Curriculum Development for Legal English Programs
Curriculum Development for Legal English Programs

By

Halina Sierocka
CONTENTS

List of Tables ............................................................................................ vii
Preface ....................................................................................................... ix
List of Abbreviations ................................................................................. xi

Part I

Chapter One ................................................................................................ 3
Basic Concepts in English for Specific Purposes (ESP)
  1. Defining ESP
  2. Methodology of ESP
  3. Language issues in ESP

Chapter Two ............................................................................................. 27
Syllabus Design for ESP
  1. Key issues in syllabus design
  2. Syllabus design for ESP

Chapter Three ........................................................................................... 53
Selection and Evaluation of Materials for ESP
  1. The development of ESP materials
  2. Selecting, implementing and evaluating materials for ESP classes

Chapter Four ............................................................................................. 69
Assessing and Testing Languages for Special Purposes
  1. Key issues in assessing and testing
  2. Testing language for specific purposes (LSP)
  3. Public examinations in Legal English
Part II

Chapter Five ........................................................................................................... 87
A Model Syllabus for a Course of English for Legal Purposes
1. The course description
2. The course objectives
3. The course content
4. The course implementation
5. The assessment

Appendix .................................................................................................................. 117

Bibliography .......................................................................................................... 125

Index......................................................................................................................... 139
LIST OF TABLES

Table 1-1. The concept of absolute and variable characteristics of ESP by Dudley-Evans & St. John (1998)
Table 2-1. Language Syllabus Design: Two Types (White 1988:44-45)
Table 2-2. Advantages and disadvantages of Type A and Type B syllabuses
Table 2-3. Key issues in procedural, process and task-based syllabuses by Long & Crookes (1992)
Table 2-4. Possible shortcomings of procedural, process and task-based syllabuses by Long & Crookes (1992)
Table 2-5. The criteria of content selection by Komorowska (2006)
Table 4-1. Variable effects of background knowledge on reading test performance (as cited in Douglas 2000:32)
Table 5-1. A sample section on Employment Law
The „Curriculum Development for Legal English Program” endeavours to combine both the theory and practice of English for Specific Purposes in the Legal English context. This book is aimed at helping teachers of Legal English to design their own courses or modify existing ones exploiting their own experiences or the outcomes of research conducted by others. The book is in two parts. Part I which comprises four chapters relates to the theory of ESP curriculum development in the Legal English context. Chapter One discusses basic concepts in ESP i.e. some attempts are made to define the notion of ESP. In addition, the conditions and process of learning and teaching ESP and the role of the ESP teacher are examined. Special importance is put on the subject-knowledge dilemma and co-operative teaching. Finally, language issues i.e. the proportion of grammar and vocabulary and their roles in ESP teaching/learning along with the specificity of legal discourse are discussed. Chapter Two is devoted to syllabus design for ESP – choosing the most appropriate syllabus type, conducting needs analysis among the target group, selecting and grading syllabus content and finally evaluating the implemented syllabus. Chapter Three describes the types of materials that may be selected for ESP courses. Special emphasis is put on the role of authentic and teacher-generated materials. This chapter also includes models for materials evaluation. Chapter Four presents key issues in assessing and testing languages for specific purposes and describes two leading public examinations in Legal English i.e. the Test of Legal English Skills (TOLES) and the ILEC (the International Legal English Certificate). Part II includes a model syllabus for a course of English for Legal English which is the outcome of a three-year research programme carried out among legal professionals (i.e. law students, academics and lawyers – practitioners) in Poland. Chapter V presents the course description, objectives and content with examples of techniques and teaching resources that can be exploited in any Legal English class.
I would like to thank Professor Hanna Komorowska for her care and guidance in the preparation of this book. Her advice and suggestions have enormously contributed to the outcome of the work. I also wish to thank Dr Barbara Polityńska and Dr Dorota Potocka for their feedback and help in the preparation of this book for publication.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Full Form</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CEFR</td>
<td>Common European Framework of Reference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CIPP</td>
<td>Context – Input – Process - Product</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EAP</td>
<td>English for Academic Purposes</td>
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<tr>
<td>EGAP</td>
<td>English for Academic General Purposes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EGBP</td>
<td>English for Business General Purposes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EOP</td>
<td>English for Occupational Purposes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ESP</td>
<td>English for Special Purposes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ILEC</td>
<td>International Legal English Certificate</td>
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<tr>
<td>LSP</td>
<td>language(s) for specific purposes</td>
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<tr>
<td>PSA</td>
<td>Present Situation Analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSI</td>
<td>subject-specialist informant</td>
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<td>SWOT</td>
<td>strengths – weaknesses – opportunities - threats</td>
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<td>TBLT</td>
<td>task-based language teaching</td>
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<td>TL</td>
<td>target language</td>
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<td>TLU</td>
<td>target language use</td>
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<tr>
<td>TSA</td>
<td>Target Situation Analysis</td>
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<td>TOLES</td>
<td>Test of Legal English Skills</td>
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PART I
1. Defining ESP

