**Format of ESP ECA 906.**

1. Introduction.

2. History of English For Specific Purpose.

3. Appropriate use of English.

4. Xteristic of English For Specific Purpose.

5. The Usefulness of English For Specific Purpose.

6. Why do use English For Specific Purpose.

7. English as use by other people or Profession, then narrow it down to your topic

8. Reference (not let's than two pages).

Abstract

The field of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) addresses the communicative needs and practices of particular professional or occupational groups. It draws its strength from an eclectic theoretical foundation and a commitment to research-based language education, which seeks to reveal the constraints of social contexts on language use and the ways learners can gain control over these. In other words, it challenges the theory-practice divide and makes visible academic and professional genres to students. In this chapter, I briefly point to some of the major ideas and practices that influence ESP, focusing on needs analysis, ethnography, critical approaches, intercultural rhetoric, social constructionism, and discourse analysis. I then go on to look briefly at some of the effects ESP has had on language teaching and research, arguing that it has encouraged teachers to highlight discourse rather than language, to adopt a research orientation to their work, to employ collaborative pedagogies, to be aware of discourse variation, and to consider the wider political implications of their role. Together these features of ESP practice emphasize a situated view of literacy and underline the applied nature of the field.

English for Specific Purposes:

Introduction:

Since the 1960s ESP has become one of the most active branches of Applied Linguistics in general, and of Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) in particular. Among the factors that could explain its vitality and its expansion is the emergence of English as a world language, (Lamri, 2016), of technology, science, and commerce. As the second world war ended in 1945, an age of enormous expansion in science, technology and commerce began all over the world which soon generated a demand for international language. For various reasons, and most noticeable was the economic power of the United States in the post world war II and English was accepted as the international language of trade, science and technology. The effect was to create a new mass of people who wanted to learn English, not for pleasure or prestige of knowing the language, but because English was the key to the international currencies of technology, and commerce, (Hutchinson and Waters 1987:p.6). As English became the accepted international language of technology and commerce, it created a new generation of learners who knew why they were learning a language- business men, and women who wanted to sell their products, mechanics who had to read instruction manuals, doctors who needed to keep up with developments in their fields, and a whole range of students whose course of study included text books and journals only available in English. Thus, the quest to learn the internationally recognised language (English) in order to function very well in a respective workplace gave rise to ESP.

The development of ESP is considered as a logical result of a number of converging movements which the most important are:

1. The expansion of demand for English after the 2nd world war to suit specific needs of a profession (as discussed above).

2. Development in the field of linguistics (this is centred on the use of language in real communication, see Widdowson 1978, and Hutchinson and Waters 1987:p.7). This also created significant demand for teaching English tailored to the needs and demands of people. Traditionally, English teaching was focused on grammar, but this shift in demand gave rise to a new approach. The new aim was to define how language was used in realistic circumstances. “Tell me what you need English for and I will tell you the English that you need,” became the guiding principle of ESP at that time (Hutchinson and Waters 1987). Moreover, the conversation now turned to the important differences between the English of technology and commerce and this made people consider the notion that language usage depended on the context.

3. **Educational psychology:** This led to the emphasis on teaching practice rather than theory itself. Learners were seen to have different needs and interests, which would have an important influence to learn and on the effectiveness of their learning. This helps to the development of courses in which the learners' needs and interests were considered paramount).

**Defining the concept “ESP”.**

English for specific purposes (ESP) refers to the teaching and learning of English as a second or foreign language where the goal of the learners is to use English in a particular domain, (Paltridge and Starfield 2013). English for Specific Purposes (ESP) is an approach to language teaching that targets the current and/or future academic or occupational needs of learners, focuses on the language, skills, discourses, and genres required to address these needs, and assists learners in meeting these needs through general and/or discipline-specific teaching and learning methodologies, (Anthony 2015:2). Hutchison and Waters (1987) affirm that ESP is an approach to language learning which is based on learner need. Related to Hutchinson’s and Water's definition of ESP, Swales (1992) states that ESP is “the area of inquiry and practice in the development of language programmes for people who need a language to meet a predictable range of communicative needs” (p. 300).

