaires and surveys are highly efficient tools for collecting information from large groups of learners. They provide standardized questions that allow for consistent comparison and can gather both quantitative data (e.g., confidence ratings, task frequency) and qualitative data (e.g., open-ended comments). Anonymity often encourages honest responses, and the structured format makes analysis straightforward, enabling instructors to identify trends, priorities, and general patterns in learners' needs. They are also flexible, as they can be administered online, on paper, or in hybrid formats, making them suitable for various educational and professional contexts.

However, surveys and questionnaires have limitations. They may produce superficial or incomplete responses, especially when questions are closed-ended, and participants may misinterpret unclear questions. Low response rates or self-report bias can affect the reliability of the results, as learners may overestimate their skills or provide socially desirable answers. Additionally, surveys cannot capture the dynamic interactions or hidden challenges that emerge in group discussions or interviews, and there is limited opportunity to probe deeper into participants' answers. Despite these drawbacks, when carefully designed, surveys remain a valuable tool for identifying learners' needs and informing course design.

FOCUS GROUPS

Focus groups are qualitative research tools where a small group of participants (typically 6–12) engages in a guided discussion led by a facilitator. Unlike surveys, which collect individual responses, focus groups generate interactive data, where participants build on each other’s ideas, express disagreements, and negotiate meanings. This interaction often uncovers shared attitudes, challenges, and priorities that might not appear in one-on-one interviews or questionnaires. Key advantages of focus groups in ESP include:

- **Exploring collective perspectives:** Participants often highlight common difficulties, such as understanding professional terminology or performing discipline-specific tasks.
- **Identifying hidden or unspoken needs:** In discussion, learners may reveal struggles they hadn’t thought to report individually.
- **Encouraging negotiation of ideas:** Students compare their experiences, clarify misunderstandings, and reach a consensus on priority learning needs.
- **Providing context-rich insights:** Unlike surveys, discussions reveal not only what learners struggle with but also *why* and *how* these challenges occur.
- **Supporting curriculum design:** Insights from focus groups help instructors prioritize content, design authentic tasks, and select appropriate teaching methods.

- **Process of Conducting a Focus Group**

In a focus group, the facilitator begins by preparing open-ended questions that target participants’ skills, professional tasks, and learning preferences. During the session, participants discuss these topics freely, sharing experiences and opinions, while the facilitator ensures that everyone has an opportunity to contribute and that the discussion remains focused on the objectives. The session is typically recorded or carefully noted, allowing for later *thematic analysis* to identify common challenges, priorities, and needs that can inform curriculum or course design.

▪ **Sample Focus Group for Law Students**

Purpose: To explore law students' English learning needs for legal practice.

Participants: 8–10 law students from different years of study.

Table 6

Sample Focus Group for Law Students

Focus Area	Questions
<i>Reading and Understanding Legal Texts</i>	- Which types of legal documents in English do you find most challenging (contracts, case law, statutes, legal journals)?- Can you give examples of specific words or phrases that are difficult to understand?
<i>Writing in English</i>	- Which legal writing tasks are most difficult for you: drafting contracts, case summaries, or briefs?- What kind of support or resources would help you improve your legal writing?
<i>Oral Communication</i>	- Do you feel confident presenting legal arguments or participating in mock trials in English? Why or why not?- What aspects of courtroom or professional English are hardest to master?
<i>Learning Strategies and Preferences</i>	- Which learning activities help you understand legal English best (role-plays, workshops, guided reading)?- Would you prefer group activities or individual practice for legal English?
<i>Professional Context and Priorities</i>	- What English skills do you consider most important for legal practice (e.g., drafting, oral argumentation, client interaction, contract analysis)?

▪ **Advantages and Limitations of Focus Groups**

Focus groups are valuable because they provide rich, qualitative insights into learners' needs, attitudes, and preferences. Unlike surveys, they capture interactive dynamics, where participants build on each other's ideas, negotiate meanings, and reach group consensus. This often reveals challenges, motivations, and priorities that individual interviews or questionnaires might miss. Focus groups also allow facilitators to probe deeper into responses, clarify ambiguities, and explore complex issues in context. They are especially useful for curriculum design, as the discussion highlights which skills or tasks learners perceive as most important for their academic or professional success.

Despite their strengths, focus groups have limitations. They are time-consuming to organize and require skilled facilitation to ensure balanced participation. Some participants may dominate the discussion, while others remain silent, potentially skewing the data. Responses may also be influenced by peer pressure or social desirability, with participants reluctant to express weaknesses or unpopular opinions. Additionally, because focus groups involve small, non-representative samples, the results may not be generalizable to the entire population, so they are best used alongside other methods such as surveys or observations.

OBSERVATIONS

Observation is a direct, systematic method of collecting data on learners by watching them perform real tasks in academic or professional settings. Unlike surveys or interviews, which rely on self-reported perceptions, observation captures authentic behaviors, interactions, and language use as they naturally occur. This method helps instructors and course designers understand how learners actually communicate in context, which tasks demand the most language proficiency, and where difficulties arise. Observations are particularly useful for identifying skills that participants may not recognize as challenging, as well as for detecting patterns in spoken and written professional English that are critical for their field.

- **Process of Observation**

The observation process begins with defining the purpose and focus, identifying which tasks, settings, and interactions will be observed. Observers prepare checklists or guiding questions to ensure systematic data collection and remain focused on relevant skills and behaviors. During observation, participants are watched in real-time while performing authentic tasks, and notes or recordings are made to capture behaviors, interactions, and language use. After the session, the collected data is analyzed thematically or quantitatively to identify patterns, common difficulties, and priority areas for language instruction.

▪ **Observation Checklist /English for Tourism (ESP-Tourism)**

Purpose: To systematically observe how learners use English in tourism-related tasks, identify challenges, and inform

ESP course design.

Table 7

Observation Checklist /English for Tourism (ESP-Tourism)

Observation Focus	Specific Items / Behaviors to Observe	Rating / Notes
Customer Interaction / Oral Communication	- Greets tourists politely and appropriately in English - Answers inquiries clearly and accurately - Provides directions, explanations, or recommendations effectively	☐ Excellent ☐ Adequate ☐ Needs Improvement Notes:
Tour Guiding / Presentations	- Explains tourist sites or activities in clear English - Uses engaging language and maintains audience attention - Adapts speech to different audiences (families, groups, foreign visitors)	☐ Excellent ☐ Adequate ☐ Needs Improvement Notes:
Written Communication	- Completes booking forms, reservations, or emails in English correctly - Uses appropriate terminology for tours, schedules, and facilities - Follows professional style and grammar	☐ Excellent ☐ Adequate ☐ Needs Improvement Notes:
Technical / Tourism Vocabulary	- Uses tourism-specific terms correctly (e.g., itinerary, excursion, accommodation) - Avoids misunderstandings in professional terminology	☐ Excellent ☐ Adequate ☐ Needs Improvement Notes:
Problem-Solving / Customer Service	- Handles complaints or special requests politely and effectively - Provides alternative solutions when needed - Maintains professionalism under pressure	☐ Excellent ☐ Adequate ☐ Needs Improvement Notes:
Collaboration & Teamwork	- Communicates clearly with colleagues - Coordinates tasks in team-based situations - Shares information and supports others effectively	☐ Excellent ☐ Adequate ☐ Needs Improvement Notes:
Learning Needs / Priorities	- Observes recurring difficulties or gaps - Notes areas where additional ESP support is needed (e.g., pronunciation, vocabulary, polite expressions)	Notes:

▪ Advantages and limitations of Observation

Observation provides authentic, real-time evidence of how learners use language in actual academic or professional settings. Unlike surveys or interviews, it captures behaviors and interactions that learners may not report or even recognize themselves, offering insights into tasks, challenges, and communication patterns. It helps identify specific skills or areas for improvement, such as technical vocabulary, report writing, or oral explanations, and provides contextually grounded data that informs realistic and targeted ESP course design. Additionally, observation can reveal collaborative practices, showing how learners negotiate understanding and communicate within teams.

Despite its benefits, observation has some limitations. It is time-consuming and resource-intensive, as it requires careful planning and often multiple sessions to collect sufficient data. Observers may unintentionally introduce bias, interpreting behaviors subjectively. Also, learners might alter their behavior because they know they are being observed (Hawthorne effect). Unlike surveys or interviews, observation alone may not provide learners' perceptions or motivations, so it is often most effective when combined with other methods such as questionnaires or focus groups.

DOCUMENT REVIEW

Document review is a systematic method of analyzing existing professional or academic materials, such as reports, manuals, contracts, journals, and guidelines, to determine the language forms, genres, and skills learners need to use effectively (Munby, 1978). In ESP, this method complements subjective data obtained from learners through surveys, interviews, or focus groups by providing objective evidence of authentic language use. It identifies the linguistic demands of a specific profession, helping instructors design courses that align with real-world communication requirements. For example, reviewing medical reports, case studies, and research articles in a medical ESP course uncovers specialized terminology, text structures, and reporting conventions essential for professional competence.

The **process** of document review involves several steps. First, relevant documents from the target professional context are selected, such as patient charts, hospital protocols, or journal articles. Next, the documents are analyzed for linguistic features, including vocabulary, grammar, and discourse patterns. The types of texts (genres) and the tasks learners are expected to perform like writing patient notes, summarizing case studies, or drafting research reports are identified. Finally, the findings are compiled to inform course objectives, teaching materials, and exercises, ensuring alignment with actual professional needs.

▪ Types of Document Review

Document review can involve different types of documents, including *professional/practical documents* (patient charts, lab reports, clinical guidelines), *academic/scientific documents* (research articles, textbooks),

and *regulatory documents* (hospital protocols, health policies). Its advantages include providing objective, authentic data; identifying critical terminology, grammar, and discourse patterns; supporting curriculum design; and validating the real language demands of the profession. However, it has limitations: it can be time-consuming, does not capture learners' perceptions or difficulties, and requires expertise in the discipline to accurately identify relevant language features.