The definition of ESP is a highly debated issue. Whilst numerous scholars have endeavoured to define the concept of ESP, others have cast doubt on whether it is at all possible to do so, and still others have reserved their judgment, only to wonder at how special the field really is.

The debate was precipitated by a simple clarification of the term “special” and whether it applied to the language or to the specialized aims of ESP. It was first made by Perren in 1974 and completed by Mackay and Mountford in 1978 (after Gatehouse 2001). They suggested that the word “special” in ESP should be understood as “special” purpose for which learners learn and not the “special” language that they learn.

One of the first definitions of ESP was provided by Hutchinson & Waters (1987) who claimed that ESP should be perceived as an approach rather than as a product. They explained that students’ needs are the foundation of ESP, in particular referring to the language required and the learning context. Their needs are understood as the reasons for which students are learning English and as they vary, their learning purposes will be different too.

Strevens (1988), on the other hand, in his definition of ESP makes a distinction between four absolute characteristics and two variable characteristics. The absolute characteristics were described as:

- designed to meet specified needs of the learner,
- related in content to particular disciplines, occupations and activities,
- centered on language appropriate to those activities in syntax, lexis, discourse, semantics and analysis of the discourse,
- in contrast with General English.
Whereas the variable characteristics meant that ESP:

- may be restricted as to the learning skills to be learned,
- may not be taught according to any pre-ordained methodology.

Robinson (1991) alternatively uses two criteria and a number of characteristics to define ESP. The two criteria are the following:

- ESP is normally goal-directed,
- needs analysis contributes to the development of courses and should specify precisely what students will use English for.

The characteristics involve:

- the limited period of time in which the objectives should be achieved,
- homogenous classes of adults in terms of the work or specialist studies the students are involved in.

Jordan (1997:3-4), on the other hand, endeavours to define the concept of ESP by examining the relationships between study skills and ESP needs. According to Jordan, we learn English for three types of purposes:

1) **General Purposes** – even though they are called General Purposes, students study foreign languages for no particular purpose; although (in their opinion) they have no obvious reason, they study because they have to;

2) **Social Purposes** – students study English for conversational purposes and communicative situations like shopping, telephoning as well as “survival” English.

3) **Special Purposes** – they study English either because they need English at work or at university. This distinction results in two strands of ESP i.e. English for Occupational/Vocational Purposes (EOP) or English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and is further discussed by many researchers such as Jordan (1997:1), Dudley-Evans & St. John (1998:7), Flowerdew & Peacock (2001: 8) Hyland & Hamp-Lyons (2002: 2) who describe English for Academic Purposes as the language of research and instruction relating to the specific communicative needs and practices of particular groups in academic contexts whereas English for Occupational/Vocational Purposes (EOP) “refers to English that is not for academic purposes; it includes professional purposes in administration, medicine, law and business” Dudley-Evans & St. John (1998:7). Nevertheless, as Flowerdew & Peacock (2001: 8) observe, the distinction between EAP and EOP is not precise. A
lot of language learnt at university may be used by students in their prospective professional domains.