The concept of ESP defined above is geared towards how the needs of learners would be met in order for them to cope with English in their new working environments. Thus, ESP is centred on the learners' needs, and such needs were largely motivated by the need to communicate across languages in areas such as commerce and technology (see Benesch 2001). This has now expanded to include other areas such as English for academic purposes (EAP), English for occupational purposes (EOP), English for vocational purposes (EVP), and so many others, (Belcher 2009).

ESP is a dynamic research discipline, underpinned by one fundamental question: how best to meet the needs of English learners, especially in our increasingly globalized and internationalized world, (Kırkgöz and Dikilitaş, 2018:p.2). As highlighted by Räisänen and Fortanet-Gómez (2008), the main priority of ESP is that “the English taught caters for the needs and learners in specific disciplines other than the arts and languages” (p. 12).

This single question encompasses a host of related issues from designing ESP programs, to materials development to assessment. A key feature of an ESP course is that the content and aims of the course are oriented to the specific needs of the learners. ESP courses, then, focus on the language, skills, and genres appropriate to the specific activities the learners need to carry out in English. Typically (although not always) ESP students are adult learners. They are also often a homogeneous group in terms of learning goals, although not always in terms of language proficiency. Key issues in the teaching of English for specific purposes are how to identify learner needs, the nature of the genres that learners need to be able to produce as well as participate in, and how we can know that our learners have been able to do this successfully, and, if not, what we can do to help them to do this.

**Characteristics of ESP**

ESP is a recognizable activity of English Language Teaching (ELT) with some specific characteristics. Dudley-Evans and Johns (1998) tried to apply a series of characteristics, some absolute and some variable, to outline the major features of ESP. Below are characteristics of ESP.

**Absolute** **Characteristics**:

1. ESP is designed to meet specific needs of the learners.
2. ESP is goal oriented. In this issue, the learners learn not because they want to know the language as the culture and language contain on it but they learn because they have specific goals and specific field in academic or profession with another.
3. ESP makes use of underlying methodology and activities of the discipline it serves;
4. ESP is centred on the language (grammar, lexis, register), skills, discourse and genre appropriate to these activities.
5. ESP is a learner-centred approach compared to teaching English as a foreign/second language (Ahmad, 2012, p. 114).

**Variable Characteristics:**

1. ESP may be related to or designed for specific disciplines;

2. ESP may use, in specific teaching situations, a different methodology from that of General English;

3. ESP is likely to be designed for adult learners, either at a tertiary level institution or in a professional work situation. It could, however, be for learners at secondary school level;

4. ESP is generally designed for intermediate or advanced students. Most ESP courses assume some basic knowledge of the language systems, but it can be used with beginners.

(Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998:4)

Dudley-Evans & At. John (1998) called the first four characteristics of ESP absolute, while the last four are called variable characteristics. The absolute characteristics are specific to ESP because learners' needs are of central importance when designing language activities. Concerning the variable features, ESP courses can be designed for a specific group using definite teaching methodology, nevertheless, all learners' categories and disciplines can be concerned with ESP. For that reason ESP should be seen simply as an 'approach' to teaching, or what Dudley-Evans and John illustrate as an 'attitude of mind'. Similarly, Hutchinson and waters‟ (1987:19) stated that, "ESP should properly be seen not as any particular language product but as an approach to language teaching in which all decisions as to content and method are based on the learner's reason for learning".

Strevens (1988) defines English for Specific Purposes by making a distinction between its absolute and its variable characteristics. Strevens considers the following as the absolute characteristics of ESP:

1. Designed to meet specified needs of the learner;
2. Related in content (i.e. themes and topics) to particular disciplines, occupations and activities;
3. Centred on the language appropriate for those activities in syntax, lexis, discourse and semantics;
4. In contrast with General English.

Strevens (1988) also identifies the following as the variable characteristics of ESP as:

1. Restriction to the language skills to be learned;
2. Use of no teaching methodology.
3. The absolute characteristics correspond to the identified needs of the learner, the topics under study and the content to be taught, contrasting with “general English that is commonly linked to syntax, lexis, discourse and semantics amongst others” (Johns & Dudley-Evans, 1993, p. 116, MUNGONGI, 2018:p. 89-90).

These characteristics are the necessary features to identify such a process as being ESP. The variable characteristics are not a necessary condition, as they may or may not be part of the whole process in particular situations. They consist in, first, teaching ESP without following any existing methodology simply because it may not be appropriate in certain cases, and secondly, restricting teaching the skill or skills to be learned.