Table 8

Medical ESP Document Review

Document Type	Focus / Language Features	Potential Learning Outcome
<i>Patient Reports / Charts</i>	Medical terminology, abbreviations, structured sections (history, diagnosis, treatment)	Students can accurately write and interpret patient documentation
<i>Case Studies</i>	Technical vocabulary, chronological sequencing, evidence-based reasoning	Students can summarize and analyze patient cases effectively
<i>Medical Guidelines / Protocols</i>	Imperative forms, conditional statements, precise terminology	Students can follow and communicate treatment procedures accurately
<i>Research Articles / Journals</i>	Academic style, passive voice, specialized vocabulary	Students can read, understand, and write scientific reports

CASE STUDY

Case studies in ESP involve an in-depth examination of a particular instance, project, or event within learners' professional or academic context. Their purpose is to provide comprehensive insights into complex or unique situations, helping instructors identify gaps between learners' current skills and the demands of real-world tasks (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998). Unlike surveys or observations, which capture broad patterns, case studies focus on specific, authentic scenarios, allowing learners and instructors to explore language use, strategies, and professional practices in context.

▪ Case studies Process

The process of conducting a case study involves several steps. First, a relevant case is selected, such as a negotiation, a project meeting, or a client interaction. Second, detailed data is gathered from documents, recordings, or participant observations related to the case. Third, the data is analyzed systematically to identify key linguistic features, communication strategies, and skills gaps. Finally, findings are used to inform curriculum design, teaching materials, and targeted exercises, ensuring alignment with the authentic demands of the professional context.

▪ Case Studies Types

There are different types of case studies in ESP. These include single-case studies, which focus on one individual, project, or event; comparative case studies, which analyze two or more similar instances; and longitudinal case studies, which track developments over time to observe progress or patterns in professional language use.

The advantages of case studies include providing rich, contextually grounded insights into authentic professional situations, revealing both language and strategy needs, and supporting the creation of highly relevant, practical learning activities. They also allow learners to engage with realistic scenarios, bridging theory and practice. However, case studies can be time-consuming, may not be generalizable to a larger population, and require careful planning and analysis to ensure the data collected is meaningful and applicable.

▪ Case Study Checklist/ Business ESP

Purpose: To systematically analyze an authentic business scenario and identify learners' language and strategy needs.

Table 9

Case Study Checklist/ Business ESP

Focus Area	Observation / Analysis Items	Examples
<i>Scenario Selection</i>	- Identify a real business event, meeting, or negotiation - Collect related documents (emails, reports, contracts)	Negotiation between two departments on a project timeline
<i>Language Features</i>	- Identify key vocabulary (e.g., negotiation terms, financial jargon) - Note grammar, sentence structures, and formal expressions	"Let's revisit the contract terms"
<i>Communication Strategies</i>	- Observe strategies such as persuasion, clarification, agreement, or conflict resolution - Identify effective vs. ineffective communication	Use of polite hedging, persuasive language
<i>Written Communication</i>	- Examine emails, reports, or memos related to the case - Analyze clarity, structure, and professional style	Summary report of negotiation outcomes
<i>Oral Communication / Interaction</i>	- Observe turn-taking, clarity of explanations, and response strategies - Identify common difficulties	Interruptions, unclear arguments
<i>Skills Gaps & Priorities</i>	- Identify gaps between learners' current abilities and real-world demands - Note recurring challenges or mistakes	Misuse of formal expressions, lack of persuasive techniques
<i>Follow-up / Course Design</i>	- Use findings to develop exercises, simulations, and assessments - Align tasks with professional scenarios	Negotiation simulation in English with peer feedback

DIAGNOSTIC TESTS

Diagnostic tests in ESP are structured tools designed to evaluate learners' existing language abilities, knowledge, and competencies before the start of a course. Unlike general language proficiency tests, they are specifically aligned with the linguistic and communicative demands of a particular academic or professional context, making them highly relevant to the learners' future tasks. These tests allow instructors to identify both individual and group strengths and weaknesses, highlighting gaps in vocabulary, grammar, comprehension, writing, and oral communication skills that may hinder effective participation in the target discipline. By providing a clear baseline of learners' abilities, diagnostic tests inform curriculum planning and instructional design, enabling educators to prioritize content, select appropriate materials, and tailor activities to address areas of need. They also serve as a foundation for monitoring learner progress throughout the course, supporting formative assessment and ensuring that instruction remains responsive to learners' evolving requirements.

▪ Process of Diagnostic tests

Diagnostic tests typically involve designing tasks that reflect authentic language use in the target field, such as multiple-choice questions on technical vocabulary, reading comprehension exercises using professional texts, writing short reports, or interpreting patient charts. Learners complete the test under controlled conditions, and results are analyzed to highlight individual and group skill gaps, guiding the prioritization of teaching content and activities.

▪ Types of Diagnostic tests

There are different types of diagnostic tests in ESP, including *written tests* (vocabulary, grammar, comprehension), *oral assessments* (presentations, interviews, simulations), and *performance-based tasks* (writing reports, analyzing case studies).

▪ Advantages and Limitations of diagnostic tests

The advantages of diagnostic tests include providing a clear baseline of learners' abilities, identifying specific weaknesses before instruction begins, and allowing for targeted course design. They also help instructors monitor progress when combined with formative assessments. However, their limitations include the risk of being stressful for learners, potentially not capturing all skills (especially interpersonal or collaborative skills), and requiring careful alignment with real professional tasks to ensure relevance.

To sum up, methods such as surveys, focus groups, observation, case studies, and document review each offer unique insights ranging from learners' self-perceptions to authentic, objective evidence of language use. By combining these approaches, instructors can design courses that are realistic, targeted, and aligned

with professional or academic contexts, ensuring that learners acquire the specific English skills necessary for success in their fields.

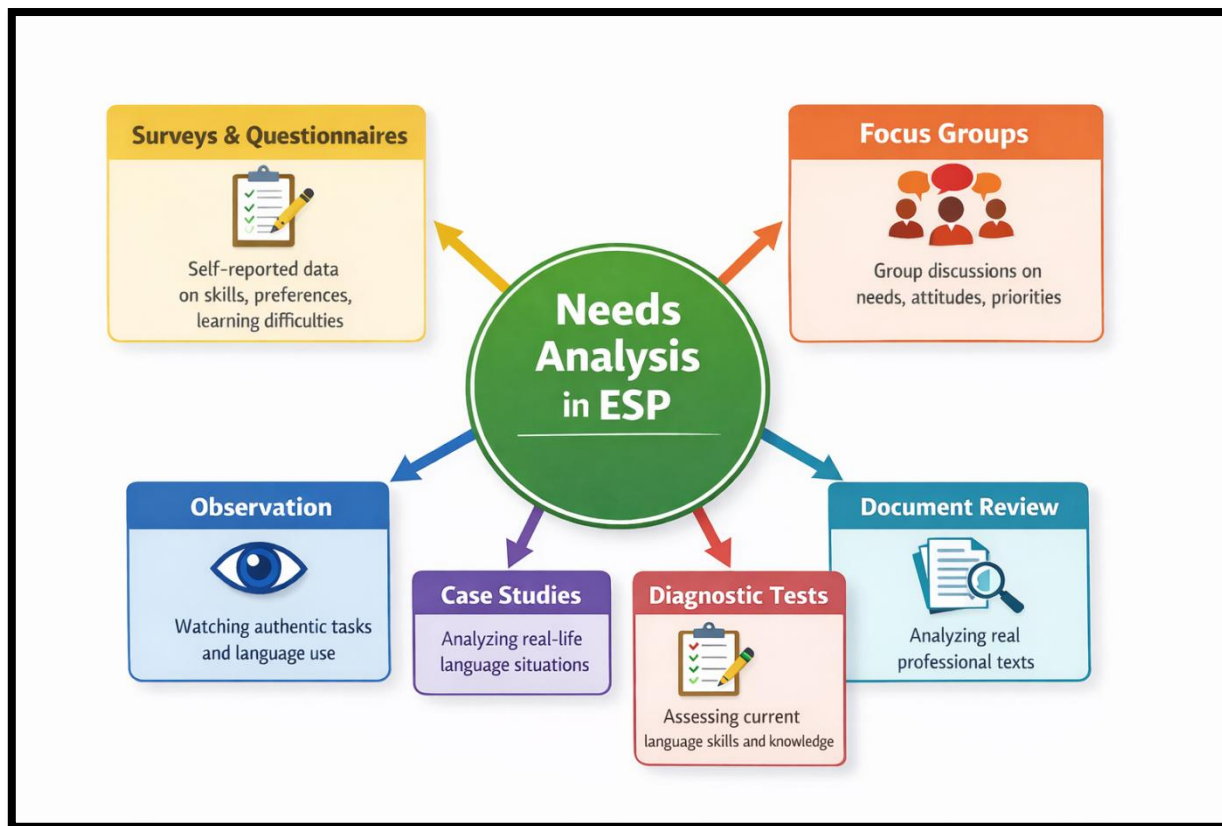


Figure 9: Methods for Needs Analysis in ESP

ESP 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.”

— Hutchinson and Waters (1987)

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

1. Differentiate between curriculum and syllabus in terms of scope and function.
2. Identify major types of syllabi used in ESP course design.
3. Explain the main approaches to course design (language-centred, skills-centred, learning-centred).
4. List and sequence the stages of ESP course design from needs analysis to evaluation.

1. ESP COURSE, CURRICULUM, AND SYLLABUS

ESP course design is a systematic, structured, and goal-oriented process aimed at equipping learners with the precise language and communication skills they need to function effectively within specific academic, professional, or occupational domains. Unlike general English courses, which typically prioritize broad linguistic proficiency, ESP courses are needs-driven, context-specific, and learner-centered, emphasizing the practical and functional aspects of language in real-world situations. This approach is informed by rigorous research in applied linguistics, highlighting the importance of tailoring instruction to the unique requirements of learners’ target environments (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998).

The primary aim of ESP courses is to equip learners with the English proficiency needed for specific situations, often referred to as target needs. In ESP contexts, all decisions regarding course design (objectives, content, methodology, and assessment) should be guided by the learners’ specific needs. Consequently, the content of an ESP syllabus must be carefully justified, ensuring it is both relevant and motivating for the learners.