The most elaborate definition of ESP is produced by Dudley-Evans & St. John (1998), who modify Streven’s original definition of ESP and also refer to the concept of absolute and variable characteristics. These are presented in the chart below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Absolute characteristics of ESP</th>
<th>Variable characteristics of ESP</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• ESP is designed to meet the specific needs of the learner,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• ESP makes use of the underlying methodology and activities of the disciplines it serves,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• ESP is centred on the language, skills, discourse and genres appropriate to these activities.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• ESP may be related to, or designed for, specific disciplines,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• ESP may use, in specific teaching situations, a different methodology from that of general English,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• ESP is likely to be designed for adult learners, either at a tertiary level institution or a professional work situation,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• ESP is generally designed for intermediate or advanced students.</td>
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Table 1-1. The concept of absolute and variable characteristics of ESP by Dudley-Evans & St. John (1998)

For opponents of the idea of ESP (often described as a “wide angle approach”) – it (ESP) is nothing other than General English for Specific Purposes. They claim that “there are generic skills and forms of language that are the same across a range of disciplines, professions or purposes” (Hutchinson & Waters 1987:165–166, Spack 1988 after Hyland 2002) and there are not sufficient reasons for a subject-specific approach. This view
is supported by Widdowson (1998:3-4, 2003) who develops the discussion over the specificity of ESP. He understands it as the specific use of language put in a particular context or situation but not as a specific language or code in itself. He argues that in a pragmatic sense, all uses of English are somehow specific, as they serve particular purposes: people produce both written and oral utterances to achieve certain purposes, taking into consideration the recipient’s knowledge and they do that with little effort. Thus he claims that English for Specific Purposes is nothing other than communication in English in general, and states that it is difficult to establish a definition of ESP as such. Finally, Zhang (2007) quotes Nelson’s (2000) survey which revealed that the core of ESP is “to identify learner needs and to design ways of meeting these needs instead of conducting a systematic study of English in use in the specific field or activity”.

2. Methodology of ESP

The methodology of ESP has been subjected to numerous discussions and debates. The core issue in these considerations is whether or not there is a special methodology of ESP and whether such a methodology is needed.

Hyland (2002) in his article poses the question: “how far should we go now with specificity?” and presents the problem in great detail. He reports that according to some scholars there are insufficient reasons to justify the need for implementing a special methodology for ESP as:

- it is impossible to identify and teach specific varieties of language (Spack 1988 after Hyland), therefore teaching subject content in a foreign language should be left to the subject specialists themselves, as language teachers are not the experts in a particular professional domain and they should concentrate on the general principles of language teaching,
- the subject – matter domain requires a higher level of English proficiency so the learners first need to acquire general English at the appropriate level,
- times of “cut-backs” cannot justify the systematic analyses of tasks and texts.

As a consequence, Hyland (2002:392) remarks, that in practice ESP is often regarded as “as a ‘service activity’, shunted off into special units, and marginalised as a remedial exercise designed to fix-up students’
problems”. He also notes that such solutions are more convenient for university administrators, who find them cheaper and logistically easier to implement.

Other scholars argue, however, that the methodology of ELT differs only insignificantly from the methodology of ESP. Robinson (1991), for example, questions the specificity of ESP methodology stating that only two characteristic features of ESP can be identified:

- ESP activities derive from the students’ specialism (nevertheless, it is not a *sine qua non* condition),
- ESP activities can (but may not) have an authentic purpose derived from the students’ target needs.

Hence, it is difficult to present an explicit and clear statement as to whether or not ESP borrowed ideas from ELT or vice versa.