**Appropriateness in ESP ( read Cheng A. 2011 ESP classroom research), Halliday’s 1994 appropriate methodology**

In order to meet up the needs of learners, appropriateness of materials, teaching methods, and concepts is needed to cater the learners' need. This is because if ESP program is not designed appropriately, the learners will misfire in their target environment. Therefore, ESP is concerned in appropriateness, ensuring that the goal of learners are realised.

**Appropriateness of Materials**

ESP material has been regarded as a characteristic feature of ESP work (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987: 125). ESP is typically based on the assumption that its courses are designed to meet the specific needs of learners. It follows that the materials designed for this purpose should appropriately meet the learners' requirement for the language, (Anwar, 2016:p.267). In the learning process, materials and methods play a key role in determining classroom events. Whereas methods may tend to be idiosyncratic, materials within the ESP programme in this study provided a fixed reference point among the participants across

the universities.

**Appropriateness of Teaching Method:**

Practitioners consider ESP as the best example of communicative language teaching. The preoccupation with `purpose' in ESP has focused attention on language use particularly in occupational and academic situations. In response to the question whether ESP has its own methodology or whether it implies a particular kind of classroom procedure, McDonough admits: "There is no clear-cut answer to this" (McDonough, 1984: 89). Johns and Dudley-Evans indicate that "It [ESP] has tended to be a needs- and materials-led movement, historically questioned by only a few" (Johns and Dudley-Evans, 1991: 305) and later on state:

We believe that ESP requires methodologies that are specialised or unique. An English for academic purposes (EAP) class taught collaboratively by a language teacher and a subject-area lecturer ..., sheltered and adjunct EAP classes ..., and special English classes for students in the workplace ... require considerably different approaches than those found in general English classes.(Ibid.)

Blair believes that "the criteria that have to be thought about and thought through in course design and methodology for the teaching of language for use derive from principles of general pedagogy and are not exclusive to language teaching" (Blair, 2007: 108). With regard to ESP in particular, he later points out that "the learning of language for a purpose cannot be dissociated from the other activities that need to be undertaken to achieve that purpose. The English to be learned can be purposeful only to the extent that the activities it is used for are purposeful in the actual learning process" (Ibid.).

Thus, for him:

ESP is (or ought logically to be) integrally linked with areas of activity

(academic, vocational, professional) which have already been defined

and which represent the learners' aspirations. The learning of ESP is in

consequence an essentially dependent activity, a parasitic process, and

it follows that the pedagogy of ESP must be dependent too.

Another major issue of concern in this regard is the **appropriateness** of the means of achieving the objectives. In ESP practice, reading is the skill that is given primary importance. The validity of a focus upon one single skill is a matter of debate. Although monoskill reading courses have been popular in some parts of the world and reports indicate their relevance (Alderson and Beretta, 1992), Hutchinson and Waters believe that concentration on one skill is limiting and that some attention to other skills is likely to improve performance in the target skill.

**Usefulness of ESP (Read Ideas and options in ESP on p. 133- objectives of teaching ESP) also read Anthony, L. (2015). The changing role and importance of ESP in Asia. English as a Global**

**21.The followings are the usefulness of ESP**

First, ESP helps to develop linguistic competence of a specific group of learners who need the language to perform their activities in their respective domain of profession. (Dudley-Evans and ST. John 1988:p.1 in Basturkmen 2010:p.2) observe that ESP is very useful as it helps to prepare learners to communicate effectively in the tasks prescribed by their study or work situation. For Hutchinson & Waters (1987:p.21) ‘...ESP is an approach to language teaching which aims to meet the needs of particular learners.”

Second, ESP is useful as it helps to foster critical awareness. The advantage of such awareness is that learners will be positioned to choose which language practices they wish to engage in and which they wish to modify or reject, (Basturkmen 2006:p.142). This fact is based on a common understanding that the role of ESP is to help students fit into their target academic, professional, or workplace environments. Thus conventionally the role of ESP has been construed in terms of helping English language learners meet the demands and expectations of the target environment, to close the gap between the students’ present state of skills and knowledge and the level required by members of the target environment.