Understanding what a course is requires situating it within the broader framework of curriculum and syllabus. Although these terms are often used interchangeably, they operate at different levels of educational planning and decision-making. The curriculum represents the macro-level policy and overall educational vision, the syllabus specifies the content and sequencing of what is to be taught, while the course constitutes

the actual pedagogical implementation in the classroom. Distinguishing between these levels is essential in ESP because course design decisions must align with curriculum goals and be operationalized through an appropriate syllabus. As emphasized by Hutchinson and Waters, effective ESP planning depends on clearly linking needs analysis to syllabus content and classroom practice.

▪ **Curriculum and Syllabus in ESP**

In ESP, effective course design requires a clear distinction between *curriculum and syllabus*, as each operates at a different level of planning and serves a specific function. ESP is inherently needs-based, and this needs analysis informs decisions from the broad educational framework to the detailed classroom content (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998).

In the literature, the curriculum is considered the broader framework that includes educational goals, learning outcomes, teaching approaches, materials, assessment, and institutional planning (Allen, 1984, cited in Nunan, 1988; Graves, 1996). It reflects the philosophical, social, and administrative dimensions that shape an entire language program.

The syllabus, by contrast, is more limited in scope and refers to the specific content of a course, including the selection and sequencing of language items, skills, and tasks (Dubin & Olshtain, 1991). Thus, while the curriculum defines the overall direction of an ESP program, the syllabus operationalizes these goals for a particular group of learners. In this sense, the syllabus is a component of the curriculum and must align with its intended learning outcomes (Popham & Baker, 1970).

▪ **What is a Curriculum?**

The curriculum is the overarching educational framework that guides the design, implementation, and evaluation of an ESP programme. It encompasses the programme philosophy, needs analysis, learning objectives, methodological orientation, materials policy, assessment strategy, and overall programme management (Richards, 2001; Nunan, 1988). Operating at the macro level, it is typically developed by institutions, ministries, or educational authorities and defines the broad directions of the programme.

Within ESP, the curriculum determines the target professional or academic domains, the competencies required in the target situation, and the general learning outcomes expected from learners. It establishes the connection between language learning and real-world disciplinary practices, ensuring that instruction is aligned with workplace or academic demands.

In ESP, the curriculum defines the link between language learning and professional or academic contexts. It answers:

Why do learners need English?

For which professional or academic tasks will it be used?

What level of performance is required?

▪ **What is a Syllabus?**

Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 80) define the syllabus as a document that specifies what learners are expected to learn. Similarly, Robinson (1991: 34) describes the syllabus as a plan of work that primarily serves the teacher by providing a framework for classroom content and instructional guidance.

In ESP, the syllabus is derived from target situation analysis and focuses on:

workplace communication

discipline-specific language

task-based learning

Example units: *Writing laboratory reports, describing processes, interpreting graphs.*

Thus, the relationship between the two is hierarchical: the syllabus is a component of the curriculum. In ESP, this distinction is crucial because syllabus design must be directly informed by the results of needs analysis and aligned with the professional and academic objectives defined at the curriculum level. A well-designed ESP syllabus therefore ensures the selection, adaptation, and sequencing of materials that meet the specific communicative requirements of learners.

Basturkmen (2006: 21) distinguishes between two types of syllabuses. A synthetic syllabus organizes language into separate linguistic elements that are taught sequentially, whereas an analytic syllabus presents language in larger units of meaning with less emphasis on explicit linguistic grading.

In the same vein, Long and Crookes (1993) classify syllabuses into two broad categories: synthetic and analytic, as illustrated in the following figure.

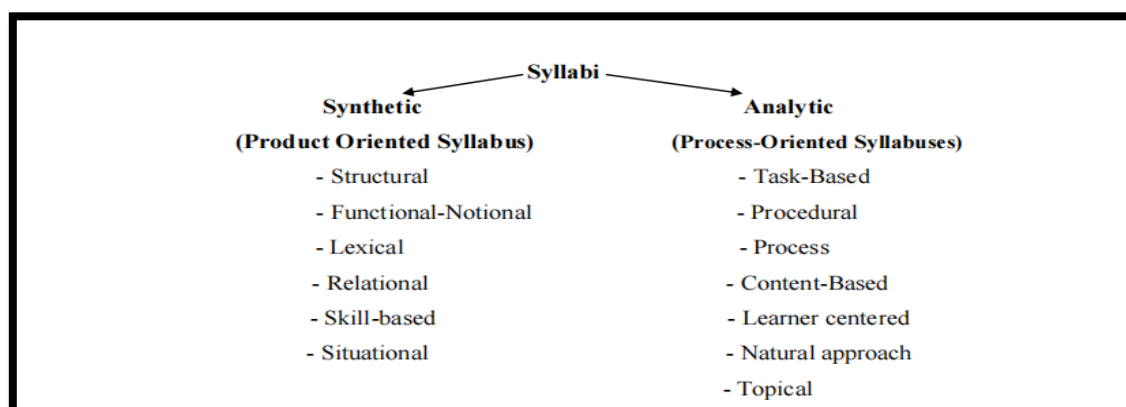


Figure 10: Classification of Syllabi (Long & Crookes, 1993)

Although various types of syllabuses exist, each typically includes four main components: objectives, methodology, materials, and evaluation. To determine what language will be taught and how it will be taught, items are often listed in the syllabus. According to Ur (1996), a standard syllabus should:

- Include a comprehensive list of content items (e.g., vocabulary, structures, topics) and process items (tasks, teaching methods).
- Be ordered logically, progressing from easier and more essential items to more complex ones.
- State explicit objectives, usually in the introduction.
- Serve as a public document accessible to learners and instructors.
- Indicate a time schedule for teaching.
- Suggest a preferred methodology or approach.
- Recommend materials to support teaching.

In addition to these core components, a syllabus designer may include other relevant information, such as course policies, weekly schedules, assignments, course identity, and a brief course description. This ensures the syllabus is comprehensive, structured, and transparent, providing both teachers and learners with a clear roadmap for the course.

2. APPROACHES TO COURSE DESIGN

Course design is the process by which the raw data on a need for learning is interpreted for an integrated series of experience in teaching-learning. The objective of the design of course is to bring the student to a specific state of knowledge.

In practice this includes using available theoretical and empirical information for producing a curriculum, selecting, adjusting or writing of materials in line with the curriculum, developing a methodology to teach those materials and setting out evaluation procedures to measure progress towards the specified objectives. The ESP course design approach is probably numerous, as there are course designer approaches. However, three key types of course design can be identified: language-centered, skill centered and learning-centered.

a. Language-Centered Approach (performance)

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

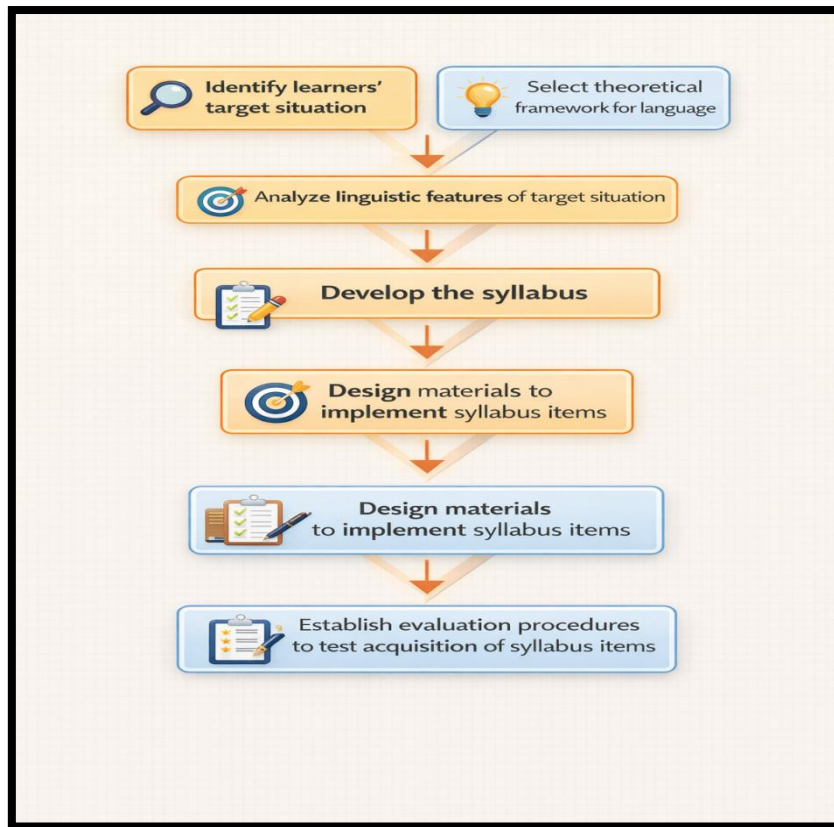


Figure 11: Language-Centered Approach (performance)

At first glance, this approach to course design appears logical and straightforward: students learn the curriculum, use class resources, and are eventually tested on mastery of the content. The curriculum unfolds in stages, but several limitations become apparent:

- *Limited learner involvement:* The process begins with students and their needs, but only superficially. Typically, only a small portion of the target language is addressed, and the student plays little role beyond identifying this narrow focus. In reality, students should be considered throughout the course, especially when evaluating needs. This model is not truly learner-centred and is constrained by its initial assumptions.
- *Rigidity and inflexibility:* Once the initial analysis is complete, the course designer may be locked into a fixed path. Unexpected factors, such as student motivation or unforeseen learning challenges, cannot be easily accommodated. Effective course design requires flexibility, feedback mechanisms, and error tolerance to adapt to changing circumstances.
- *Overemphasis on systematization:* While the model appears systematic, it can create the mistaken impression that presenting information systematically guarantees systematic learning. True learning involves the student internally organizing knowledge; externally imposed structures do not automatically result in effective learning. The Audiolingual error (assuming that exposing learners to a system produces structural learning) is a common misconception.

- *Neglect of contextual variables:* Language-centered design often relies solely on data from needs analysis, ignoring other factors that influence learning. Effective materials must be engaging and relevant, but a purely language-focused model may overlook these critical elements. For instance, a text might be dull but still included because it fits the ESP framework, rather than because it is pedagogically effective.
- *Superficial focus on language:* This model tends to emphasize vocabulary and surface-level elements, while neglecting the skills and strategies that truly underpin success in real-world tasks.

a. Skills-Centered Approach

The skills-centered approach to ESP has been widely applied in a number of countries, particularly in Latin America. Students in universities and colleges there have the limited, but important need to read subject texts in English, because they are unavailable in the other tongue. In response to this need, a number of ESP projects have been set up with the specific aim of developing the students' ability to read in English.