This view is supported by Watson Todd (2003: 147-156), who claims that the only distinguishing factor between ESP and ELT is team teaching (understood as cooperating with content teachers). The other approaches emphasized in EAP literature i.e. inductive learning, process syllabus, learner autonomy, use of authentic materials and tasks, integration of teaching and technology can also be found in general English language teaching.

Conversely, Dudley-Evans & St. John (1998) emphasize the point that specific ESP teaching has its own methodology, by which they mean that:

- all ESP teaching should reflect the methodology of the disciplines and professions it serves,
- the activities the students need to carry out, generate and depend on registers and genres associated with the language that students need to be able to manipulate in order to carry out the activity,
- the interaction between students and teacher may differ from that which occurs in the general English class.

It is also maintained that in ESP classes generally, the interaction may be similar to that in a General English class; however, in the more specific ESP classes, the teacher sometimes becomes more like a language adviser and consultant, having equal status with the learners, who are often experts in the subject matter.
Also, Hyland (2002) argues the case for specificity, underlining the benefits of specialized methodology for ESP and providing a number of counterarguments for the opponents of this approach:

- the necessity of learning generic language forms and functions by weaker students before they concentrate on ESP is not supported by any research in applied linguistics,
- subject-specialists are not necessarily better teachers of specialized discourse; they do not generally teach literacy skills and find discourse conventions self-evident and universal, therefore in their mind, there is no need to explain or teach them,
- it was the economic aspect that stimulated the development of ESP and it is still a crucial issue in many companies and corporations which actively seek, employ and highly value specialist practitioners in order to increase the cost-effectiveness of the company,
- students do not learn in a “vacuum: their disciplinary activities are a central part of their engagement with others in their disciplines and they communicate effectively only by using its particular conventions appropriately.”

(Hyland 2002:393)

Finally, Hyland (2002) emphasizes, that thanks to the special methodology, concepts such as genre, authenticity or communicative purpose appear and develop. It may be considered expensive, time-consuming and skill-intensive, but students have an opportunity to develop the skills which allow them to participate in particular academic and professional contexts actively, and which at the same time, makes the teaching more effective.

Many researchers such as Gaffield-Vile (1996), Celani (2003), Dovey (2006), Kim (2006) and Zhang (2007) support Hyland’s idea and remark that in order to achieve professional success, students have to have a higher proficiency of academic and vocational English and the discourse of specific disciplines.

2.1 The conditions and process of learning and teaching ESP

Basturkmen (2006:85-86) discusses two conditions needed for language learning and how the ideas are reflected in ESP teaching. These are: **acculturation** and **input and interaction**.
Acculturation is based on the idea that ESP learners need to be close to their target discourse community, “to be socially and psychologically integrated into their target discourse community”, which is an indispensable factor for learning the specific-purpose language. As Baskurkmen (2006:88-89) remarks, there are numerous ESP teaching approaches to familiarize learners with the language practices of target discourse communities. She however doubts whether it is enough for students to learn ESP. The issue of acculturation is especially discussed in relation to the genre-based approach. It follows Swales’ definition of genres which are to signal the discourse community’s norms, ways of thinking and constructing knowledge.

Wharton (as cited in Basturkmen 2006) distinguishes three models of acculturation in relation to genre-based approaches in ESP:

- **Induction** – learning about and practice of the genre takes place “in vitro” – the ESP course is held prior to students gaining experience in the target discourse community; the ESP teacher introduces the genre used in the target discourse community alongside their associated cultural aspects; the learners, on the other hand, may practise the genre in the language classroom. The induction model is common in the teaching of ESP; it is however, criticized by some writers. Wharton (1999) claims that students who have some experience of genres in their language, often experience difficulties with acquiring the genre in a second language, due to the fact that they have learnt the ways of thinking and values referring to the original system and the second system may be perceived as contradictory to the original one. It is especially observable in Legal English where there are two diverse systems of laws – continental (based on codes) and common law systems (based on precedents). The differences in the institutions and terms may result in confusion and misunderstanding. The induction model represents a weak form of the acculturation theory – “the learners are observers of the discourse practice and values of inside members” (Basturkmen, 2006:90). This model of teaching takes places mainly at the tertiary level where students are taught ESP in the framework of their curriculum.