Third, ESP is useful as it helps **to teach**  **underlying knowledge.** Using a second or foreign language for workplace or study purposes requires not only linguistic proficiency and knowledge but also knowledge and understanding of work-related and disciplinary concepts, (Basturkmen 2006:p.137). The term underlying competencies (knowledge) in ESP was used by Hutchinson and Waters (1985) to refer to disciplinary concepts from the students’ field of study. They argued that ESP should focus on developing students’ knowledge of these disciplinary concepts as well as their language skills. The objective of teaching underlying knowledge can be classified as a cultural knowledge objective, according to Stern’s categorization (1992).

Forth, a special usefulness of ESP is revealed when “it is offered directly to learners in academic institutions and also to workers and professionals who have experience, in order to promote their understanding and communication with each other” (Jordan, 1997, p. 90). With this flexibility in curricula, ESP can be considered either in academic or workplace contexts, (Albassri, 2016: p.50).

Fifth, “ESP is essentially a training operation which seeks to provide learners with a restricted competence to enable them to cope with certain clearly defined tasks. These tasks constitute the specific purposes which the ESP course is designed to meet” (Widdowson, 1992, p. 6).

Fadel and Elyas (2015: p.23) investigated the usefulness of ESP in comparison to the general English, and came up with the following outlines as the importance of ESP. In their study, ESP could be useful for the learners as it helps them:

* 1. To be well prepared for current and future study and specialization.
  2. To save time and effort given in understanding scientific subjects.
  3. To achieve progress as ESP will make difficult technical terminologies easier to define and understand.
  4. To improve the academic language skills.
  5. To be ready for their future profession.
  6. To facilitate communication with doctors in hospitals.
  7. To improve oral presentations required in scientific projects.
  8. To understand scientific articles.

ESP in other professions

**English used by medical practitioners**

Medical English is the specialized vocabulary used by health care professionals. It is also concerned with the communication techniques they need to work effectively with patients and coworkers. Doctors, nurses, pharmacists and other professionals also need to know how to communicate clearly with patients and coworkers in health care settings.

Clear communication is essential to recognizing health problems and making diagnoses, giving proper treatments, and avoiding dangerous errors.

English used by legal professionals

The language used by legal practitioners used to be Latin. Now it is English. English has taken over not only as the language of international academia but also of trade and commerce. It is, therefore, not surprising that the international language of the legal transaction is English too.

Unfortunately, legal English and ordinary English are not identical languages, (Gubby, 2016.p.9). A non-native speaker could be very proficient in ordinary English and still be lost for words in a legal discussion. Even a native English speaker may find legal English quite inaccessible if he has no legal training. This is because legal English is a professional language and uses certain words and expressions that are totally outside the experience of a layperson. Some words are only found in legal English, for example the word ‘rescission’. Sometimes the word is the same as an ordinary English word, but with a quite different, specific legal meaning, for example the word ‘consideration’.

For students who have studied law, but have not done so in English, this legal terminology is not familiar. However, ignorance of legal English can hold students back if they are studying law in English. Having to read, write and discuss legal matters entirely in English is often a daunting task for international students.

Legal English may also pose problems for legal practitioners who have not studied law in English, even though their command of ordinary English may be very good. Law firms, with an international clientele, correspond with their clients in English. A Dutch lawyer, for example, may find himself having to write a letter in English to an American client explaining the legal position according to Dutch law. It is also quite possible that neither party is a native English speaker: a letter giving legal advice in English could just as easily be between a German lawyer and a Polish client.

In these cases, English law itself is not relevant. Nonetheless, English legal terminology has to be used to explain another country’s law. Getting the legal terminology wrong could be a costly mistake.

Aviation English

Communication between pilots and air traffic controllers is a crucial element of flight safety. In the 1950s, with the remarkable increase of international air service, the International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO) decided English as the mandatory language of international civil aviation. Their reasoning was to ensure efficient communication between pilots and air traffic controllers in order to guarantee the safety of international flights (Huang & Wu, 2005).

However, according to ICAO, one of the main causes of air crash during 1980s was inefficient communication or miscommunication between pilots and air traffic controllers (Huang & Wu, 2005). So, the unsatisfactory English communication ability of pilots and air traffic controllers was regarded as a safety hazard. Hence, ICAO began to implement a program called Aviation English to increase the English proficiency of pilots and air traffic controllers.

Based on the requirements, the Civil Aviation Administration of China (CAAC) utilized an English proficiency testing system for Chinese pilots called the Pilots’ English Proficiency Examination of CAAC (PEPEC). Accordingly, student pilots are required to pass the third level of the ICAO English program before graduation. Furthermore, all pilots must pass ICAO English level-4 to qualify for international flights (Li, Xiao, & Ren, 2013).

The International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO) instituted a requirement that pilots and air traffic controllers involved in international aviation be certified as to their proficiency in English, the official language of international civil aviation, by a revised date of March, 2011. In order to meet this requirement, national civil aviation organizations began searching for tests of Aviation English. Well in advance of the deadline, test development companies began producing such tests.

In a survey conducted by the Lancaster Language Testing Research Group (Alderson 2009 ) it was found that among several such tests available, little evidence was found regarding their quality, particularly in terms of the validity of interpretations of test performance. The survey team concluded that they “ can have little confidence in the meaningfulness, reliability, and validity of several of the aviation language tests currently available for licensure ” (2010: 51), and recommend that some international organization begin to monitor the quality of tests in this critical area of assessment; indeed, the International Language Testing Association has begun consultations with the ICAO for this very purpose. The Lancaster researchers also expressed concern for the validity of the ICAO scale for rating professional Aviation English, and some research has been undertaken to address such concerns. For example, Knoch (2009) reports on a standard - setting exercise in which users of the ICAO scale and pilots themselves were invited to give their views on the validity of the scale and descriptors as well as on the recorded performances of pilots with regard to the scale. Knoch concludes by asserting the importance of employing such stakeholder groups in the development and validation of ESP assessment scales. Read and Knoch (2009) provide an overview of the issues involved in the development and interpretation of tests of Aviation English.

**Business English**

Ever since English became the primary language of international business, research in the nature and function of what has come to be known as Business English has flourished.

English for Business Purposes (EBP), also known as Business English, became an independent area of study in the early 1990s, primarily as a consequence of the globalization of trade and commerce, which made it necessary for business people to move out of their home grounds and operate across territorial, linguistic, cultural as well as socio-political boundaries, (Simpson, 2011:p.26). This new business environment achieved further incentive through the massive influx of multimedia that seeped into the traditional business world, with the result that the business people found themselves operating in a vibrant international marketplace, which was so different from their more traditional base.

English for Business Purpose courses, for instance, have been further classified on the basis of variations in the use of language across sub-disciplines of business, that is, economics, marketing, management, and accountancy. The assumption that every discipline has its own repertoire of typical genres, which are unlikely to be used by members of other professional communities, seems to be well established in recent genre-analytical literature (Swales 1990; Bhatia and Candlin 2001; Bhatia 2004). This is due to the fact that each discipline has its own typical ways of constructing, interpreting, and using genres, defining membership characteristics of such communities, (Bhatia 1999a; Hewings and Nickerson 1999; Hyland 2000). All these factors contribute to the determination of typical ways of thinking and behaving in specific disciplines or sub-disciplines. Assumptions of this kind may lead one to say ‘He behaves like an accountant’, or ‘That’s very typical of a marketing person,' (Simpson, 2011:p.27).

Business English is a part of English for specific purposes and can be considered a specialism within English language learning and teaching, or a variant of international English. Many non-native English speakers study the subject with the goal of doing business with English-speaking countries, or with companies located outside the English-speaking world but which nonetheless use English as a shared language or lingua franca. Much of the English communication that takes place within business circles all over the world occurs between non-native speakers. In cases such as these, the object of the exercise is efficient and effective communication.[1] The strict rules of grammar are in such cases sometimes ignored, when, for example, a stressed negotiator's only goal is to reach an agreement as quickly as possible. (See linguist Braj Kachru's theory of the "expanding circle".)

Business English means different things to different people. For some, it focuses on vocabulary and topics used in the worlds of business, trade, finance, and international relations. For others it refers to the communication skills used in the workplace, and focuses on the language and skills needed for typical business communication such as presentations, negotiations, meetings, small talk, socializing, correspondence, report writing, and a systematic approach. In both of these cases it can be taught to native speakers of English, for example, high school students preparing to enter the job market. One can also study it at a college or university. Institutes around the world have courses or modules in BE available, which can lead to a degree in the subject.

The major contribution to the field of the assessment of Business English in the

last few years is O ’ Sullivan (2006) Issues in Business English: The Revision of the Cambridge Business English Certifi cates . Its subtitle notwithstanding, a major portion of the book is devoted to a cogent discussion of the theory of specifi c purpose language assessment with examples drawn from major Business English tests.

O ’ Sullivan argues that the construct of Business English is clearly defi nable but that work still needs to be done in the area of linking test tasks to language knowledge. The venerable Test of English as an International Language (TOEIC; http://www.ets.org/toeic ), a business - oriented test of reading and listening since 1979, introduced speaking and writing components in 2006 in response to criticisms that learners who scored quite high on the reading and listening components, were “ seriously deficient with regard to overall communicative ability ” (Powers 2010 :

2). The new test components have been subjected to validation studies and have been found to relate consistently to test takers ’ self - assessment of spoken and written abilities (Powers et al. 2009 ). In ’ nami and Koizumi (2012) carried out an analysis of the factor structure of the revised TOEIC and found support both for the separate reporting of reading and listening scores as well as for reporting a single composite score. Finally, in another area of Business English assessment, Qian (2005) conducted a study of the measurement of lexical richness in Business English writing.

Language use in campuses

Read: page 57 of LANGUAGE LEARNING AND USE IN ENGLISH-MEDIUM HIGHER EDUCATION by Lia Blaj-Ward

The variety of English use in universities is referred to as campus English.

University campuses are a rich linguistic base with multiple individuals, including students and lecturers from different ethnic and cultural nations with different languages, but with one common code that binds them together for learning, teaching, and interacting with friends and so forth. The English use in campuses varies across the areas of respective disciplines. This is largely due to the different academic professions and departments both students and lecturers are into. And it is believed that their areas of study influence their choice of linguistic items. This is because when a science student speaks, his/her grammar will be more of scientific terms unlike a marketing student. But when these persons meet together like friends they communicate and understand each other in a plain language.

However, communicating in English at university campuses relies on a wide range of vocabulary which every student must know in order to communicate effectively within the campus environment. Blaj-Ward (2017:p.37) states that it is widely acknowledged, in applied linguistic literature, that one cannot communicate successfully unless one is sufficiently familiar with relevant vocabulary, and this is certainly the case in academic contexts, where English is used for lectures, writing of assignments, and thesis. That is why in some foreign universities in the United States of America and United Kingdom, a preparatory English course is made available for international students to groom them in speaking, reading, writing and listening for them to function well in carrying out their studies in their respective disciplines.

In campuses, choice of languages other than English is usually context-dependent, (Pérez-Llantada, 2018:p.35), and it may serve as identity indicator. For example, students or staff tend to use their local vernacular when they gather with relatives or friends who can speak and understand their language. This form of language use is perhaps motivated by ethnicity to show solidarity and intimacy. In this situation, English becomes an auxiliary language which helps to facilitate communication. And as a matter of fact, the use of pidgin, code mixing and switching become noticeable in the interactions among the students. In the same view, Preisler (2009 in Haberland, Lønsmann and Preisler 2013:p.xvii) presents the relationship between the local language and English on campuses with his concept of ‘complementary languages’. Preisler focuses on the user dimension, i.e. the question of who communicates with whom. Following from this, he presents Danish and English in Denmark as complementary languages, which means that English is used when not all interlocutors know Danish, and Danish is used in contexts where all interlocutors are proficient in that language. We see that University campuses provide a wealth of opportunities for multilingualism and multicultural experiences and interactions. Yet in spite of this wide potential, a typical function of this social contact does not go beyond the minimum of human interactions between students and even staff from different cultures and linguistic backgrounds.

In Nigerian campuses, English language, is perceived as a predominant language and is associated with both teaching activities and administrative paperwork, (Pérez-Llantada, 2018:p.35). Teaching-oriented genres such as lectures, seminars, classroom presentations, course essays, summaries and dissertations are done in English-medium”. Course-related activities, reading requirements and assessment, as well as office hour consultations and supervision were also in English. Occasionally, French, Igbo and other native vernaculars are used in certain teaching-related activities in the department of French or languages.

The English language that students bring with them on an EMI campus may or may not include authentic, meaningful and purposeful spoken interaction.

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