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) state that the role needs analysis in this approach is to help the ESP practitioner discover the potential knowledge and competences of the learner, and their perspectives of the target situation. Skills centred model view language in terms of how the mind of the learner processes it rather than as an entity in itself. In addition, it tries to build on the positive factors that the learners bring to the course, rather than just on the negative idea of lacks. Finally, 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 as a learner of language.

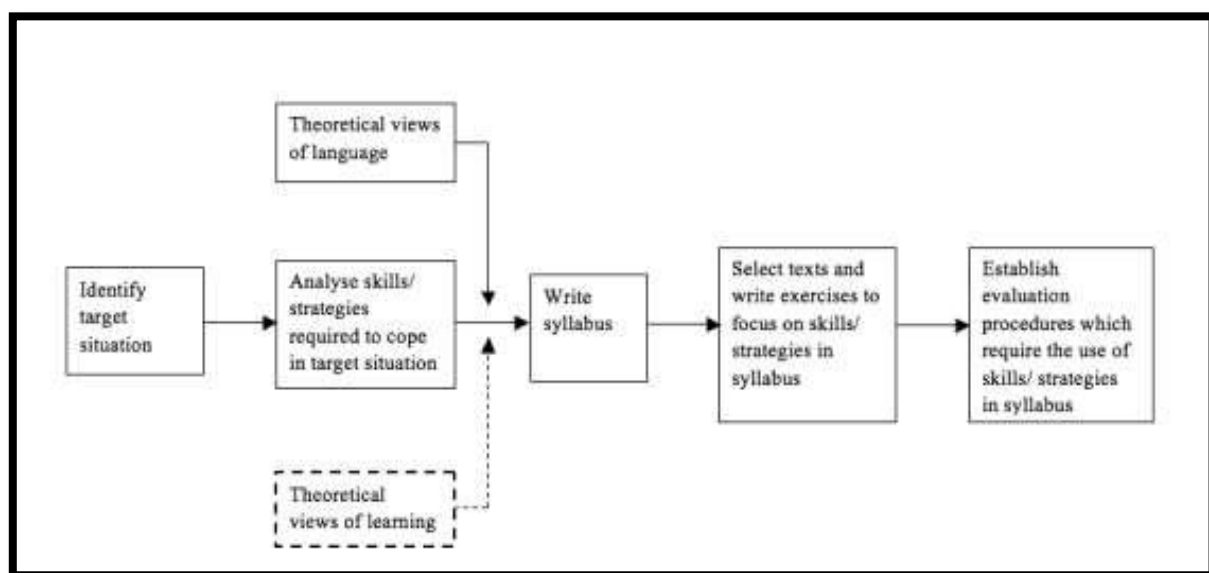


Figure 12: Skills Centred- Approach

b. A Learning-Centered Approach

The learning-centered approach emphasizes that while teachers control what they teach, only learners can determine what they actually understand. Learning is seen as an active process where students draw on their

prior experiences and abilities to grasp new material. It is both a personal and social process, influenced by the students' awareness, motivation, and engagement. Although the course sets objectives (in ESP, the target performance), learners choose how they approach these goals, but the objectives still guide the learning process.

Unlike a purely learner-centered approach, which may overemphasize the student's role, the learning-centered perspective prioritizes the process of learning itself. It recognizes that learners are important, but not the sole factor in learning. In ESP course design, this approach balances the learner's needs with the requirements of the target situation, ensuring that the course is effective without disregarding the learner.

This approach is grounded in the view that the learner plays a central role in the learning process. It is based on several key principles:

- Learning is determined by the learner, who draws on prior knowledge and skills to interpret and construct new understanding.
- Learning is not purely cognitive; it also involves interaction and negotiation between individuals and the broader social context.
- Course design itself is a process of negotiation, shaped by the target situation and characterized by flexibility, as means and resources may change over time.

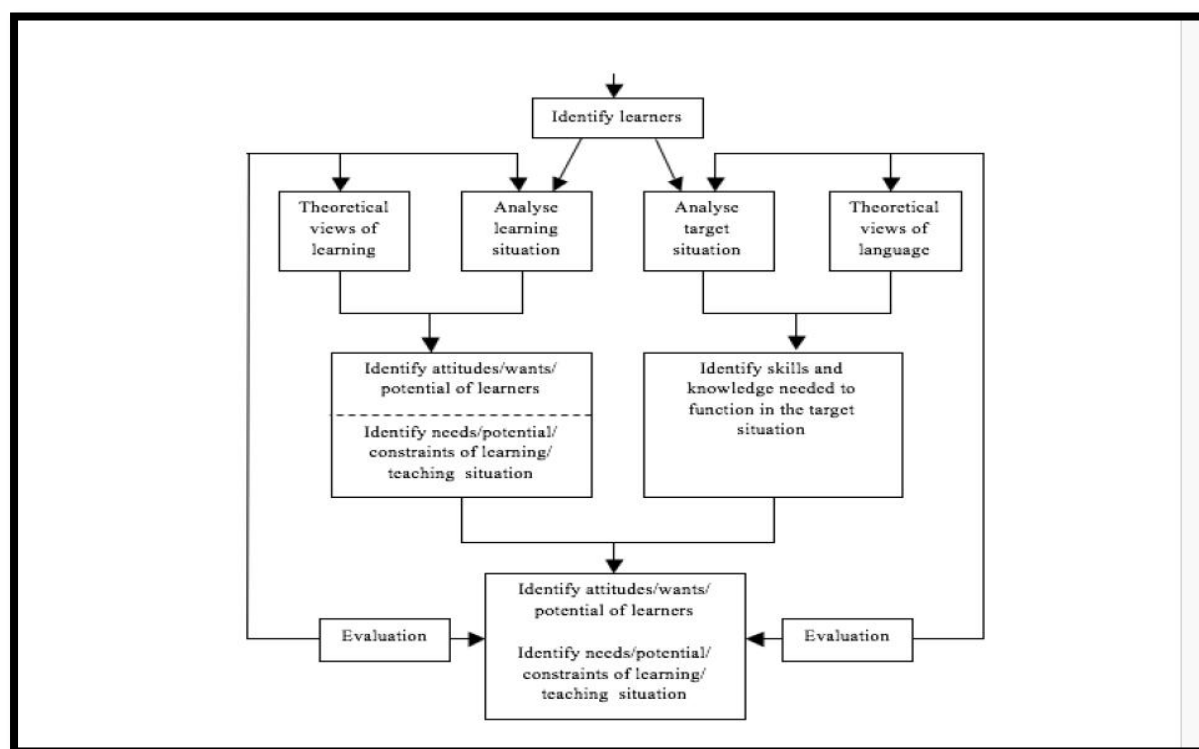


Figure 12: Learning Centred- Approach

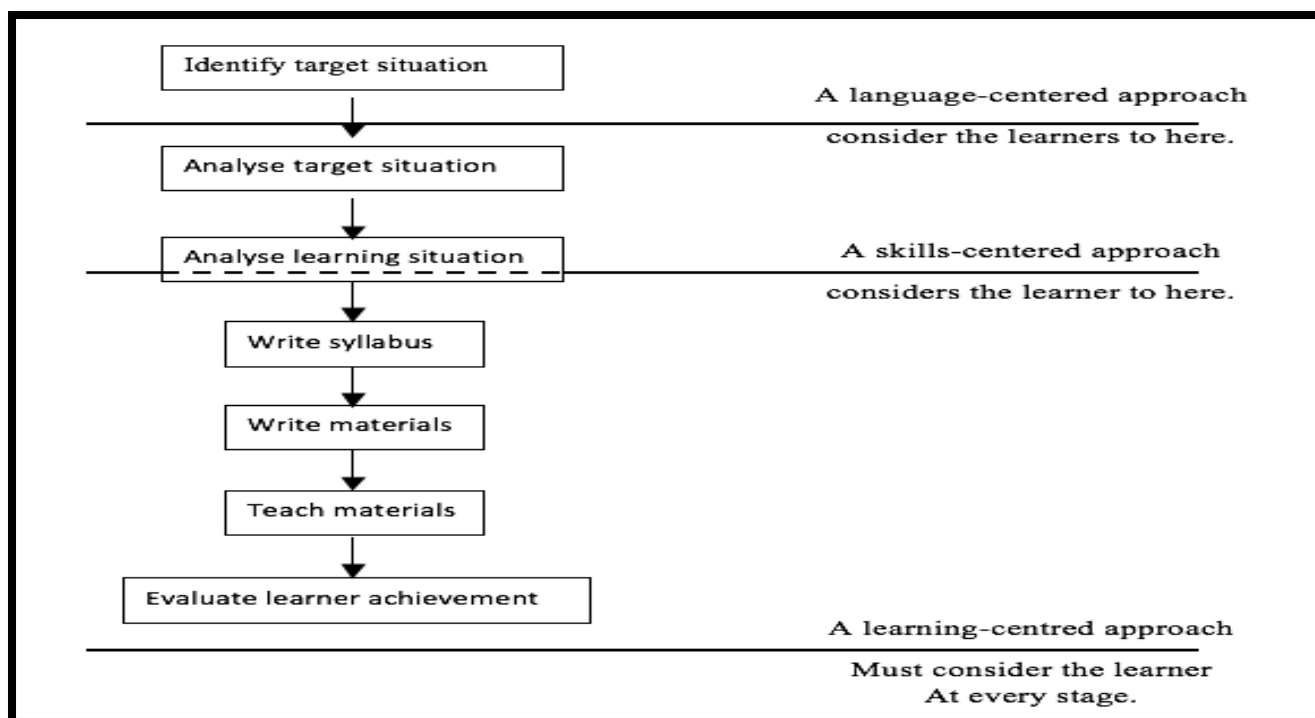


Figure 13: A Comparison of Approaches to Course Design

In summary, language- and skills-centred approaches focus more on what is taught and the competencies to be acquired, while the learning-centred approach emphasizes how learners engage with material and take responsibility for their own progress. Combining these perspectives allows ESP courses to be dynamic, flexible, and responsive to both learners' needs and the demands of the target situation.