- **Adjunct** – the students of ESP courses concurrently participate in the target discourse community and ESP courses. The ESP courses support learners while acquiring genre in target discourse
community situations often providing essential information about the genre they meet during these events.

- **Apprenticeship or mentoring** – ESP is taught to provide learners mainly with linguistic assistance as ESP learners acquire the genre first and foremost in the target discourse community. This model represents the strongest version of the acculturation theory – the student acquires the language and learns how to communicate by being a member of the discourse community whereas the ESP instructor acts as a language instructor. This model of acquiring ESP is common among adult professionals (people who are members of the profession) who are familiar with the genre and want to master their communication skills.

Another theory discussing the conditions needed for language learning in ESP teaching refers to the concept of **input and interaction**. It is based on Krashen’s Input Hypothesis (1982) enriched by Long’s Interaction Hypothesis (1996) – the main objective is to create the conditions in which successful language learning is believed to occur. The following requisites are mentioned:

- learners acquire the language by understanding messages clear to them,
- learners only learn what they are prepared to learn,
- linguistic input is required,
- learners negotiate the meaning of the input to understand it better,
- negotiated input fits the needs of each learner and becomes intake.

Long (1996) underlines the importance of negative feedback in the process of ESP learning. The negative feedback (for example error correction) contributes to acquisition of ESP providing learners with the information they need to notice the gap between their own production and target language forms.

Five main objectives in teaching ESP provided by Basturkmen (2006:133-146) are:

- revealing subject specific language use,
- developing target performance competences,
- teaching underlying knowledge,
- developing strategic competence,
- fostering critical awareness.
Revealing subject specific language use is the teaching objective which has prevailed in ESP and is aimed both at showing how English is used in the target environment and sharing the knowledge acquired in linguistic research in that area. The objective confirms Bhatia’s idea (1982), in which he suggested that teachers should simplify sample texts so that structures used in the genre are clearer to the learners and in that way, the outcomes of linguistic research might be implemented into teaching English to law students.

This approach, however, is criticized by Wharton (1999) who argues that teaching and learning a genre is not just transmission of linguistic information. He argues that:

- learners perceive acquiring professional genre as difficult, since it requires not only "conceptual understanding of the surface discourse but also of a set of socially valued norms and thus new frameworks of reasoning";
- professional genres are frequently mastered late even in the learner’s first language;
- teachers tend to be unfamiliar with the nature of a genre thus the communication between a teacher and a learner is intricate.

Developing target performance competences is the teaching objective which emphasizes the role of needs analysis. Needs analysis divulges the demands and expectations of the target environment and teaching ESP is aimed at developing the learners’ abilities to perform the activities of the profession and to function to the standards expected in that profession. Munby (1978) with his Communicative Needs Processor, might be considered the forerunner of this approach in teaching ESP oriented towards the demands of the target environment. He claimed that courses could be arranged around communicative events in which ESP learners would be involved in their target environment and the needs analysis would help to identify the communicative events which occur in the target environment.

Basturkmen (2006) claims that using a foreign language for special purposes also requires knowledge and understanding of concepts relating to the professional domain, as well as linguistic proficiency and knowledge; therefore teaching underlying knowledge should be a component of ESP courses. The view is supported by Douglas (2000) who claims that specific-purpose language ability results from an interaction between specific background knowledge and language ability. The
approach is not new, however. Hutchinson and Waters (1985) introduced the term “underlying competencies” by which they meant teaching general conceptual subject content alongside the language.