Table 10

Summary of Course design Approaches

Approach	Focus / Key Idea
<i>Language-centered</i>	Emphasizes the target language as the primary guide for the course.
<i>Skills-centered</i>	Looks beyond observable performance to identify the underlying skills for success.
<i>Learning-centered</i>	Prioritizes the learning process itself, considering both the learner and the context.

3. STAGES OF ESP COURSE DESIGN

Course design is a process that consists of several steps. In this vein, Robinson (1991, p.34) believes that course design is the product of a dynamic interaction between the results of NA, the course designers' approach to syllabus and methodology, and existing materials. According to Graves (2000), a systematic course design consisting of six steps that are:

- a. Conducting needs assessment and needs analysis
- b. Determining the goals and objectives of the course.
- c. Conceptualizing the content.
- d. Selecting and developing materials and activities.
- e. Organising the content and activities.
- f. Evaluating

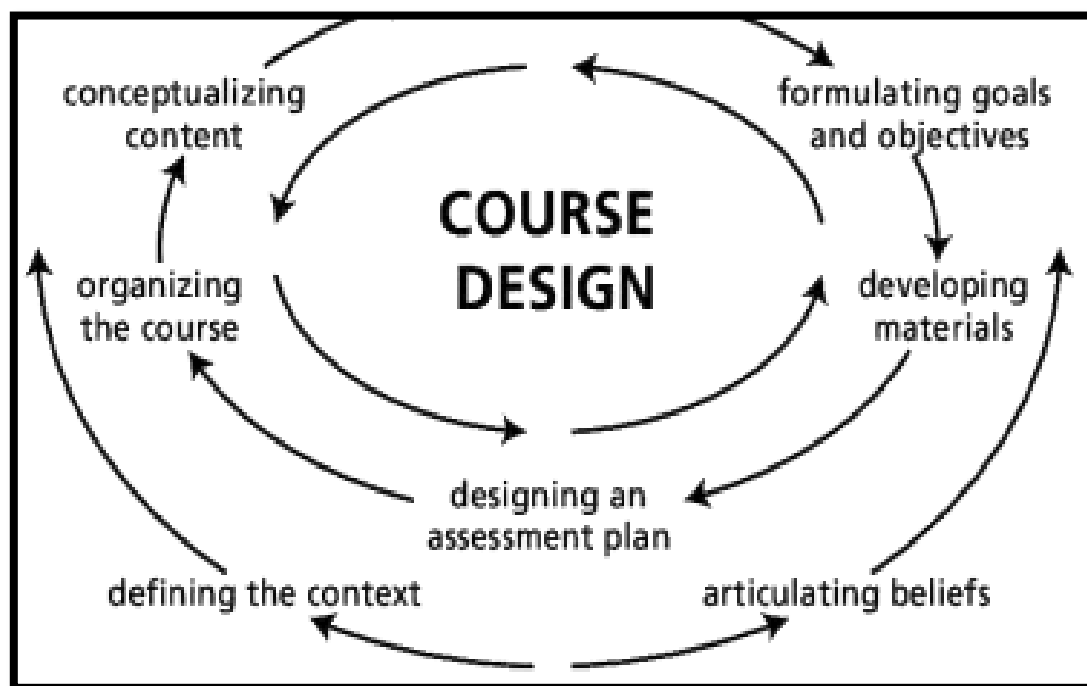


Figure 14: Graves' Model of Curriculum Development

CONDUCTING NEEDS ANALYSIS

Needs analysis is the first and fundamental process in designing syllabus. Although there is no definite definition of ESP, all ESP scholars agree that in designing an ESP course, needs analysis must be taken as the first priority. Needs analysis provides the information learners' and targets' needs.

The information is beneficial in drawing the goal and objectives of the teaching learning process. If needs are clear, the learning aims can be expressed more easily and the language course can become motivating.

The selection of tasks and materials can also be based on the results of the analysis. The result of the analysis of the learners' needs may give clear information of the tasks and material that may appeal them.

The needs analysis is also helpful in organising the content and activities since it identifies the sequence of real life activities that could be adopted in the teaching learning process. Knowing the stakeholders' needs can also be valuable in determining the standard of achievement in the assessment and evaluation process. In other words, all activities in designing syllabus are dependent on the needs analysis process and result.

Example (Engineering ESP): *Needs analysis reveals that students must read technical manuals, write project reports, and present design proposals. Speaking for informal conversation is less important than technical description and data interpretation.*

DETERMINATION OF GOALS AND OBJECTIVES

A goal is something that wanted to be achieved and in the case of language learning, goals. The goals and the objectives can be drawn from the results of the needs analysis. Since ESP was situated for the adult learners seeking for employment in the future, the goals and the objectives should relate to those needs. The analysis of the problems faced by the learners can also be considered in shaping the goals and objectives.

CONTENT CONCEPTUALIZATION

The next process needed to be followed is conceptualizing the content; that is choosing and analyzing the necessary content related to the needs analysis and the goals and objectives. Reilly (1988, in Xeno dohidis, 2006) gives some practical guidelines to content choice and design. According to Relly, we need to:

- ✓ Define what the students should be able to do as exactly and realistically as possible, as the result of the instruction.
- ✓ Rank the syllabi in order of importance according to the desired outcomes;
- ✓ Evaluate available resources and match them with the syllabi;
- ✓ Designate one or two syllabi as dominant;
- ✓ Review how combination and integration of syllabus types can be achieved and in what proportion;
- ✓ And translate decisions into actual teaching units.

In this stage, we need to identify language function and language expression related to the jobs. Language functions are things the speakers do with their language in communication.

Example (Medical ESP):

Unit 1: Taking patient history

Unit 2: Explaining diagnosis

Unit 3: Writing case reports

Unit 4: Presenting clinical data

SELECTION AND DEVELOPMENT OF MATERIALS AND ACTIVITIES

According to Graves (1996, in Xenodohidis, 2006), in order to select materials the following issues should be taken into account:

- ✓ Effectiveness in achieving the course purposes
- ✓ Appropriateness of the materials, so that the students will feel comfortable. This means that the material will be relevant to their interests and language level.
- ✓ Feasibility, so that the material will be in accordance with the students' capabilities and the course will not prove too difficult for them. Choosing materials may mean development of new material, collection of various materials or adaptation of existing ones. The source of materials can be from published materials (textbooks, journals, magazines), real speech (lecturers, hotel communication, seminars), specially written, or simplified and adapted from public materials or instances of real speech.

There are some suggestions given by Xenodohidis that are beneficial for this stage. According to him, any task aimed at activities should enable the students to deal with situations related to their future employment. The lack of materials can be prevailed over by giving certain tasks related to the future task. Using semi-authentic materials is suggested. Moreover, communication situations need to be involved since they give a different dimension to language.

Example (Business ESP): *Students analyze authentic company reports, write executive summaries, and role-play meetings using real business data.*

ORGANIZATION OF CONTENT AND ACTIVITIES COURSE

Organization is important since it provides the teacher and the students with a clear idea of what will be taught. In addition, there are two principles underlying the concept of sequencing material; building and recycling. Building can follow the process of the simple to the more complex, from concrete to more open ended, while recycling means that the students deal with taught materials in a new way.

Another way to consider course organization is as a cycle or as a matrix. In a cyclical approach, the teacher introduces a cycle of activities following a consistent sequence. In a matrix approach, the teacher works with some activities and as time passes, decides with which ones to continue. The content and activities may also be sequenced based on the Standard Operational Procedure (SOP) of the related job. The tasks performed in each duty need to be identified. Those identified tasks are then sequenced based on the operational procedure. The sequenced tasks are again analysed to reveal the language functions and language expression needed for those tasks. Certain information related to the culture understanding and standard performance required for those tasks can also be assessed and analysed. This approach is known as Task-Based Approach (TBA). Task based approach to language teaching is a recent view which is based on the findings of linguist and psychologist. This approach is against traditional approaches such as PPP (presentation, practice, production) model of teaching (Foster, 1999, in Songhori, 2006). Task based syllabus which is the corner stone of TBA is defined by Richards, et.al. (1991, in Songhori, 2006) as: “a syllabus which is organised around TASKs, rather than in terms of grammar or vocabulary.

Example (IT ESP): *Students collaborate to explain a software architecture diagram and present a troubleshooting procedure.*

ASSESSMENT AND EVALUATION

Assessment in ESP must be performance-based and aligned with real-world tasks (Douglas, 2000). It evaluates whether learners can use English effectively in their target contexts.

Formative assessment includes: presentations, report writing, simulations, portfolio tasks. These provide ongoing evidence of progress.

Effective feedback is:

- *specific and task-focused*
- *linked to communicative effectiveness*
- *delivered through teacher comments, peer review, and self-assessment*

-Assessment tasks must reflect target situation performance, ensuring validity (Douglas, 2000).

Example (Academic ESP): *Students are assessed through a conference-style presentation and a structured research abstract.*

▪ Course Evaluation

Course evaluation measures the effectiveness of the ESP program and informs future revisions (Graves, 2000; Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998).

- ✓ Evaluation examines whether the course successfully enabled learners to develop the skills and knowledge identified during the needs analysis. This involves comparing intended objectives with actual learner performance across tasks and assessments.

Example: *In a Business English ESP course, did students gain the ability to write professional emails, participate in meetings, and prepare reports effectively?*

- ✓ Teachers review whether the selected or developed materials were relevant, authentic, and engaging. This includes examining if the materials reflected real-world tasks, matched learners' professional context, and supported active skill development.

Example: *Were engineering manuals, technical charts, and project documentation sufficient for students to practice reading and reporting?*

- ✓ Evaluation assesses the teaching approaches used in the course. Did task-based learning, role-plays, and simulations facilitate practical language use? Did collaborative and independent learning strategies support learner engagement and skill acquisition?

Example: *In a Nursing ESP course, were clinical simulations and patient interaction role-plays effective in developing oral communication skills?*

- ✓ Feedback is gathered from all relevant stakeholders to ensure a holistic evaluation:

Learners: Provide insights into clarity of instruction, relevance of content, and engagement.

Teachers: Reflect on what worked and what challenges were encountered.

Industry or subject specialists: Offer perspectives on the applicability of course content to professional contexts.

Example: *Medical faculty might review whether case report writing tasks prepare students adequately for clinical documentation.*

- ✓ Several tools and techniques are used to collect meaningful data:

Learner feedback questionnaires: Assess satisfaction, perceived learning, and material relevance.

Teacher reflection journals: Record observations about learner engagement, pacing, and content delivery.

Consultation with subject specialists or industry partners: Validates the course's alignment with real-world professional requirements.

- ✓ Insights from evaluation inform revisions of the syllabus, teaching methods, and materials for future iterations. This cyclical approach ensures the ESP course remains dynamic, responsive, and closely

aligned with evolving professional or academic needs.

Example: *Feedback showing students struggled with oral presentations may lead to adding more speaking exercises and structured feedback sessions in the next course.*

Once the ESP course has been implemented and learners have engaged with the materials and activities, it is essential to evaluate the course systematically. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) propose a comprehensive evaluation framework that examines not only learners' progress but also the suitability of the syllabus, the effectiveness of teaching methods, the relevance of materials, assessment procedures, and feedback from stakeholders. This framework emphasizes continuous evaluation as an integral part of ESP course design, ensuring that the program remains aligned with learners' target needs and professional requirements. By evaluating multiple aspects of the course simultaneously, instructors and program designers can make informed decisions to refine and improve the course for future iterations as shown in Figure

Framework of ESP Evaluation by Hutchinson and Waters (1987)

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) propose a structured approach to evaluating ESP courses. Their framework identifies *what should be evaluated*, *how evaluation can be conducted*, *who should participate*, and *when it should take place*. This ensures that ESP programs are continuously aligned with learners' language and professional needs.

Hutchinson & Waters' ESP Evaluation Framework

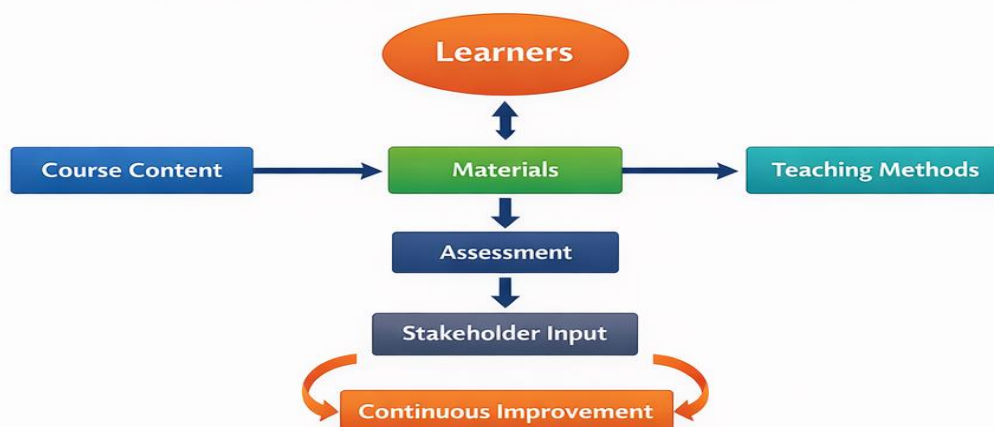


Table 02: Framework of ESP Evaluation

Aspects of Evaluation		Explanation / Questions
1.	What should be evaluated?	The overall aim of the ESP course in meeting learners' needs: a) Their needs as language learners b) Their needs as language users
2.	How can ESP courses be evaluated?	Through multiple methods: a) Test results b) Questionnaires c) Discussions d) Interviews e) Informal means (unsolicited comments, casual chats)
3.	Who should be involved in the evaluation?	All stakeholders: • ESP teaching institution • ESP teachers • Sponsors / industry partners
4.	When (and how often) should evaluation take place?	At multiple stages: • In the first week of the course • At regular intervals (e.g., every half term) • At the end of the course • After the course, for follow-up insights

FF

Figure 16: Framework of ESP Evaluation by Hutchinson and Waters (1987)

Regarding learner assessment, Hutchinson and Waters (1987) highlight the use of several fundamental test types in ESP programs, including placement tests, proficiency tests, and achievement (authentic) assessments.

Placement Tests: These tests determine whether learners require the course and, if so, identify their specific learning needs. Placement tests help ensure that classes are composed of learners with similar proficiency levels, preventing mixed-ability groups and allowing instruction to be appropriately targeted.

Proficiency Tests: Due to their standardized design, proficiency tests are commonly used by program sponsors as an objective measure of learners' overall language ability. They serve both to monitor students' progress and to evaluate the effectiveness of the ESP program.

Achievement (Authentic) Assessment: While proficiency tests indicate learners' existing language competence, achievement tests focus on what learners have actually learned. These assessments measure whether students have acquired the skills and knowledge necessary to perform specific tasks or meet established learning standards in their field.

While Hutchinson and Waters (1987) provide a comprehensive and widely cited model for evaluating ESP courses, other scholars have proposed frameworks that complement or expand on their approach. These alternative models emphasize specific aspects such as assessment design, classroom-based observation, alignment with professional tasks, and iterative course improvement (Richards, 2001; Brindley, 1989; Basturkmen, 2012). By examining multiple evaluation frameworks, educators can gain a broader perspective on how to measure the effectiveness of ESP programs, tailor assessments to learners' needs, and ensure that syllabi, materials, and teaching methods remain closely aligned with real-world communicative demands. The following **table 10** summarizes key frameworks and highlights their focus areas and practical applications.

Table 11*Summary of ESP Evaluation Key Frameworks*

Framework / Author	Focus Areas	Purpose / Application in ESP
<i>Hutchinson & Waters (1987)</i>	Learners, syllabus, materials, teaching, assessment, stakeholder input, continuous improvement	Provides a cyclical evaluation model; ensures alignment with learners' target needs; involves multiple stakeholders; emphasizes ongoing course improvement.
<i>Richards (2001)</i>	Needs analysis, syllabus design, teaching, assessment, alignment, authenticity	Highlights the importance of data triangulation; ensures relevance and authenticity of content and tasks; supports evidence-based course adjustments.
<i>Brindley (1989)</i>	Assessment linked to learning needs; diagnostic, formative, summative	Focuses on assessment-driven evaluation; emphasizes feedback for syllabus and material revision; supports continuous monitoring of learner progress.
<i>West (1987) – Target Situation Analysis</i>	Learners' target tasks and professional needs	Establishes evaluation criteria based on target performance; measures whether learners can perform real-world tasks after the course.
<i>Long (1991, 2005) – Focus-on-Form</i>	Task performance and language accuracy	Evaluates both functional communication and linguistic precision; useful in fields where accuracy is critical (e.g., medicine, law).
<i>Allwright & Bailey (1991) – Classroom-Based</i>	Classroom observation, learner participation, task engagement	Emphasizes teacher-led, integrated classroom evaluation; focuses on day-to-day learning behavior and interaction.
<i>Basturkmen (2012)</i>	Needs analysis, syllabus, materials, teaching, assessment, iterative improvement	Combines systematic and iterative evaluation; ensures alignment between learning outcomes, real-world tasks, and assessment; supports course revision based on learner progress.

ESP COURSE DESIGN – SCENARIOS

SCENARIO 1: ENGINEERING FACULTY REQUEST

An engineering faculty asks you to design a 30-hour ESP course. They give you a list of technical terms and grammar structures used in manuals and want you to teach them directly.

1. Which approach is the faculty suggesting?
2. Identify one major limitation of this request.
3. Suggest one improvement based on ESP principles.

SCENARIO 2: TOURISM STUDENTS' FAILURE

A tourism ESP course was designed only from workplace target tasks (hotel check-in, giving directions, handling complaints). After the first term, weaker students could not perform the tasks and failed.

1. Which approach was used?
2. What key learner factor was ignored?
3. Propose one solution to make the course more effective.

SCENARIO 3: MEDICAL ESP NEEDS ANALYSIS

A course designer used:

- a questionnaire for students
 - interviews with doctors
 - observation of hospital interactions
1. What ESP principle does this illustrate?
 2. Why is this method more reliable than using only one tool?
 3. Which type of needs does hospital observation identify?

SCENARIO 4: SYLLABUS DESIGN CONFLICT

A department wants a grammar-based syllabus, but students say they need English for presentations and research articles.

1. Identify the two competing syllabus types.
2. Which one is more appropriate for ESP? Why?
3. Suggest a compromise syllabus.

SCENARIO 5: LEARNING-CENTRED IMPLEMENTATION

In a business ESP class, the teacher allows students to choose case studies, set personal learning goals, and evaluate their own progress.

1. Which approach is being applied?
2. Name one advantage of this approach.
3. Name one challenge for the teacher.

SCENARIO 6: COURSE EVALUATION STAGE

At the end of an ESP course, students complete feedback forms and the teacher modifies the syllabus for the next semester.

1. Which stage of course design is this?
2. Is this formative or summative evaluation?
3. Why is this stage essential in ESP?

SCENARIO 7: AUTHENTIC MATERIALS PROBLEM

A teacher uses highly technical research articles with low-level ESP students. Students become demotivated.

1. Which design principle was violated?
2. What should be considered when selecting materials?
3. Suggest one adaptation strategy.

SCENARIO 8: BANKING ESP MINI-DESIGN

You must design a short ESP course for bank employees who need English for customer interaction and report writing.

Provide:

1. One suitable syllabus type
2. One authentic task
3. One assessment method
4. One needs analysis tool

SCENARIOS: TYPES OF SYLLABI IN ESP

SCENARIO 1: GRAMMAR-DRIVEN COURSE

An ESP course for law students is organized as follows:

Week 1: Passive voice in legal texts

Week 2: Modal verbs for obligation and permission

Week 3: Conditionals in contracts

1. Identify the syllabus type.
2. Give one advantage of this syllabus in ESP.
3. Give one limitation.

SCENARIO 2: FUNCTION-BASED ORGANIZATION

A business ESP course is structured around:

- Making requests
 - Negotiating terms
 - Giving presentations
 - Handling complaints
1. Identify the syllabus type.
 2. Why is this useful for workplace communication?
 3. What important element might be missing?