Douglas (2000) emphasizes that not only language knowledge (grammatical, functional, textual etc.) and background knowledge of the professional domain but also strategic competence constitute specific-purpose language ability, thus **developing strategic competence** is crucial. “As a link between context and language knowledge, strategic competence is assumed to operate in all communicative situations” Douglas (2000: 38).

As Basturkmen (2006) points out, teaching ESP to students who are legal professionals (who have either professional experience or have experience in the study of their disciplines) could be targeted in order to develop students’ strategic competence. She argues that:

“the intent is to bring to the surface the knowledge of the subject area that the students already have and to create opportunities for the students to actualize this knowledge in the target language” Basturkmen (2006:139).

A critical approach to ESP teaching is also present in the literature:

- Widdowson (1983) claims that ESP teaching is more a form of training behaviours rather than language education. In his opinion, unlike general English, ESP does not distinguish aims (understood as the eventual target behaviours of the students) and objectives (perceived as the pedagogical means which enable the students to achieve the behaviours). Thus, ESP courses specify where the learners should end up, rather than working out the pedagogical means to achieve those ends. Moreover, ESP courses tend to endow learners with a restricted set of language competencies (just to function in the target environment) whereas general English provides learners with the strategies which enable them to solve difficulties independently, even in unpredicted communication situations in the future.
- Benesch (1996) criticizes the conventional needs analysis as being biased and designed for in-group wishes.
- Benesch (1996), Pennycook (1997), Benesch (2001), Hyland & Hamp-Lyons (2002) challenge the role of ESP as a medium that helps students develop skills and knowledge indispensable for functioning in their target environment. They argue that the learners accept the communicative norms existing in the target
environment uncritically, which may result in affecting students’ needs to suit established norms in the particular professional environment and consequently maintaining practices and norms, not all of which may be enviable. Fostering critical awareness may better suit their needs and eventually facilitate access to their selected target environment.

2.2 The ESP practitioner

2.2.1 The roles of the ESP teacher

Being an ESP teacher is not an easy task. Many researchers such as Hutchinson & Waters (1987), Robinson (1991) and Jackson (1998) claim that to achieve success in ESP teaching a teacher must be creative, resourceful, and flexible. S/he should have good cross-communication, interpersonal and decision – making skills. Moreover, s/he should be a good time manager and leader. All of these can, however, be attributed to any good English teacher, not exclusively to ESP teachers.

It might be reasonable to claim that the borderline between the roles of ESP teacher and General English teacher are starting to dissipate. For example, Celani (2008) advocates a new approach in General English teaching which refers to Canagarajah’s (2005) concept of *glocal knowledge* of the teacher (defined as global knowledge within a local context). Teachers (not only ESP teachers) are required to be:

... researchers of their own practice, materials producers, evaluators, experimenters of new approaches, explorers of reality, syllabus builders, teachers of not only language but also of strategies, builders of social contexts inside and outside the classroom, open to change, adaptable, ready to continuously review their own practice.”

Celani (2008:419)

The above definition of the General English teacher does not appear to be very distant from the term “ESP practitioner” provided by Dudley-Evans & St. John much earlier. Dudley-Evans & St. John (1998:13-14) employ the term “ESP practitioner” instead of “ESP teacher” as they argue that the ESP teacher’s work involves much more than teaching. The following key roles of the ESP practitioner are enumerated:

- teacher,
- course designer and materials provider,
- researcher,
The ESP practitioner as teacher

The methodology changes as the teaching becomes more specific. In the case of ESP classes, the teacher is no longer a “primary knower”. In the case of very specific courses, the students themselves are frequently the primary knowers of the carrier content of the material. The teacher’s main role is to generate real, authentic communication in the classroom on the basis of the students’ knowledge.

The ESP practitioner as course designer and materials provider

Due to the lack of materials for ESP courses – the more specialized the course, the greater the rarity of teaching materials – one of the ESP teacher’s roles is planning the course and providing materials for it. Provision does not only mean choosing materials and making a suitable number of copies for the class. The teacher’s task also includes adapting material when published materials are unsuitable, or writing his/her own materials.