SCENARIO 3: TASK-BASED DESIGN

Students in an aviation ESP course complete the following sequence:

- Simulate pilot–controller communication
- Write incident reports
- Interpret flight manuals

1. Identify the syllabus type.
2. What ESP principle does this reflect?
3. Name one challenge when using this syllabus

SCENARIO 4: SKILLS-BASED COURSE

A course for postgraduate students focuses on:

- Reading research articles
- Listening to lectures
- Writing summaries
- Giving oral presentations

1. Identify the syllabus type.
2. Which branch of ESP is this most related to (EAP or EOP)?
3. Suggest one authentic assessment.

SCENARIO 5: CONTENT-BASED SYLLABUS

An ESP course for environmental science students teaches English through topics such as climate change, renewable energy, and sustainability reports.

1. Identify the syllabus type.
2. What is the main benefit of this syllabus for ESP learners?
3. What risk should the teacher avoid?

SCENARIO 6: MIXED SYLLABUS PROBLEM

A teacher claims to use a task-based syllabus, but the course is actually organized by grammar points, and tasks are only used as practice at the end of each unit.

1. Is this truly task-based? Why or why not?
2. What is the actual syllabus type?
3. How can the teacher make it genuinely task-based?

SCENARIO 7: SYLLABUS SELECTION DECISION

You are designing an ESP course for **journalism students** who need to:

- Write news reports
 - Conduct interviews
 - Edit articles
1. Choose the most appropriate syllabus type.
 2. Justify your choice in one sentence.
 3. Name one complementary syllabus type that could be integrated.

SCENARIO 8: SYLLABUS-NEEDS MISMATCH

A needs analysis shows that nursing students need spoken interaction with patients, but the course syllabus is based on reading medical textbooks.

1. Identify the current syllabus type.
2. Why is it inappropriate?
3. Suggest a better syllabus type.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: ESP NEEDS ANALYSIS QUESTIONNAIRE (ENGINEERING STUDENTS)

Purpose: Identify target needs, present situation, and learning preferences.

Section 1: Background Information

1. What is your specialization?
2. What year of study are you in?
3. Have you taken any ESP course before? ☐ Yes ☐ No

Section 2: Target Situation Needs

4. How important is English for the following tasks? (1 = Not important, 5 = Very important)

- Reading technical manuals ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5
- Writing lab reports ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5
- Understanding lectures in English ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5
- Participating in technical discussions ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5

Section 3: Present Situation

5. How do you rate your current ability in:

- Reading technical texts ☐ Poor ☐ متوسط ☐ Good
- Writing reports ☐ Poor ☐ متوسط ☐ Good
- Speaking about your field ☐ Poor ☐ متوسط ☐ Good

Section 4: Learning Needs

6. Which activities help you learn best?

☐ Group work ☐ Practice tasks ☐ Teacher explanation ☐ Self-study

7. What are your main difficulties in English?
☐ Vocabulary ☐ Grammar ☐ Speaking ☐ Listening
8. What do you expect from this ESP course? (Short answer)

APPENDIX B: ESP OBSERVATION CHECKLIST (MEDICAL ENGLISH – HOSPITAL INTERACTION)

Context: Observing nurse–patient communication.

Item	Observed	Not Observed	Notes
Uses appropriate medical terminology	☐	☐	
Explains procedures clearly to patients	☐	☐	
Asks follow-up questions	☐	☐	
Uses polite and empathetic language	☐	☐	
Switches to L1 when communication breaks down	☐	☐	
Uses non-verbal support (gestures, eye contact)	☐	☐	
Shows difficulty with pronunciation	☐	☐	
Reads patient charts in English	☐	☐	

Focus: communicative events, discourse, strategies, and language problems.

APPENDIX C: ESP SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW GUIDE (BUSINESS ENGLISH – MANAGERS)

Purpose: Identify workplace language requirements.

1. In which situations do your employees use English at work?
2. What types of documents do they write in English? (emails, reports, proposals...)
3. Which skills are most important: speaking, writing, reading, or listening? Why?
4. What communication problems do they face when using English?
5. Do they need English for meetings or negotiations?
6. What level of formality is required in workplace communication?
7. What training would you like an ESP course to provide?

Follow-up:

- Can you give an example?
- How often does this situation occur?

APPENDIX D: DATA TRIANGULATION TABLE

Tool	Discipline	Type of Needs Identified
Questionnaire	Engineering	Present situation & learning preferences
Observation	Medical	Target situation communicative practices
Interview	Business	Workplace expectations & tasks

APPENDIX E: CASE STUDY (JOURNALISM ESP)

Purpose: Examine authentic workplace communication in a specific context.

Scenario: Observe and analyze how journalism interns produce news reports, conduct interviews, and edit articles in English.

Data Collection:

- Collect copies of reports written by interns.
- Record interactions during newsroom meetings.
- Note language difficulties in interviews and editing tasks.

Focus:

- Types of discourse used (news, editorial, interviews)
- Language strategies and errors
- Authentic communicative tasks

APPENDIX F: FOCUS GROUP (BUSINESS ENGLISH – MANAGERS & EMPLOYEES)

Purpose: Identify collective perceptions, needs, and challenges in workplace English use.

- 6–8 participants per group
- Duration: 45–60 minutes
- Semi-structured discussion

Sample Questions:

1. Which English skills are most frequently used in your work?
2. What problems do employees face when communicating in English?
3. How often do they need to write reports, emails, or proposals?
4. Which tasks do they find most challenging?
5. What support would help improve their English proficiency?

Notes: Moderator records main themes, examples, and frequency of issues.

APPENDIX G: DOCUMENT REVIEW (ENGINEERING ESP)

Purpose: Identify language demands and typical communication tasks in a professional context.

Procedure:

- Collect authentic documents: manuals, lab reports, technical specifications, project proposals.
- Analyze:
 - Vocabulary and terminology
 - Grammar patterns
 - Text structure and organization
 - Task types (e.g., reporting, summarizing, instructing)

Focus: Inform syllabus design and materials development.

APPENDIX H: DIAGNOSTIC TEST (MEDICAL ESP – NURSING STUDENTS)

Purpose: Assess learners’ existing English skills before the course.

Sections:

1. Vocabulary & Terminology

- Match medical terms with definitions (e.g., “intravenous,” “diagnosis”).

2. Reading Comprehension

- Short patient case reports with multiple-choice questions.

3. Writing

- Write a short patient note (3–5 sentences) using correct terminology.

4. Listening & Speaking

- Listen to a nurse–patient conversation and answer comprehension questions.
- Role-play: Introduce yourself to a patient and explain a procedure.

Scoring: Identify strengths and weaknesses in medical English skills to inform course planning.

TESTS AND EXAMS SAMPLES

SAMPLE 1

Determine if the following statements are True Or False, and provide Corrections for any that are incorrect.

1. _____. Surveys are the only reliable method for conducting needs analysis in ESP.
.....
2. _____. ESP needs analysis should avoid considering the learners' language learning history.
.....
3. _____. ESP always includes a cultural component, regardless of the field of specialization.
.....
4. _____. Once an ESP course is developed, it does not need to be updated or revised.
.....
5. _____. Authentic materials are preferred over created materials in ESP course design to expose learners to real language use in their field.
.....
6. _____. Needs analysis in ESP course design is a continuous process that may influence the course content at any time.
.....
7. _____. Observational methods are applicable in ESP needs analysis as they provide direct feedback from learners.
.....
8. _____. Real-world professional task performance is a valid measure of success in ESP courses.
.....
9. _____. Needs analysis in ESP is unnecessary if the learners are all from the same professional field.
.....2
10. _____. Only the learners' perspectives are needed in the needs analysis for ESP.
.....
11. _____. In ESP course design, the syllabus should be rigid to maintain consistency throughout the course.
.....
12. _____. Needs analysis in ESP should only focus on the immediate needs of the learners.
.....
13. _____. Quantitative data is more valuable than qualitative data in ESP needs analysis.
.....
14. _____. Needs analysis for ESP requires follow-up after the initial data collection.
.....
15. _____. ESP courses only need to focus on specialized language skills and can disregard general language skills.
.....
16. _____. The results of a needs analysis in ESP should not be kept confidential and shared with the learners.
.....
17. _____. Learner self-assessment is a reliable tool for needs analysis in ESP.
.....
18. _____. The content of ESP courses is exclusively determined by the language teacher.
.....
19. _____. Focus groups are beneficial for needs analysis in ESP as they reflect the views of a few individuals.
.....
20. _____. Case studies are too specific and therefore not useful for needs analysis in ESP.
.....

SAMPLE 2

Tick the appropriate option

1. A group of engineering students struggles to describe technical procedures in English. The teacher observes their explanations during lab sessions and notes which verbs and phrases they use incorrectly.

- ☐ The teacher is supporting students while they carry out real-world classroom activities.
- ☐ The teacher is diagnosing weaknesses in language use linked to professional communication.
- ☐ The teacher is evaluating students' outcomes at the end of the task.
- ☐ The teacher is designing activities aimed at improving everyday English skills.

2. In a medical course, students are asked to read research abstracts and summarize findings in English. The teacher gives examples of correct phrasing and points out subtle differences in terminology usage.

- ☐ The teacher is scaffolding students' use of academic language within a disciplinary context.
- ☐ The teacher is gathering information to redesign the course later.
- ☐ The teacher is assigning marks without offering instructional input.
- ☐ The teacher is practicing general language forms with no disciplinary focus.

3. Economics students are practicing expressing cause and effect in English using phrases like "as a result of" or "consequently," while analyzing real economic trends.

- ☐ The students are practicing standard writing patterns applicable to any subject.
- ☐ The students are acquiring language forms specific to economic discourse.
- ☐ The teacher is observing student work only for curriculum evaluation.
- ☐ The students are expanding their general English vocabulary range.

4. A law class performs simulated courtroom debates. Students must argue cases in English, while the teacher provides guidance on legal terminology, sentence structures, and persuasive strategies.

- ☐ The teacher is collecting material to evaluate students at a later stage.
- ☐ The teacher is guiding students through realistic, discipline-based communicative tasks.
- ☐ The teacher is detecting deficiencies in everyday English usage.
- ☐ The teacher is acting as a silent observer during the activity.

5. Nursing students practice patient consultations in English. They learn how to ask questions, describe symptoms, and clarify instructions while receiving immediate teacher feedback.

- ☐ Students are repeating common expressions without situational relevance.
- ☐ Students are using field-specific language in interactive professional scenarios.
- ☐ The teacher is outlining course goals rather than engaging with performance.
- ☐ The teacher is reviewing resources instead of classroom interaction.

6. A teacher spends several sessions observing students performing technical tasks in a lab, noting where they struggle to explain their work in English and which skills they will need professionally.

- ☐ Selecting instructional texts based on observed learner difficulties.
- ☐ Supervising students while they complete hands-on activities.

- ☐ Evaluating students' present language ability.
 - ☐ Determining the professional language demands students will face later.
- 7.** In a tourism course, lessons are arranged from greeting clients → handling reservations → conducting tours → writing brochures, each with clear outcomes and expected tasks.
- ☐ Designing a structured sequence of lessons based on identified communicative needs.
 - ☐ Choosing authentic materials to support classroom tasks.
 - ☐ Implementing role-play activities during instruction.
 - ☐ Revising course content after final assessment.
- 8.** Students read authentic engineering reports and manuals adapted by the teacher to highlight technical verbs, passive constructions, and processes. They practice explaining content in English.
- ☐ Modifying workplace texts to make them pedagogically accessible.
 - ☐ Monitoring how students use language during activities.
 - ☐ Evaluating learners' understanding through tests.
 - ☐ Selecting subject content for the syllabus.
- 9.** During a business class, students participate in a simulated international negotiation. The teacher offers immediate phrasing suggestions, explains cultural norms, and helps clarify ideas.
- ☐ Encouraging meaningful interaction in a realistic professional setting.
 - ☐ Assessing learner output only after task completion.
 - ☐ Creating instructional materials before classroom interaction.
 - ☐ Noting difficulties once the activity has ended.
- 10.** After an EAP course, the teacher reviews research reports, gathers student feedback on challenges, and revises the next syllabus accordingly.
- ☐ Using learner performance and feedback to refine future instruction.
 - ☐ Supporting students while tasks are being carried out.
 - ☐ Collecting baseline data before teaching begins.
 - ☐ Changing classroom texts without reviewing learning outcomes.
- 11.** A teacher explains tense in reports and facilitates practice exercises connected to students' ongoing projects.
- ☐ Explaining language forms and actively supporting their application.
 - ☐ Adapting teaching materials without direct learner engagement.
 - ☐ Collaborating with disciplinary specialists on content.
 - ☐ Evaluating assignments after instruction is complete.
- 12.** In a medical class, the teacher adjusts real patient cases to create exercises that help students practice explaining symptoms, diagnoses, and treatment options.
- ☐ Transforming real-life cases into pedagogically useful learning materials.
 - ☐ Delivering instruction using unmodified resources.

☐ Assessing student work without preparing instructional input.

☐ Coordinating with colleagues without adapting materials.

13. An instructor works with a law professor to design simulated courtroom interactions, ensuring both legal content and English usage are accurate.

☐ Collaborating with subject specialists to ensure contextual accuracy.

☐ Planning and delivering instruction independently.

☐ Measuring student achievement through assessment only.

☐ Editing instructional texts without interdisciplinary input.

14. A student studies online tutorials about programming in English, practices writing code explanations, and works independently without guidance or peer support.

☐ Managing one's own learning process independently.

☐ Prioritizing examination results over skill development.

☐ Identifying mistakes without integrating improvements.

☐ Depending on classmates while completing tasks.

15. A student keeps a portfolio with assignments and reflections about areas needing improvement.

☐ Reflecting systematically on learning progress and strategies.

☐ Completing coursework mainly to satisfy grading requirements.

☐ Working alone without reviewing learning development.

☐ Following task instructions without performance evaluation.

16. Students in a business class work in teams to create a marketing plan and giving peer feedback.

☐ Collaboratively building knowledge through shared discussion and feedback.

☐ Concentrating on team achievement.

☐ Completing assigned tasks independently.

☐ Monitoring team progress with engaging in group interaction.

SAMPLE 3

Instruction 1: Indicate whether each statement is True or False. If False, correct the statement (Do not use the NEGATIVE form. (....)/05 pts)

1. _____. The emergence of ESP was primarily driven by internal developments in linguistics.

.....

2. _____. The rapid expansion of science and technology after World War II rendered General English insufficient for professional communication.

.....

3. _____. The target situation refers the learners' existing language skills and abilities.

.....

4. _____. Teaching underlying knowledge in ESP is limited to memorizing technical terms and grammar rules.

.....

5. _____. Strategic competence teaches learners to memorize technical terms.

.....

Instruction 2: For each course listed below, indicate its type and write its main teaching objective. (....)/06pts)

<i>Course</i>	<i>Type</i>	<i>Main objective</i>
English for Research Article Writing		
English for Business Meetings		
English for Adults in a language institute		
English for Hotel Management Staff		
English for Hospital Administration		
English for Tourism Services		

Instruction 3: Choose the appropriate option (....)/04 pts)

a. ESP courses are always designed for adult learners because...

- ☐ adults have more developed cognitive skills
- ☐ only adults can study professional language
- ☐ ESP content is too difficult for younger learners
- ☐ all learners need ESP the same way

b. Evaluation in ESP:

- ☐ Happens at the end of the course.
- ☐ Measures course effectiveness, learner progress, and informs future course redesign.
- ☐ Focuses on grammar accuracy.
- ☐ Is optional.

c. Which of the following is NOT considered as an absolute characteristic of ESP?

- ☐ Learner-centered.
- ☐ Goal-oriented.
- ☐ Adaptable methodology.
- ☐ Language selected for specific context.

d. Which of the following statements are true for both ESP and EGP?

- ☐ Both focus on students' communication skills.
- ☐ Both can involve speaking, listening, reading, and writing skills.
- ☐ Both are always short-term and goal-oriented.
- ☐ Both focus on grammar.

e. According to Dudley-Evans & St. John (1998), the ESP teaching process is:

- ☐ Cyclical and independent.
- ☐ Cyclical and interdependent.
- ☐ Random and independent.
- ☐ Fixed and unchanging.

f. Which of the following is NOT a key difference between ESP and EGP?

- ☐ ESP is needs-driven; EGP is not.
- ☐ EGP focuses on general English communication; ESP focuses on professional English.
- ☐ ESP is long-term and goal-oriented; EGP can be short-term.
- ☐ ESP is usually more learner-centered than EGP.

g. Which of the following is NOT a variable characteristic of ESP?

- ☐ Focused on specific disciplines.
- ☐ Flexible methodology.
- ☐ Short-term course duration.
- ☐ English used for professional purposes.

h. In the ELT tree, ESP is divided into:

- ☐ GE and EAP
- ☐ EAP and EOP
- ☐ GE and EOP
- ☐ Academic and General English

Instruction 4: Provide short answers to the following questions

a. How does an ESP practitioner differ from a GE teacher in terms of Course Design? (...../02.50 pts)

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

b. Why is interdependence between stages important for effective ESP teaching? (...../02.50 pts)

.....

.....

.....

.....

SAMPLE 4**Choose the appropriate option**

1. What is the primary purpose of needs analysis in ESP?
 - A. To evaluate the learners' progress
 - B. To tailor English language instruction to meet specific needs
 - C. To test the learners' existing language skills
2. Name two types of needs that are identified in needs analysis.
 - A. Target Needs and Learning Needs
 - B. Financial Needs and Target Needs
 - C. Academic Needs and Professional Needs
3. How does situation analysis help in needs analysis?
 - A. By understanding the learners' general requirements and profiles
 - B. By selecting appropriate teaching materials
 - C. By designing the course syllabus
4. What is the first stage in ESP course design?
 - A. Needs Analysis
 - B. Materials Selection
 - C. Teaching and Learning
5. What does the course design stage involve?
 - A. Choosing the course material
 - B. Creating a syllabus that aligns with learners' specific requirements
 - C. Conducting language proficiency tests
6. How do ESP practitioners balance linguistic features with practical requirements?
 - A. By focusing only on linguistic features
 - B. By focusing on practical requirements
 - C. By balancing both linguistic features and practical requirements
7. Which needs analysis method involves collecting data through standardized questions?
 - A. Survey
 - B. Interview
 - C. Observation
8. What method of needs analysis is best for gaining in-depth understanding of individual perspectives?
 - A. Focus Group
 - B. Survey
 - C. Interview
9. Which method involves reviewing existing records or documents to understand needs?
 - A. Document Analysis
 - B. Survey
 - C. Interview
10. What is the primary advantage of using observation as a needs analysis method?
 - A. It provides real-time data
 - B. It is cost-effective
 - C. It allows for large sample sizes
11. What is the main purpose of conducting a focus group in needs analysis?
 - A. To collect quantitative data

- B. To observe behavior
C. To gather diverse perspectives
12. Which method allows for direct interaction with participants to explore their needs?
A. Survey
B. Interview
C. Observation
13. How does a case study differ from a survey in needs analysis?
A. It involves more participants
B. It provides quantitative data
C. It offers a detailed examination of a specific case
14. What is a key feature of a focus group that differentiates it from an interview?
A. It involves one participant
B. It includes a group discussion
C. It does not allow for follow-up questions
15. Which method is most suitable for exploring the needs of a large population?
A. Case Study
B. Observation
C. Survey
16. In ESP, material selection should primarily focus on:
A. The cost of materials
B. The attractiveness of materials
C. The relevance to the learners' field of study
17. Assessment and feedback in ESP should be:
A. Infrequent and general
B. Timely and specific
C. Based on attendance
18. A successful teaching implementation in ESP is characterized by:
A. Flexibility and adaptability to learners' needs
B. A focus on theoretical knowledge only
C. The use of only one teaching method
19. An effective course evaluation in ESP should lead to:
A. No changes in future courses
B. Enhancements in teaching methods and materials
C. A reduction in the number of ESP courses offered
20. In syllabus development, the alignment of content with learners' needs ensures:
A. That the course will be easier to teach
B. That the course is relevant and practical
C. That the syllabus is longer

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20