The ESP practitioner as researcher

An ESP teacher should also be a researcher to fulfill the students’ needs. First of all, s/he should research the aims which they want to achieve. Then research is necessary to design a course, to prepare the teaching materials, and to determine the ESP students’ particular interests.

The ESP practitioner as collaborator

By this term Dudley-Evans & St. John mean cooperating with subject specialists. From their perspective, this might be a simple form of cooperation in which the ESP teacher gains information about the subject syllabus, or tasks the students are required to carry out in their professional environment, or a stronger form of collaboration in which there is an integration between specialist studies or activities and the language.

The ESP practitioner as evaluator

Evaluation is not a new function and it is performed in General English classes too. Nevertheless, in the case of ESP, its role appears to be quite crucial. Apart from testing students, which is the most common type of evaluation, evaluation of the course and teaching materials is indispensable. General English courses have been well-studied and improved by a group of methodology specialists, whereas ESP courses are
often tailor-made and unique, so that it is not feasible to prepare and design the course in order to satisfy all the ESP students’ needs, as they are likely to change with each ESP course.

2.2.2 Subject knowledge dilemma

One of the most discussed issues related to ESP teacher’s roles is the question of ESP teachers’ subject knowledge (Sifakis 2003, Belcher 2006, Wu & Badger 2009) - how to deal with content with which ESP teachers are not completely familiar. In the earlier literature (McDonough 1984, Hutchinson & Waters 1987) there was a belief that ESP teachers do not have to acquire specialist subject knowledge - a knowledge of the fundamental principles of the subject area was considered sufficient. Nevertheless, it was considered advisable to take advantage of the learners’ specialist knowledge and to ask for clarification of terminology and key concepts that the teacher did not know or /and understand.

There is still little research exploring how far ESP teachers’ subject knowledge should extend. Wu & Badger (2009) cite Grossman (1990) and Ferguson (1997: 85) while describing the framework of ESP teachers’ subject knowledge. Grossman (1990) defines it as contextual knowledge by which s/he means, what teachers know about their own role in the classroom and about their learners. Ferguson (1997:85), on the other hand, identifies three areas of such knowledge. These are:

- knowledge of the discipline’s culture and values (excluding the actual content of the subject),
- knowledge of the epistemological basis of different disciplines (a type of knowledge which is philosophical in character),
- knowledge of genre and discourse, which is mainly linguistic in nature.

Others scholars like Kim (2006), Harding (2007), and Ses˘ek (2007) are rather more vague and note that the ESP teachers’ role is “understanding the nature of the material of the ESP specialism”, being able to function in a variety of teaching contexts, to change university classroom formats and teaching methods. Concurrently, they advocate that teacher training programmes should be available enabling candidates to specialise in teaching ESP and for appropriate institutional support to be available.
Another disputed issue is the distinction between ESP teachers’ knowledge of the subject and that of the subject specialist. Some researchers such as Jordan (1997:251) and Wu & Badger (2009) remark that it is a convoluted task to attempt to make a distinction between pedagogic content and subject matter knowledge. This view is confirmed by Howe (1993:148) who reports a conflict between herself as a teacher of English for academic legal purposes and a law teacher, over who should explain the phrase “time immemorial” to students, with the law teacher’s famous comment: “You teach them the English, Mrs Howe, and we’ll teach them the law”. This depicts the common attitude of subject specialists towards ESP teaching, who believe that learners should be taught the skills of English for General Academic Purposes (EGAP) and not the content of English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP).

Barron (2002:298) completes the picture of unsuccessful (as he calls it) collaborative ventures between language and subject specialists, by presenting the three areas where failures may appear:

- the issues of different teaching methods and managing the process of collaboration,
- the issues of “carrier content” (the subject matter of an exercise) and “real content” (the language or skill content of an exercise) - defined by Dudley-Evans & St. John 1998:11 and subordination of EAP teachers to subject content,
- the issues of the status of disciplinary entities and boundaries.

### 2.2.3 Co-operative teaching

Many researchers such as Barron (1992), Jordan (1997), Dudley-Evans (2001), Barron (2002), Kim (2006), Northcott & Brown (2006) and Bacha & Bahous (2008) share the concern about the distorted co-operation, which often puts language specialists in a subordinate position, and advocate for establishing a framework of co-operation between language and subject specialists, which would enhance their relationships and contribute to better language acquisition and raising literacy for a purpose on the part of the students.

A detailed overview of such co-operative teaching is provided by Barron (1992) who distinguishes four methods of working with colleagues in other departments:

- the subject – specialist informant (SSI) method,
- the consultative method,
• collaborative teaching,
• team – teaching.

As Barron (1992) notes the SSI method may be employed at all stages in ESP. It is used to determine the use of specific language points in one genre of a particular subject. The role of subject-specialists informants is to

“provide the naïve ESP teacher with insights on the content and organization of texts and processes of their subjects (...) like unfamiliar artefacts in a subject that is completely alien to them.”

Barron (1992:2-3).

The consultative method is used when the content of the subject is determined by the ESP course designers and the subject specialist serves as a consultant at specific stages in a project to maintain content correctness.

In collaborative teaching the ESP teacher and the subject specialist cooperate on all aspects of the course such as course planning, teaching and assessment but do not share the classroom. The ESP teacher teaches the language and communication skills and the subject teacher teaches the concepts and other skills needed. The method aims at integrating content (determined by the subject department, not a foreign or ESP unit) and providing regular supervision of the situation at all stages by both language and subject specialists.

The true team teaching (as Barron calls it – intervention) occurs when the two teachers (language and subject specialists) are not only present in the classroom at all or most times but the whole course including syllabus design, materials, methodology and assessment is determined by both of them. The method is implemented where the mixture of skills and content would be too complicated and specialized for one person alone.

Barron (1992: 8-9) and Buckley (1998) present a discussion over the benefits and shortcomings of various co-operative teaching methods. As far as the benefits are concerned they stress that:

• the teachers can find out what they do not know from the experts,
• interdisciplinary relations between ESP or any foreign language departments and subject units may be promoted
which again may have tangible results such as joint projects and publications,

- subject teacher’s language or even content subject syllabus may be modified to make it more understandable to students during lectures and seminars,
- students’ awareness that there is a direct relationship between their subject, course, specialization and English may be fostered which again leads to more elaborate language skills and achieving more advanced levels of proficiency in language.

Some threats associated with team teaching are also mentioned. These are:

- the danger that ESP teachers may believe in all they hear from the subject specialists, who may also be wrong,
- timetabling problems may occur when two or more staff members need to be in the same classroom,
- subject specialists and ESP teachers may represent two very different pedagogic methods which may result in conflicts and misunderstanding,
- it is often difficult to persuade the authorities to introduce team teaching due to extensive costs.

Despite the fact that co-operative teaching methods are flexible and can be used with ESP students of different levels, countries, interests and subjects, such teaching is not prominent in ESP. This is due to the lack of tradition and guidelines, along with the reluctance of not only language teachers and subject specialists, but also user-institutions that find them too expensive and not cost-effective.

3. Language issues in ESP

3.1 The role of grammar and vocabulary in ESP

The issue of grammar in ESP is quite neglected in the literature as it is frequently believed that teaching ESP is not concerned with grammar.

Dudley-Evans & St. John (1998:74-80) have provoked a discussion over the importance of grammar in ESP teaching stating that grammatical difficulties and deficiencies may hinder the acquisition of productive and receptive skills in ESP. They enumerate five key grammatical forms that may pose impediments. These are: