

Oleg Tarnopolsky

Constructivist Blended Learning Approach **to Teaching English for Specific Purposes**



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Introduction

1. General focus, goal, and scope of the monograph

Today's foreign/second language teaching methods are based on the belief that students should be as autonomous (or even independent) as possible in the process of acquiring the target language and the communication skills in that language (Benson, & Voller, 1997; Dam, 2002; Morrison, 2012). The role of teachers in that case is radically changed: from providers of knowledge and skills they turn into what Rogers (1983), as far back as the 80s in the last century, called *facilitators*, i.e., people who help students to organize their learning in the best, most productive and efficient, as well as the most effort-saving manner.

The tendency of introducing autonomous language acquisition into the second/foreign language classroom has been especially pronounced in teaching and learning English as a second/foreign language (ESL/EFL). The reasons for this are twofold. First, as Graddol (2006: 72) points out, English in secondary and tertiary education in very many countries of the world has changed its position from being one of the academic subjects into the position of *a basic skill* to be acquired – something without which an educated person simply cannot exist (like literacy). According to Graddol (2006: 72), due to this fact and also to the fact that in almost every class of almost every school where English is being taught and learned there is usually a great diversity of learners in what concerns their proficiencies, backgrounds, anticipations and ambitions, a much more personalized approach to teaching English is required. Consequently, greater and increasing learner autonomy is required. The second reason is the number of people learning English all over the world. Nobody has as yet tried to calculate the exact numbers of learners of English as a foreign language in all the non-English speaking countries of the globe, but hardly anyone will doubt that such learners number dozens, or maybe even hundreds, of millions. Moreover, these numbers are increasing from year to year, especially since the compulsory shift

in the start time for learning English from the secondary to the primary schools in very many countries of the world and practically in all countries of Europe (Graddol, 2006: 88). With such numbers of learners, reliance on only EFL teachers becomes impossible. Without learner autonomy, there simply will not be enough teachers to provide sufficient personalized support and attention to all students – taking into account the above-mentioned diversity of student population even within one and the same school.

Learner autonomy in second/foreign language education primarily means that students themselves *construct* their own target language/communication knowledge and skills in a teaching/learning environment conducive to such constructing. The teaching/learning environment can be termed as conducive if, on the one hand, it gives students sufficient opportunities for being self-constructive in what concerns the knowledge and skills that they are acquiring in the process of their learning. But, on the other hand, to be genuinely conducive, that environment is supposed to take strict account of students' readiness, preparedness, and abilities for being autonomous at a given stage of their mental and educational development.

If self-constructing their own knowledge and skills underlies the autonomy of learners in their study process (and nothing else can underlie it because to be autonomous in one's own learning means autonomously acquiring one's knowledge and skills and such acquisition means *creating* them for oneself, i.e., *constructing*), then the fundamental issue for research in second/foreign language pedagogy is how to organize the learning process in secondary and tertiary schools on a constructive basis. This means developing the *constructivist approach* to organizing teaching/learning both in the classroom and outside it.

However, it should be noted that in today's secondary and/or tertiary schools autonomous students' studies (and especially language studies) without the broadest possible use of Internet resources are, though possible, certainly quite out-dated and difficult – to say the least. The problems with self-constructing knowledge and skills without permanent access to all the wealth of data on the World Wide Web will inevitably arise due to the difficulties of finding sufficient information. Actually, nowadays the Internet has become inextricably *blended* with the learning (and teaching) process so that, for instance, in ESL/EFL *blended learning* (see some details about it further in this *Introduction*) has become something of a buzz word. The constructivist approach is much optimized if combined with blended learning because, thanks to that, students have the process of constructing their own knowledge and skills much facilitated for them, whatever subject is being studied. Therefore, when developing learner autonomy in ESL/EFL teaching/learning on the basis of the constructivist approach, we should better speak about the *constructivist blended learning approach* because blended learning is one of the principal *supplementary* means

of ensuring efficient constructivism in target language acquisition and thereby of improving the teaching/learning process.

Developing the constructivist blended learning approach for second/foreign language teaching/learning will inevitably follow somewhat different ways in EFL and ESL. Such development will also depend on whether the approach is being designed for secondary or tertiary schools, or for some other educational institutions, or for some other teaching/learning situations. Finally, that development will depend on what kind of English is being taught – General English, Business English, English for Academic Purposes, English for Occupational Purposes, English for Specific Purposes/Professional Communication (further on in the text the terms English for Specific Purposes, or *ESP*, and English for Professional Communication will be considered as totally synonymous). This monograph focuses on *constructivist blended ESP learning at tertiary schools*, i.e., at universities and similar institutions of higher learning. The category of students on which the book is focused is tertiary school/university EFL students who learn English for professional purposes without specialization in the English language itself. It means that those students may major in Science and Technology, Economics, Psychology, Medicine, and whatever other field (c.f. Robinson, 1991) but not in Linguistics, English language teaching, translation and interpretation from and into English, and similar majors. In this way, it may be said that the students discussed in the book are tertiary ESP students of different majors except those directly connected with language studies. Students majoring in Psychology, as well as in Economics and Business studies mostly exemplify the category of students analyzed in the monograph.

The focuses mentioned above are caused not only by the obvious fact that they have been in the focus of the author's professional/pedagogical attention as a practical teacher and in the focus of his research interests as a scholar all through his academic career. What is much more important is the fact that, according to the data in the already mentioned book by Graddol (2006), it is ESP that stands at the forefront of EFL teaching and learning across the world. This is because when adult people are learning English outside English-speaking countries, i.e., as a foreign and not as a second language (and this embraces the absolute majority of learners of English in the world), in very many, if not in most, cases they are learning it for professional purposes – for using it in their international professional communication and for enhancing their personal professional career opportunities. The most important category of such ESP learners are probably tertiary students majoring in non-linguistic specialties (such as mentioned in the paragraph above) because, first, among all ESP learners they make the greatest majority – at least, across Europe. The second reason why they are especially worth focusing upon is that it is on them that the future of economic, professional, political, social, intellectual, and educational collaboration and integration in our

'global village' mostly depends. So, they especially need to be taught the global language of international professional communication (English) in the most efficient manner. Developing such an efficient manner by way of developing the constructivist blended learning approach to ESP teaching/learning is *the general goal* of this monograph.

As to exemplifying tertiary ESP students discussed in the monograph only by students majoring in Economics/Business and Psychology, the reason for that is totally practical. The author of the monograph started practically developing the constructivist approach to ESP teaching/learning at higher schools in the area of ESP teaching to future economists and businesspeople. The result of that early development was an ESP coursebook for students majoring in Economics and Business (Tarnopolsky, Kozhushko, et al., 2002) where in the group of authors the author of this monograph was the leading one. The further development of the approach and its transformation into its final form of constructivist blended learning approach found its outcome in the ESP coursebook for students majoring in Psychology (Tarnopolsky, Kozhushko, et al., 2011a) where again the author of this monograph was the leading author in the group that was preparing the coursebook. Naturally, both these coursebooks and methods of teaching underlying them are used for giving practical examples all through the monograph. More of such examples originate from the second coursebook, the one for future psychologists (Tarnopolsky, Kozhushko, et al., 2011a), because it is there, as has already been mentioned, that the advocated approach has found its final embodiment.

What is meant by the final embodiment here is the fact that it is in the second coursebook for future psychologists that the complete version of the approach, where constructivism had been combined with blended learning, was brought to life. In the first coursebook for future economists and businesspeople it was only constructivism without the blended learning constituent.

Limiting practical examples in the monograph to ESP teaching to future businesspeople, economists, and psychologists does not mean that the approach suggested in it is limited to teaching such ESP students only. *The scope* of the monograph embraces all tertiary ESP students mentioned above. But if for tertiary ESP students majoring in Economics and Business studies as well as in Psychology the approach has been developed to the bottom level of practical implementation (the level of teaching materials), for other categories of tertiary ESP students that bottom level of practical development has not been reached yet. However, everything said in the monograph relates to *all tertiary ESP students* – regardless of the major of each particular category of them.

It should be strongly emphasized that it is neither in the scope nor the goal of this monograph to propose any new theory of learning for ESP. What it does propose is the *theoretical and practical ideas for ESP teaching* at tertiary schools. That is why the book focuses on ways of developing methods for teaching and

learning, selecting and developing materials for ESP teaching and learning, designing ESP courses at tertiary schools, and developing learning activities to be introduced into the ESP teaching/learning process. So the methods and activities for teaching/learning, course designs, teaching materials based on the suggested approach that have been already selected/developed by the author and tested in teaching practice will be extensively dwelt upon and discussed as to the ways in which the theoretical foundations of the suggested approach are reflected in them.

Having thus analyzed the focus, goal, and scope of this monograph, it is now necessary to define the basic term used in it, i.e., what exactly is meant by *the constructivist blended learning approach to ESP teaching/learning at tertiary schools*.

2. The constructivist blended learning approach to ESP teaching/learning at tertiary schools and its definition

2.1. The constructivist approach

The literature on the topic of constructivist ESP teaching/learning at tertiary schools is quite limited. So, in the following chapters not too many sources are going to be quoted on the main subject under consideration.

Contrary to that, the literature on the constructivist approach *in general* is quite numerous, and the origins of it are far from recent. In fact four names can be cited as the creators of the approach: Jean Piaget, who is its founder, Lev Vygotskii, Jerome Bruner, and John Dewey.

The theory of child development by Jean Piaget (1950) is based on the assumption that through processes of *accommodation* and *assimilation* children construct new knowledge from their experience mostly acquired when playing. Every separate piece of new experience is incorporated into the existing framework which is in constant process of construction and reconstruction in accordance with the experience being gained.

Following the same line of thinking, Lev Vygotskii (1978) defined successful human learning and development as the outcome of a social process of constructing knowledge and skills from experiential activities. A child cannot do such activities totally independently but they become accessible when done more or less autonomously in collaboration with an adult who provides general guidance and prompts (the zone of proximal development – c.f. also Williams, & Burden, 2007: 40).

Finally Jerome Bruner (1966) proposed three modes of representation in human learning and development: enactive representation (action-based), iconic representation (image-based), and symbolic representation (language-based). According to Bruner, even for adult learners it is best, when faced with new material, to proceed from enactive to iconic to symbolic representation. That again means the domination of practical experience through which knowledge and skills are constructed and which lies at the foundation of all human developmental and cognitive processes.

Thus, it may be said that, according to the constructivist theory, humans gain their knowledge and skills from an interaction between their experiences (mostly social, i.e., generated in contacts and collaboration with other people) and their ideas. The ideas themselves are generated from experience (first of all, social experience) and are used to create frames into which new pieces of experience are introduced, generating new ideas that, in their turn, often modify or even totally change the existing frames and so *ad infinitum*. Therefore, the basis of constructivist learning theory is the belief that human learning occurs only through experience – mostly practical experience. It is following this assumption that John Dewey (1938) developed the first pedagogical constructivist approach to teaching and learning that he called *learning by doing*. It is based on learning not through theory but through the experience of real-life or modeled practical activities in the course of which knowledge is used as the means or tools for those activities. As a result of using knowledge in practical activities, it is not simply learned but *internalized*, or *appropriated*, by learners, i.e., acquired much better and more efficiently (and with less effort) than in the traditional learning process. Actually, it is learning by doing, or learning through practical experience (*experiential learning* – c.f. Chapter 1) developed by Dewey that underlies all kinds of constructivist learning, including the type of ESP learning discussed in this monograph.

In fact, all approaches to teaching/learning based on constructivism, even the most recent ones, such as constructionism developed by Papert and Harel (c.f. Papert, & Harel, 1991), derive from the set of ideas discussed above, primarily from the ideas of Jean Piaget and John Dewey.

In general, according to everything said above, *the constructivist approach to teaching/learning any subject (including foreign languages and ESP among them) may be defined as the approach providing students with opportunities of “constructing” their own knowledge and skills through practical experience in real-life or modeled activities. In this case, students acquire their knowledge and skills as a by-product of their real-life or modeled activities, thus internalizing (appropriating) the knowledge and skills and not just learning them.* This approach is also sometimes called *social constructivist approach* in psychological literature (Williams, & Burden, 2007).

The definition of constructivist ESP teaching/learning at tertiary schools has to be just one particular case of the general definition above, i.e., be within the boundaries of that definition. However, it should be reminded that the monograph is devoted not just to constructivist ESP teaching/learning but to constructivist *blended* ESP teaching/learning. That is why before proceeding to formulating the definition being sought, the definition of blended learning should be given.

2.2. Blended learning

According to *Encyclopedia of Educational Technology* (undated), the concept of blended learning grew out of the practical experience in e-learning. The experience demonstrated that only some but not all instruction is appropriate for online delivery. There are many contexts in which learning occurs best if the combination of traditional classroom and web-based training is provided. That is exactly what blended learning does, combining "... e-learning with a variety of other delivery methods for a superior learning experience" (Gray, 2006: 1).

How exactly learning time is shared between classroom training and online training in blended learning situations (what the optimal blend is) is an open question and it may have an infinite variety of answers depending on what is being learned, for what purposes, by what category of students, under what circumstances, in what conditions, etc. But in all cases, blended learning has the advantage of being much more flexible than traditional learning. The flexibility is due to the fact that in blended learning a substantial part of instruction is delivered through online resources saving classroom time and intensifying learning because learners can acquire more knowledge faster and easier than they would have done in traditional learning situations. That is the key to improving training, especially practical training (Brennan, 2004). As Gray (2006: 1) points out, "With blended learning, the tried-and-true traditional learning methods are combined with new technology to create a synergistic, dynamic learning structure that can propel learning to new heights."

Thus, blended learning can be defined as *a synergic learning structure, dynamically and organically combining into an indivisible unity traditional classroom learning with online learning for creating a more flexible learning environment with the purpose of intensifying and facilitating the practical training process.*

As mentioned above, blended learning is primarily designed for practical training which, by the way, makes it so popular in different kinds of corporate training programs (c.f. Brennan, 2004; Gray, 2006). But ESP teaching at tertiary schools is also based on practical training programs that develop students' practical target language professional communication skills. If such training programs are designed following the constructivist approach as it is

defined above, it will mean that students will acquire the target language and communication skills in it mostly through real-life or modeled professional activities and professional communication in that language. In such a situation, it is quite rational to combine the constructivist approach with blended learning because only the online resources which blended learning activates in the learning process may provide sufficient authentic materials for modeling professional activities and professional target language communication in the classroom. *This is the principal reason for developing the advocated constructivist blended learning approach to ESP teaching/learning at tertiary schools.*

Having determined that and on the basis of the two definitions (of the constructivist approach in general and of blended learning) given above, the definition of the constructivist blended learning approach to ESP teaching/learning at tertiary schools may be formulated.

2.3. The definition of the constructivist blended learning approach to ESP teaching/learning at tertiary schools

The definition being sought must, on the one hand, be within the scope of the given definitions of the constructivist approach and blended learning and, on the other hand, clearly reflect the specificity of ESP teaching/learning at tertiary schools. Both these requirements are met by the following definition:

The constructivist blended learning approach to ESP teaching/learning at tertiary schools gives students opportunities of "constructing" themselves their own knowledge and communication skills in English through experiential and interactive learning activities modeling the extra-linguistic professional reality for functioning in which the target language is being learned. Knowledge and skills "constructing" is done in such a way that from the very beginning those skills and knowledge serve professional communication in English and improve and expand the information basis of that communication. Besides, successful knowledge and skills "constructing" is achieved owing to students' regular Internet research on professional sites in English when that research becomes an organic and unalienable part of the learning process no less important than more traditional in-class and out-of-class activities (blended learning).

The definition above emphasizes the four basic features of the constructivist blended learning approach to ESP teaching/learning at tertiary schools:

1. The *experiential nature* of learning activities which, by modeling extra-linguistic professional reality, ensure that students *experience* their personal functioning in that modeled reality using the target language for such functioning (profession-oriented communication in the target

language). Thereby, professional communication skills are subconsciously "constructed" (further on this term will be used without inverted commas) by students in the process of quasi-professional experience and communication. This subconscious construction intensifies and facilitates acquisition thanks to the fact of its being subconscious and, therefore, practically effortless.

2. The interactive nature of experiential learning activities that students mostly do in active creative interaction not only with each other and the teacher but also with the real-life (professional) environment/real-life (professional) sources of information.
3. From the very beginning, constructing target language communication skills is inextricably connected with the students' future profession, i.e., with their tertiary school majors. It is achieved through integrating the learning content in the ESP course with the content of students' majoring disciplines which provides for improving and expanding the informational basis of professional communication in the target language.
4. Integrating the learning content in an ESP course with the content of students' majoring disciplines and, thereby, integrating the process of studying ESP with the process of studying majoring disciplines is achieved to a certain extent thanks to students' regular Internet research on professional sites in English. Such in- and out-of-class research becomes an integral and inalienable part of the process of learning (blended learning). It combines traditional classroom and online teaching/learning techniques into one single synergic structure that makes the teaching/learning (and acquisition) process more flexible and less effort-demanding for students. That allows for intensifying this process.

It is the above four features that make the theoretical basis of the approach and they are discussed in details in the first three chapters of the monograph.

3. Brief description of the monograph

Everything said above may be summarized by stating that this monograph describes, analyzes, and discusses an innovative constructivist blended learning approach to teaching English for Specific Purposes (ESP)/professional communication to EFL students at tertiary educational institutions outside English-speaking countries.

The book includes five chapters. In the first three chapters the four basic features of the constructivist blended learning approach are analyzed in detail:

1) *Chapter 1* discusses *experiential* as well as *interactive (experiential interactive)* nature of learning that makes the teaching/learning method constructivist in

its very nature by allowing students to construct their command of the target language for communication through interactive practical personal experience acquired in learning activities specific for experiential learning;

2) *Chapter 2* analyzes *content-based instruction* responsible for such selection of learning content that makes students construct their command of the target language specifically for using it in and for professional communication;

3) *Chapter 3* considers *involving Internet technologies for organizing students' in-class and out-of-class on-line learning activities* as an integral and indispensable part of the entire teaching/learning process (blended learning) – those on-line activities facilitating and accelerating learners' constructing their command of the target language for professional communication.

The forms of learning activities in English that are the principal ones for the approach – such as role plays and simulations; students' brainstorming, case studies, discussions, and presentations; project work – are thoroughly analyzed in *Chapter 1* (experiential interactive learning).

The ways and means of conducting the selection of professionally valuable learning content in English are discussed in *Chapter 2* (content-based instruction). That chapter also discusses the approach as creating opportunities, prerequisites, and foundations for introducing immersion programs with English as the medium of instruction in courses of professional disciplines included in students' majors beginning from the third or fourth years of university studies.

Ways of organizing professionally aimed on-line learning of English are suggested in *Chapter 3* (blended learning).

The five principles underlying the practical implementation of the suggested approach are analyzed in *Chapter 4*. The suggested principles include: *the principle of systematizing professional information in the coursebook and course of English for Specific Purposes; the principle of authenticity of students' learning activities and learning communication; the principle of authenticity of learning materials; the principle of integrating English speaking, listening, reading, and writing in the learning process; and the principle of developing students' informative competence in English.*

The ways of organizationally implementing the suggested approach in the teaching practice are demonstrated in *Chapter 5* using as examples/illustrations two students' majors at tertiary schools: *Economics and Business* studies and *Psychology* studies and two ESP coursebooks developed by the author and his co-authors in coursebook writing for those two majors: "*Business Projects*" (2002) and "*Psychological Matters*" (2011a). The two coursebooks, "*Business Projects*" and "*Psychological Matters*", and the two ESP courses based on them are discussed with the view of demonstrating the opportunity of introducing the complete – with blended learning – and the narrower – without the blended learning constituent – versions of the constructivist approach. They are also analyzed together with the view of demonstrating possibilities for developing

different versions and modifications of constructivist ESP courses and coursebooks – depending on different needs, requirements, local conditions, and students' majors.

The *Conclusion* summarizes the author's ideas about the suggested constructivist blended learning approach as applied to teaching ESP to tertiary school students, while the *References* list all literature that the author considered as an important foundation on the basis of which those ideas were developed. The sources in *References* include some literature originally published in Russian. This could not be avoided because the approach itself was developed by the author both theoretically and practically on the basis of his 40-year-long practical experience of ESP teaching at Ukrainian universities and taking into account the approaches to foreign language teaching existing in Russia and Ukraine. To make the references to professional literature in Russian understandable to an English-speaking reader, in the *References* section of the monograph the names of the authors, titles, and publication details are first given in English and then (in brackets) in the language of the original.

The monograph is written for all those who are engaged or interested in EFL teaching – specifically in ESP teaching, primarily at tertiary schools: teachers, textbook writers, scholars and researchers in the area, students being trained for the careers of EFL/ESP teachers, doctoral students in the EFL field, particularly in the field of ESP, and all those who, for whatever reasons, find the theoretical and practical issues of ESP teaching important for themselves. Those readers may find the monograph relevant, useful, and interesting because:

1. Teaching English for professional communication (ESP) is the most important task for teachers of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) who work at non-linguistic tertiary schools in all the countries of Eastern and Central Europe as well as in a number of Western European and Asian countries. But professional and research literature (theoretical and practical) on how to organize such teaching efficiently, what methods to use, how to select the teaching/learning content and materials, and on other relevant issues is rather scarce. That often leads to situations in which students' learning outcomes after finishing their university ESP course are far from those required. The primary cause is the lack of competence in what concerns the most up-to-date and effective approaches to ESP teaching and learning at tertiary educational institutions on the part of both practical teachers and EFL/ESP textbook writers.
2. As already mentioned, except a few scattered articles in some professional periodic publications (some of them on-line), there is little published material on the constructivist approach to EFL teaching and nothing published on the constructivist ESP teaching at tertiary schools.

That is why the first book that analyzes and develops the constructivist blended learning approach to ESP teaching/learning at tertiary schools may be considered as quite innovative for the field of teaching English for Specific Purposes (ESP)/professional communication at such schools. The practical implementation of its ideas in ESP teaching practice at higher educational institutions can open up new prospects for substantially improving such teaching and learning and considerably upgrading students' command of English for professional communication. Besides, the suggested approach, thoroughly discussed in the monograph, opens up new vistas for research in the area, so it may prove to be of great importance for scholars and doctoral students in the field.

3. The book is the first of its kind where the approaches already known in ESL/EFL in general and in ESP teaching in particular (experiential learning, interactive learning, content-based instruction, and blended learning) are introduced in their combination as constituent and inseparable parts of one and the same radically new approach (constructivist blended learning). That makes the approach suggested in the monograph quite unique, and the fact that both the theoretical outline and the practice of teaching in accordance with that approach are thoroughly analyzed in the book makes it useful for a wide variety of EFL/ESP teaching professionals and researchers.

All this gives reasons to hope that the monograph may prove to be valuable to the readership indicated above and be considered by them as both theoretically and practically helpful.

Chapter 1.

Experiential interactive learning as the constituent part of the constructivist approach that determines the methods of teaching/learning English for Specific Purposes at tertiary schools

Experiential interactive learning is the first fundamental notion for this monograph because it one of the three basic notions underlying the constructivist approach proposed in it. In fact, if the constructivist approach is the suggested *theory* of ESP teaching/learning at tertiary schools (c.f. the *Introduction*), experiential interactive learning is one of the basic *ways of implementing* that theory in real-life pedagogical process. To clarify the notion of experiential interactive learning advocated in the monograph, each of the two parts in the notion should be analyzed separately: *experiential learning* and *interactive learning*.

1. Experiential learning

Experiential learning has been well known both in EFL/ESL teaching and in teaching other subjects for quite a long time (c.f., for instance, the works by Cerdà, & Williams, 2012; Freeman, & Freeman, 1998; Jerald, & Clark, 1994; Kolb, 1984). It originates from the *learning by doing* approach (Dewey, 1938) already discussed in the *Introduction*. Actually, the idea underlying experiential learning in ESL/EFL is the same as in learning by doing – teaching languages not through theory but through practical experience that allows knowledge and skills to be not learned, but *internalized* (or *acquired*).

The idea of *internalization* dates back to the works by Piaget (1950) and Vygotskii (1978). Internalization means gaining active and deep command of the knowledge and skills that become an integral part of human personality and are always ready for immediate operational use in case of need. The process of internalization is mostly subconscious or even totally unconscious, thereby requiring little or no effort for the retention of what is being internalized. Internalization mostly happens in the course of gaining experience through practical activities. Conversely, traditional learning is a much more passive process of consciously trying to retain (remember) what was explicitly taught

by others (e.g., teachers) and not discovered by learners themselves through practical experience. This is why what has been learned does not immediately become an integral part of personality, is rarely ready for practical operational use, and requires great conscious efforts for retention. Therefore, internalization is considered to be a much more efficient and effort-saving way of educating humans.

In ESL/EFL internalization got the name of *language acquisition* in the works by Krashen (1981) and Krashen, & Terrell (1983) that, by the way, represent the experiential approach to language teaching as well. In those works the much greater efficiency of acquisition as compared to learning is also strongly emphasized. That efficiency of internalization/acquisition is most clearly demonstrated in the famous *Learning Pyramid* developed by the National Training Laboratories in Bethel, Maine (the USA). It is shown in Fig.1.

In this pyramid the upper four layers belong to what may be called traditional passive learning while the three bottom layers relate to the active processes of internalization or acquisition (the latter term will be used further since it is the one relevant for ESL/EFL contexts). And it is just the activities that are shown in the three bottom layers that may be considered as representatives of experiential learning, including experiential learning in EFL.

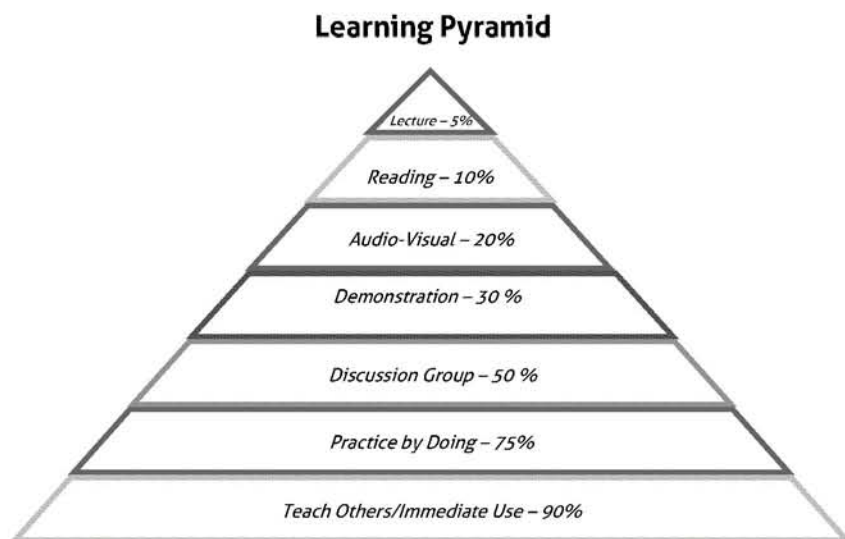


Fig. 1 Average student retention rates (Source: National Training Laboratories, Bethel, Maine, USA; drawn on the basis of the Internet source at [http://images.yandex.ua/yandexsearch?ed=1&text=Pyramid of Learning](http://images.yandex.ua/yandexsearch?ed=1&text=Pyramid+of+Learning) as retrieved September 11, 2011).

That representation of experiential learning activities in EFL concerns even such an activity little known in that area as *Teach Others* (i.e., when students themselves teach language skills to each other). There is no evidence known to us that it has ever been used in ESL but in EFL teaching to tertiary linguistic students (those who are trained for the careers of translators and interpreters from and into English), it has been used more than successfully for a number of years already (c.f. Tarnopolsky, & Degtyarova, 2007). There is also some experience in using a similar approach for an ESP technical master's program in eHealth (Toechterle, 2012).

What has been said also concerns the layer of *Discussion Group* because when students are discussing some extra-linguistic issue in the target language, they are constructing some new knowledge out of the facts and ideas already known to them, and such constructing is most certainly one of the forms of learning by doing, i.e., of experiential learning, or learning through experience of discussing facts and ideas. In this case, the experience in question is being gained through the medium of the target language. There are other forms of ESL/EFL learning activities that belong to the same category as *Discussion Groups*, e.g., *brainstorming in the target language* or *case studies done in it*. They can also be included into the list of experiential learning activities for ESL/EFL due to the same reasons that are given above for *discussions in the target language*.

And it is even not required to prove that *Practice by Doing* and *Immediate Use* are experiential activities that can be actively and effectively used for ESL/EFL teaching in a great variety of forms. Those forms can be listed under the two headings above: *Practice by Doing* and *Immediate Use*. The forms undoubtedly include *project work* and *students' presentations* in the target language done in the framework of project work or whatever other framework (*Practice by Doing*). They include *role plays* and *simulations* in the target language done as soon as students have gained some new information in that language. Such role plays and simulations are staged for better understanding and acquisition of that information (*Immediate Use*) and for processing the obtained information in practical activities (*Practice by Doing*). Finally, they include *search for extra-linguistic information through target language sources (Internet, audio, audio-visual, and printed ones)*. That information is required for doing extra-linguistic learning tasks to be done in the target language – such as the tasks above, like preparing for a presentation or discussion in that language, doing a case study or project work, etc. The search in question is also one of the forms of *Practice by Doing* (practice in the target language through doing an extra-linguistic activity of content information search), as well as one of the forms of *Immediate Use* because the search for information is being done for its immediate use – for instance, when preparing for a presentation.

The eight learning activities listed above are those that are considered and further analyzed in this monograph as *the basic and principal ones for experiential*

ESP teaching/learning at tertiary schools. The reasons why such activities are believed to be experiential have already been given. But before analyzing those activities in detail (which is the main essence of the first half of this chapter), it is necessary to discuss why they are believed to be much more efficient than all the other learning activities traditionally used in ESP.

The reasons for such a belief are psychological and psycholinguistic.

First, in all human activities the goal and motives are directly connected with the activity itself. For instance, a man who himself designs and makes furniture for his own house instead of buying it at the store does it with the aim of furnishing that house (providing furniture for it) and following the motive of saving money (DIY is much cheaper) and/or, possibly, another motive of satisfying his hobby or passion for handicraft. Thus, both the aim and the motive(s) directly generate the relevant activity – producing a piece of furniture – within (inside) which they both lie in the process of that activity. The only exception from this rule is the communicative activity. According to Russian psycholinguists Leontiev (1969) and Zimniaya (1985), the aim and motives of all communication (a communicative activity) are beyond (outside) the boundaries of that activity. For instance, if a wife is trying to convince her husband, who is quite good at handicraft, to make a piece of furniture for their house himself instead of buying it, her aim is, again, providing such a piece of furniture for it and her motive is also saving money. But if in the first case, the activity, its aim, and motive fully coincide in the process of furniture making, in the second case the aim and the motive for DIY furniture production are the same, while the activity for satisfying the motive and achieving the aim is totally different. It is communication as a vicarious activity replacing the production of a piece of furniture. With communicative activities it is always like that – they are almost never the end but practically always the *means* (except those quite rare, and mostly clinical, cases when people talk just to talk and not to achieve something).

If any communicative activity is always the means for doing other activities, gaining the command of that communicative activity will, certainly, be most effective when it is acquired while fulfilling its natural function – being such means. Actually, this is exactly how humans acquire their L1 (mother tongue) in their ontological development. They acquire it unconsciously (or subconsciously), not by formulating conscious rules for themselves but by gradually adjusting their communication so as to achieve the best organization of those other activities that they want to launch through verbal communication. And it is well known that in the ontological development of children such subconscious adjustments (L1 acquisition) happen quite fast, very efficiently, and seemingly effortlessly. That is why Krashen (1981) recommends that the same approach is followed in L2 teaching – replacing conscious language learning with subconscious language acquisition that can ensure much better learning outcomes and greatly economize students' efforts. But experiential EFL/ESP learning does exactly that

– it provides for subconscious L2 acquisition through using the target language communication while doing some other activities and as a means for doing those activities (e.g., for doing some topical learning project in the target language – see above). This is why experiential EFL/ESL learning activities will always be more efficient in the language teaching/learning process than the more traditional ones – in full accordance with the *Learning Pyramid* above.

Second, only when communicative skills are being developed in the framework of extra-linguistic activities is gaining command of all the basic functions of human communication really possible. The Russian psychologist Lisina (1986) names three such basic functions: a *nominative* one (naming something and classifying), a *regulative* one (organizing joint activities with other people), and an *expressive* one (expressing one's feelings and emotions). All these functions relate to the human environment and human extra-linguistic activities in that environment and not to communication *per se*. For instance, gaining command of the regulative function of human communication is possible only in the situations of organizing something, i.e., in extra-linguistic activities aimed at ensuring such an organization. That is why if acquiring communication skills is achieved through extra-linguistic activities which model real-life human activities, the results for mastering communication functions are much better. And again, this is exactly what is done in experiential target language learning – for instance, when several students together do a project task (extra-linguistic activity) in the target language, they may gain the command of the regulative communicative function in that language much better than when their learning activity is aimed at language only.

Third, it is well known that students' positive motivation is the most important factor for successful learning in general and language learning in particular. The best for learning is what some Russian psychologists like Leontiev (1975) call *intrinsic process motivation*. Intrinsic process motivation (often called simply *intrinsic motivation* in Western psychological literature – Williams, & Burden, 2007: 123) is manifested in cases when a person is enjoying the process of activity itself – regardless of the significance of its goals and achievements in it for the individual's life, career, etc. Games that people play for pleasure and not for achieving a definite goal are the best examples of situations in which intrinsic process motivation is most vividly demonstrated. Intrinsic process motivation is the most effective one for learning purposes because when that kind of motivation is activated, it establishes a direct link between the activity and its goal, so that the activity begins to be done for its own sake (Heckhausen, 1991), just for the pleasure of doing it.

That creates the best conditions for *involuntary retention* (Zinchenko, 1961), i.e., for effortless and long-term retention of everything related to the activity – just like people effortlessly retain everything related to their favorite game that they enjoy playing. Involuntary retention explains why people who are learning a

foreign language under the influence of intrinsic process motivation (those who enjoy learning and communicating in the target language) almost effortlessly remember and retain great numbers of foreign words.

In experiential ESP learning there are many more opportunities for developing students' intrinsic process motivation than in traditional ESP as developed by Robinson (1991) – with its principal focus *on language for professional purposes* and not on *profession-related activities*. Contrary to that, *experiential learning in EFL*, as it is clear from what has already been said, *is based on modeling extra-linguistic activities and on communication in the target language related to those activities. That communication is used as a means for achieving the goals of the extra-linguistic activities being done, and it is in the process of doing such activities and using the target language as a means of achieving their goals that the target language itself is subconsciously acquired.* But if it concerns ESP teaching and learning, such modeled extra-linguistic activities can only be *profession-related*. ESP tertiary students are practically always highly motivated as to everything that is closely related to or models their future professional activities. That is why if such activities are modeled in the university ESP course, they are very likely to generate students' intrinsic process motivation. Such motivation, when generated, cannot but spread to everything through which the goals of modeled profession-related activities are achieved, i.e., to professional target language communication. That can really help in achieving the involuntary retention of materials processed in the course of such communication, thereby improving and facilitating the development of EFL/ESP communication skills – again, in full accordance with the *Pyramid of Learning* in Fig.1 above.

Finally, the last reason to believe in greater efficiency of experiential ESP teaching/learning at tertiary schools as compared to the traditional ESP approach is bound with the *highly communicative nature* of experiential learning.

From the end of the first decade in the 2000s it has become fashionable to speak about the “the post-communicative era” in ESL/EFL (c.f. ‘*Symposium on grammar teaching in the post-communicative era*’ – Burkert, Mumford, & Lackman, 2010 – as the name for one of the symposia held at the IATEFL 2009 Cardiff Conference). Communicative language learning (CLL) has started to be regarded as a thing of the past – something to be replaced with the intercultural approach (IA): a kind of training allowing students to communicate in English efficiently with representatives of different cultures without breaking the sociocultural norms characteristic of a given culture, and in this way attaining communicators' specific pragmatic goals (Ferradas, 2010). CLL is beginning to be considered as all the more outdated because ESL/EFL teaching is more and more distancing itself from the idea that students should be taught either British English or American English as the two most widely spread varieties of the language that has become the universally accepted media of international communication. After Kachru's

(1986) work on World Englishes, the movement advocating teaching English as an International Language (EIL) or English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) is gathering momentum (Graddol, 2006, Jenkins, 2004), gradually ousting CLL.

On the other hand, in the discussion of Tarnopolsky (2010 and 2011) vs Berry and vs Young (2011) on the pages of three issues (217, 219, and 220) of *IATEFL Voices*, it was argued that the line of thinking behind the assertion that the IA, EIL, and ELF can oust CLL is methodologically incorrect. It is nothing better than the result of misinterpretation because if CLL is responsible for *the method of teaching* (how the language is taught), IA, EIL, and ELF are responsible for *the selection of teaching/learning content* (what is taught in a language course) (Tarnopolsky, 2010, 2011a). That is why CLL, being indifferent to the content, not only does not form an opposition to IA, EIL, and ELF, but may very well complement them (Tarnopolsky, 2010, 2011a). Moreover, if we agree about the importance of teaching IA, EIL, and ELF (and that importance cannot be denied nowadays), we have to agree that we absolutely *must* complement and combine these approaches with CLL. The reason for that is quite evident.

In what concerns the goals, nobody argues that whatever kind of English we teach to our students (General English or ESP, American English, British English, or EIL), we do it to develop their *communicative competence* (Council of Europe, 2001; Paulston, 1992). However, developing it, we may emphasize different components of that competence which, according to the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* (Council of Europe, 2001), consists of three principal parts: *the linguistic competence, sociolinguistic competence and pragmatic competence*.

For instance, when we follow the intercultural approach, we focus more on the sociolinguistic and pragmatic competences (especially if we teach English to solve some specific pragmatic tasks, as in Business English) and pay less attention to the linguistic competence. But we can never totally ignore any of the three competences whether we teach English for intercultural communication, British or American English, EIL or ELF. This is because in all cases we teach our students *to communicate* efficiently enough to attain through that communication their pragmatic goals without breaking any of the important linguistic, sociolinguistic and cultural norms that come into play in every particular communicative event. And how can we teach such communication without CLL that, roughly speaking, is nothing but teaching communication for communication through and in communication? Of course, if we focus on intercultural aspects of communication in English and try to teach our students to use EIL or ELF in such communication, we will necessarily neglect to a certain extent traditional/standard English grammar and pronunciation in our teaching. But it does not compromise CLL in any way. CLL has never emphasized grammar or phonetics. But it has always emphasized specific methods of teaching such as role-plays, students' project work and discussions, brainstorming and essay writing and a multitude of other similar com-

municative learning activities that really represent and embody communicative language learning. And nobody as yet has rejected such methods of teaching/learning or has even spoken about the necessity of rejecting them. But if this is so, there remain no grounds for speaking about the post-communicative era.

Therefore, it is hard not to recognize that CLL is still here to stay remaining the most efficient method for developing students' target language communicative competence which is the final goal of whatever ESL/EFL teaching and learning. But, as proved in the article by Tarnopolsky (2011), in what concerns ESP (in particular, Business English), experiential learning is the best representation and embodiment of CLL, and the most efficient and effective as to learning outcomes. This is because experiential learning activities have features that best suit the basic requirements to communicative English teaching for using the language taught in students' future professional communication that is supposed to serve their future professional work:

1. They allow faithful modeling of professional activities, professional communication, and professional communication situations.
2. All ESP experiential learning activities can easily be based on whatever content matter related to professional activities that needs to be learned.

This makes such learning activities very flexible in what concerns their adjustment to ESP teaching/learning at tertiary schools, potentially improving thereby students' learning outcomes.

The all-pervasive communicative nature of experiential learning does not mean that, if such learning is introduced into ESP teaching process at tertiary schools, more formal types of learning activities, all those that are mostly aimed at students' gaining the command of vocabulary and grammar, are planned to be totally discarded. That would not be rational at all because second language acquisition (SLA) research and practical teaching in the last three decades have shown that some focusing of students' attention on language forms and consciousness-raising as to them are indispensable for achieving the best results in target language acquisition (Doughty, & Williams, 1998; Ellis, 1990; Fotos, 1994; Rutherford, 1987; O. Tarnopolsky, 1999; Walter, 2012). What is actually meant is a hardly refutable statement that more or less formal (specific language forms-oriented) learning activities should be on the periphery of the teaching/learning process. The focus should be on totally communicative experiential learning activities and the greatest amount of teaching/learning time should be devoted to them.

On the basis of the above analysis of the characteristics of experiential learning and its advantages, the definition of such learning for an ESP course at tertiary schools can be formulated. That definition may be worded as follows:

*The **experiential learning** in the conditions of teaching ESP to tertiary school students is a form of learning implemented through a set of specific learning activities. They ensure the acquisition of the target language and communicative skills in*

it as by-products of extra-linguistic activities modeling professional activities of a future specialist. In this way, students themselves "construct" their target language professional communication skills through the experience of direct participation in such professional communication. This makes experiential learning a fundamental feature of the constructivist approach.

The specific learning activities through which experiential learning in an ESP course can be implemented have already been listed above. They include:

1. Role playing professional situations in the target language;
2. Simulating professional activities in the target language (including such a form of simulations as continuous simulations discussed further);
3. Project work (when students do profession-oriented learning projects using the target language for doing such projects);
4. Brainstorming some professional issue(s) in the target language;
5. Case studies concerning some professional issue(s) and done in the target language;
6. Discussions of some professional issue(s) conducted in the target language;
7. Students' presentations on some professional issue(s) delivered in the target language;
8. Students' search for professional extra-linguistic information through target language sources (Internet, audio, audio-visual, and printed ones), that search being undertaken for finding some particular information required for doing some profession-oriented learning assignments.

All these learning activities deserve special and detailed analysis.

2. Experiential learning activities

2.1. Role playing professional situations in the target language in ESP

2.1.1. Definition of role plays and their use in ESP teaching/learning

For decades role playing has been very popular in language teaching and widely discussed in professional literature on such teaching (c.f. Caré, 1976; Debyser, 1976; Livingstone, 1982; Maley, & Duff, 1983; Ments, 1999; Nunan, 1989; Watcym-Jones, 1978, and many other authors). This is because role playing is an inalienable part of CLL. And since experiential learning is one of the branches (modifications) of CLL, it cannot do without role playing, all the more so that role

playing has always been considered as learning through experience in modeled real-life situations.

The complete definition of role playing in language learning may be as follows:

Role plays in language learning are based on classroom modeling of target language communication situations. In such modeled situations every learner-communicator acts out the roles typical for those modeled situations (a customer, a passenger, a patient, etc. – the number of possible roles is unlimited). While acting out roles, the learner-communicator is supposed to solve some extra-linguistic problem(s) (set in the assignment/instruction to the role play) with the purpose of achieving some extra-linguistic goals (those goals having been either explicitly set in the assignment/instruction to the role play or formulated by learners-communicators themselves in the process of role playing). The learner-communicator is also supposed to take into account the modeled situations, the roles, and the possible relationships between communicators in accordance with those roles, as well as the communicative intentions of all participants in that particular piece of communication. If all the above conditions are observed, role playing becomes a kind of life-size experience for students in which modeled life-size problems are being solved and modeled life-size goals are being achieved through the medium of the target language. This allows for subconscious acquisition of the target language in the process of living the modeled experience.

The given definition is fully within the range of shorter definitions formulated by Livingstone (1982) (a classroom activity which gives the students the opportunity to practice the language they may need outside the classroom), Ments (1999) (asking someone to imagine that they are either themselves or another person in a particular situation), or Al-Mutawa, & Kailani (1989) (a technique that affords an opportunity to practice a new structure in the context of natural communicative usage). But the definition given by us seems to be much more comprehensive than the ones quoted, i.e., more precise and much less ambiguous.

As an example practically ideally suiting the definition above, one of many role plays suggested in the book by Livingstone (1982: 18) can be cited:

"You bought a sweater two days ago. You have discovered a hole in it. Take it back to shop and explain the problem. You do not want another sweater; you want your money back. Be polite at all times."

This example clearly demonstrates probably the most important feature of all role plays: *their problem-solving nature* that makes them representative not only of experiential learning but also of the *task-based approach* to language teaching (Pica, 2007; Prabhu, 1987; Skehan, 2002). Following the instruction to the role play above, the students find themselves in a problem-solving situation where they are supposed to play the roles of unsatisfied customers who need to prove their points despite the objections of shop staff in order to be refunded (problem-solving, or solving of a life-like task with an unavoidable conflict of interests in the process of finding some satisfying solution). It is this problem-

solving nature that makes role playing different from other kinds of learning activities such as *dramatizations* or *playing out situations of social contacts*.

Dramatizations are a kind of learning activities in which students act out dialogues or stories written or otherwise prepared for them. The participants in a dramatization simply act out the text of a dialogue or transform a story into a dialogue and act it out. The development of the conversation and its end are known in advance (like for actors on the stage). Such dramatizations are useless in ESP teaching because nothing in this kind of activity may be considered as typical of professional communication. With a role play, it is absolutely different. Because of the problem and the conflict of interest, nobody knows how the communication is going to develop and how it is going to end – just as it happens in professional communication (e.g., in business talks). This is why only problem-solving role plays and not dramatizations are required for ESP teaching on the condition that the students never prepare such role plays in advance, i.e., they must be totally spontaneous. If students first discuss how they are going to act out a role play, the sequence of their remarks, etc., it is not a role play but a dramatization with no problem to solve or no conflict of interest.

The same can be said about the learning activity that could be called *playing out situations of social contacts*. The instruction for a student doing such a kind of activity may be as follows, “*You are a customer who wishes to buy some definite issue of a definite magazine from a news agent (the other student in the pair). Ask for the magazine and its price. If it is available, buy it; if not, ask whether you can order it or where you can get it*”. There is absolutely no problem to solve in this case and no conflict of interests as distinct from role plays, and, therefore, such social contacts are not very typical of genuine professional communication. That is why if such learning activities are quite possible and useful at the initial stages of teaching General English, they are hardly good for ESP.

So role plays developed for experiential learning should always have a problem to be solved by the students who are doing the role playing – like in Di Pietro’s scenarios (1987) which are, in fact, the same role plays. In most cases, the problem is based on the conflict of participants’ interests, that conflict being conditioned by the roles they play (e.g., like in the above role play developed by Livingstone: the interests of the customer who wants to be refunded oppose the interests of a shop assistant who wants to avoid the necessity of paying the refund money).

It should also be remarked that in ESP it is more habitual to speak about *simulations* and not about *role plays* because simulations are mostly believed to be linked to professional content matter – including the content of professional communication in the target language. But whether we should speak about and use simulations or role plays depends on students’ future specialty and their current major. If the students major in Economics, Engineering, or sciences, it is better to speak about simulations (e.g., when business talks or meetings at a Production Department are simulated). Communication in such situation

is too specific, both in what concerns the content and the language, and too far removed in that respect from everyday problems and everyday (General) English required for solving such problems. On the other hand, if the students major in humanities, in a number of cases it is better to speak about role plays and not simulations. A good example demonstrating why it is so may be taken from the already mentioned coursebook for university students of Psychology "Psychological Matters" by Tarnopolsky, Kozhushko, et al. (2011a) – Unit 4. *Balancing Work and Family*.

Role play. *Act out a dialogue between an employer and a working person (mother or father) who is asking for a release time from work to attend to her/his children's needs at school. The mother/father should follow the recommendations (both those that are in the text above and those that you have developed in your discussion). Please, keep in mind that 'the employer' is certainly unwilling to give 'the employee' some extra release time. S/he will listen to reason only if 'the employee' proves that such extra release time is absolutely necessary and that her/his work will not suffer because of it.*

The learning activity in the example above is undoubtedly aimed at developing professional target language communication in English of future practical psychologists – those skills that they need to advise their clients how to behave in working place conflicts. But that activity is better called a role play and not a simulation because it deals with a situation of everyday life (just like the work of practical psychologists usually does) and everyday (General) English with no special terminology is to be used for communicating in such a situation. It means that not only simulations but also role plays can be used in ESP teaching depending on what particular ESP is being taught. When teaching future psychologists, it is going to be mostly role plays, not simulations (like in the coursebook mentioned above), and this is why they are analyzed in this monograph.

As to professional communication skills development with the aid of role plays, they are certainly most beneficial for acquiring speaking skills in the target language. Naturally, listening skills are also developed because when role playing, students are listening to each other. It means that role plays as a learning activity are mostly designed for students' acquisition of skills in target language oral communication.

However, role plays can be no less helpful in developing reading and writing skills. For instance, as can be seen from the instruction to the role play above designed for students of Psychology, it is based on reading a professional text, that reading preceding and providing information for actual role playing (role playing could be based on listening as well – e.g., listening to a fragment of a psychological session where a psychologist is advising his/her client how to behave in a similar situation). Reading can also follow role playing – for instance, when after role playing a psychological consultation, students are requested to read some professional text explaining how such a particular kind

of psychological consultations should be conducted with further discussion of drawbacks in students' performance in the role play from the professional point of view. Writing may follow role playing in the same manner – for example, when students are requested to write a report on a psychological consultation just role played by them with the aim of presenting that report at “a seminar of practical psychologists” (the learning tasks discussed above are based on the coursebook “*Psychological Matters*” by Tarnopolsky, Kozhushko, et al. (2011a)).

In all these cases, reading and writing tasks either serve as the source of extra-linguistic information for role playing or are the means of summarizing its results, and it is in the process of solving such extra-linguistic tasks that students' target language skills in reading and writing are being developed subconsciously in full accordance with the experiential learning procedure discussed before. Therefore, in a properly organized ESP learning role playing may serve both the development of target language oral communication skills (speaking and listening) and target language written communication skills (reading and writing) with practically equal efficiency.

An important question concerns the stage of students' target language development at which role plays, such as the role play for future psychologists described above, become feasible. The role plays of the above level of language and content difficulty are most definitely impossible to be used at the beginner's A level of students' language development in General English. But on the other hand, they become accessible to students if their level of EFL development is B1, B1+, all the more so B2 (Council of Europe, 2001) – *pre-intermediate and intermediate levels*. But it is just at this level of command of General English that students start to learn ESP. For instance, in Ukraine, for which the teaching/learning approach discussed in this monograph was initially developed, tertiary students usually attain B1, B1+, or sometimes B2 level in their General English command by the end of their first year of university studies, and it is beginning with their second year at university that they ordinarily start learning ESP. *It is just for the students of this level of language development (i.e., for those who have reached B1/B1+/B2 levels in their General English and start learning ESP on that basis) and this period of language studies that our approach had originally been developed, and that should be kept in mind when evaluating both the ESP role play above and all the other learning activities suggested in this chapter and the monograph as a whole.*

2.1.2. Classification of role plays and their organization

Role plays can be classified according to:

1. The number of participants – those played in pairs, in small groups of 3-4 students, or by the entire academic group who are learning ESP together in one classroom.

2. The location – classroom role plays or those held outside the classroom, for instance, when ESP students are touring a practical psychologist or a doctor's office for learning purposes.
3. The need for initial preparation – like reading, or listening, or watching a video before staging the role play to obtain some information required for such staging.
4. The degree of using aids for role playing – absence of aids; using only visual or auditory aids like video, pictures, or music; using also verbal supports like lists of words for giving language help to students when they are role playing (hand-outs), etc.
5. Involvement of all four communication skills (speaking, listening, reading, writing) or limiting them to two (speaking and listening only) or three skills (reading or writing in addition to speaking and listening).
6. The degree of control of students' role behavior (whether the instructions to the role play grant students freedom in what they do within the loose framework of the roles indicated for them or whether that instruction fully determines their role behavior – e.g., when in the role play for students of Psychology above the student impersonating the employer is instructed to be as little compromising as possible).
7. The degree of control of goal-setting in a role play – whether the goal of communication is predetermined by an instruction or whether the players themselves formulate their goals in the process of playing on the basis of the roles assigned to them. For instance, in the role play above the communication goal of the employee talking to his/her employer is pre-set (getting release time from work), but in other role plays it may be not formulated at all with only the roles of communicators and the situation of communication being outlined in the instruction.

In the organizational aspect, role playing may include several stages:

1. Preparation by the teacher: deciding what the communication situation, the roles of participants, and their goals are going to be; deciding whether the students' level of language development is sufficient for just such a role play; deciding whether they will need supports, what kinds of supports, and preparing those supports; deciding whether students will need initial preparation for role playing – like reading, or listening, or watching a video before staging the role play to obtain some information required for such staging – and assembling materials for such students' preparation; compiling instructions for students, etc.
2. Students' initial preparation: reading, or listening, or watching a video before staging the role play to obtain some information required for such staging.

3. Instructions to students (by the teacher): describing the communication situation, assigning roles, setting goals (if they need to be set), and answering possible students' questions.
4. Role playing itself.
5. Debriefing – discussing and commenting on the results of role playing (both the teacher and the students' comments).
6. Follow-up – like students majoring in Psychology writing a summary in English of a psychological session that they have just role played for preparing a presentation or report at a modeled 'seminar of practical psychologists' that may be one of the following experiential learning activities.

Only the third and the fourth stages are mandatory and absolutely unavoidable; all the others can be more or less optional. For instance, the first stage (preparation by the teacher) is not required when everything necessary for organizing a role play has already been prepared for the teacher in the coursebook or other teaching materials used by him or her (as it is in the coursebook "*Psychological Matters*" by Tarnopolsky, Kozhushko, et al. (2011a) mentioned above). As to the second stage (initial students' preparation), it is less frequently omitted in ESP, but such omissions are quite possible when the students were learning all the content materials required for role playing at some earlier stages. The debriefing stage (omitted most rarely) may be useless in such infrequent cases when students' work was so good that the teacher has practically nothing to comment on except saying how good a job the students have done. Finally, though the follow-up stage should mostly be used in experiential teaching to ensure logical modeling of professional activities following each other in a consecutive order according to a certain professional logic, in some cases the role play itself may be 'the end-piece' – for instance, when finishing all learning activities on some ESP topic of professional interest.

An important issue is the teacher's involvement in the process of students' role playing. In principle, teachers may take part in their students' role plays as participants. But this is probably not the best solution because, in this case, a teacher can join only one pair or small group out of several who are role playing simultaneously in the classroom. The opportunity of helping and observing (to get information for debriefing) other pairs and small groups will be lost. So, the best involvement for the teacher is probably becoming an observer circulating among pairs and small groups of students and listening to their role playing. In that case, the teacher can also be a consultant giving prompts to students when they require them.

Some other essential requirements for teachers when organizing their students' role playing in an ESP course are as follows:

1. to avoid making one pair of students or one small group of them perform in front of all the other students who are silently listening; though sometimes that may become advisable (e.g., for demonstrating the performance of the best students as a sample) – as a rule, all students in class should role

play simultaneously in their pairs or small groups; otherwise, precious time of target language communication, which models real-life professional communication, will be lost for the majority of learners;

2. to avoid interrupting students while they are communicating in the target language in the process of role playing for correcting their language mistakes (except those cases when mistakes makes what is being said by a student incomprehensible – tactful prompts should be used in such cases); teacher's interruptions due to learners' language faults may disrupt their communication;
3. to avoid demonstrating to students the interest in their linguistic performance only; learners should feel that their teacher is interested in what they say, their ideas, etc., and not only in how they say it (the language);
4. to avoid making students nervous and anxious (e.g., about their grades, about hearing something discouraging from the teacher concerning their performance) in the process of role playing; students should feel relaxed and free of whatever personal fears that can disrupt communication or make it much less efficient than it could be otherwise;
5. to avoid lowering students' motivation levels by suggesting role plays that cannot interest them or repeating the same kinds of role plays over and over again, thus generating monotony and boredom in the teaching/ learning process;
6. to avoid staging role plays very rarely and irregularly – they should become a regular part of the learning process for the students to learn playing them without too much efforts and to start enjoying such playing.
7. to avoid surpassing the reasonable level of language and information difficulty for students (at the given stage of their language and professional development) in their role playing assignments. It does not mean that students should have absolutely all content information and all language (for instance, all vocabulary) for role playing at their disposal. There should be some kind of information gap, just like in all task-based assignments, otherwise there is going to be no sense in role playing at all because the problems to be solved will be lacking (c.f. Prabhu, 1987). There also may be some vocabulary that students do not know but may need for their role play. However, this vocabulary should include only a few words that may be easily prompted by the teacher before role playing or in the process of it without endangering the smooth flow of students' communication. So, what is meant by the above requirement is making role playing tasks accessible to students, even though attaining that accessibility may demand their serious efforts. In fact, such efforts should be constantly demanded from students because only they can ensure the learning progress.

The requirements formulated above concern all experiential learning activities discussed in this chapter, so they will not be repeated again.

2.2. Simulating professional activities by means of the target language in ESP

2.2.1. Definition of simulations and their use in ESP teaching/learning

Simulations in ESP teaching have become no less popular than role plays are in teaching General English. They are also very thoroughly analyzed in professional literature (Crookall, & Oxford, 1990; Davison, & Gordon, 1978; Jones, 1982; Vishnyakova, 1987). Jones defines a simulation in language teaching as "... reality of function in a simulated environment", and it is that reality of function that distinguishes it from a role play (Jones, 1982: 4-5). The definition is good because it draws a distinction between simulations and role plays. These two learning activities are very much alike since in simulations students also play roles while they are engaged in extra-linguistic activities in which communication is held in the target language. But in simulations *the function* of the activity (like solving a professional problem) is focused upon, while in role plays the focus is on modeling a real-life situation for communication. However, Jones's definition is not sufficient for ESP teaching because nothing is said about the orientation of simulations at students' professional activities. Just that point was emphasized by the Russian scholar Vishnyakova (1982) who was discussing using simulations in teaching Russian as a foreign language and defined them as practical classes modeling different aspects of professional activities.

On the basis of these two definitions, our own definition of simulations in ESP teaching and learning can be formulated:

Simulations in ESP teaching and learning are learning activities similar to role plays with the difference that they focus not so much on communication situations but more on the functions of professional activities being modeled in them.

Just like in a role play, in simulations there are roles, situations of communication in which those roles are played, separate actions within the activity being modeled, and, of course, the problem(s) to be solved. But if for a role play *the conflict of interests* is quite common (e.g., the conflict of interests between a customer and a shop assistant in the role play suggested by Livingstone or a conflict of interests between an employee and an employer in the above ESP role play for students of Psychology), for a simulation *the conflict of opinions* is much more typical since the participants strive to attain one and the same goal and there are no contradictions among them as to what that goal is. But there is a contradiction as to the way of achieving the goal (a conflict of opinions) that different participants suggest, as can be seen from an example below of an ESP simulation taken from the coursebook *Business Projects* by Tarnopolsky, Kozhushko, et al. (2002) – Unit 7. Marketing.

Student A

You are a representative of a manufacturer. Discuss with the middleman (a wholesaler or retailer) the conditions of distributing your product. He/she will store it. But who will transport it? You would prefer it to be the middleman because you lack the means of transportation. If he/she agrees to undertake transportation, you are willing to lower the price he/she will pay you for the products.

Student B

You are a middleman (a wholesaler or retailer). Discuss with the representative of a manufacturer the conditions of distributing his/her product. You will store it. But who will transport it? You prefer it to be the responsibility of the manufacturer because you lack the means of transport. But you can solve the problem and find the means of transport if the manufacturer agrees to lower the price at which you will buy the product. You would like a 15% reduction if you transport the product. Discuss this with the manufacturer's representative.

It should be noted that when this particular simulation is being organized in the classroom, each one of the two students-participants is not supposed to know the instructions received by his/her counterpart. Otherwise, if those are mutually known, the problem to be discussed disappears. This is because not only the cause of the conflict of opinions (both sides are unwilling to undertake transportation) is revealed in advance but the grounds for the compromise are also disclosed before the discussion begins. A similar restriction (the participants should not know the opinions and ideas of other participants in advance) applies to most ESP simulations just because, unlike role plays, they represent the conflict of opinions typical for professional communication and not the conflict of interests typical for everyday life (and which is in many cases quite obvious without any discussion).

Simulations in ESP always develop primarily oral communication skills (speaking and listening – just like in role plays) since they inevitably include professional discussions in which participants act in some professional roles. But unlike role plays, the process of simulating mostly includes agreeing on a whole “chain” of professional solutions required to come to a compromise in what concerns the conflict of opinions. For instance, in the simulation above *Student B* should agree to undertake transportation (the first professional solution in a chain and the first compromise) on the condition that *Student A* agrees to lower the price (the second professional solution in a chain and the second compromise). This structure of ESP simulations makes them closer to typical professional communication than role plays.

Besides, if in role plays recourse to written communication (reading and writing) is possible and desirable but more or less optional, in simulations that recourse is practically mandatory. First, simulations are almost always preceded by students' collecting some professional information required for simulating, and that is mostly done through reading. For example, before staging the simulation above students need to know what product is being sold and transported, what its characteristics and conditions of transportation are, what the standard price is on the basis of which the 15% discount may be requested, etc. Thus, reading must obligatorily precede such a simulation – exactly as it would have happened in real-life professional oral business communication. But in real life such communication would almost inevitably be followed by writing – preparing a contract on the basis of the talks or writing a report on the talks for the employer by a representative of the manufacturer, etc. For an ESP simulation just such a follow-up is also natural and should never be omitted. So, in this respect (practically mandatory involvement of all the four basic communication skills) simulations are also closer to genuine professional communication than role plays.

It is due to such features of simulations, as distinct from role plays, that they, and not role plays, are mostly used in ESP teaching (though, as already said, for students of some humanities, like Psychology, role plays are better adapted).

2.2.2. Classification of simulations and their organization

The classification of simulations is quite similar to the classification of role plays. Just like those, simulations can be classified according to:

1. The number of participants.
2. The location – ESP simulations can be held outside the classroom. For instance, future aviation dispatchers can be taken to the airport training center with all the mock equipment installed there and simulate doing in English the job that they are taught to do.
3. The degree of using supports when simulating some professional activity, including using or not using language supports.
4. The degree of control of students' role behavior in a simulation.
5. The degree of control of goal-setting in a simulation.

But unlike role plays, there can be no simulations that do not need some degree of initial preparation by students (like gathering some information required for simulating accurately some professional activity). Therefore, simulations with absolutely no involvement of reading and/or writing are hardly possible either (see above).

The stages in organizing a simulation also coincide with the stages of organizing a role play:

1. Preparation by the teacher.
2. Initial students' preparation.
3. Instructing students by the teacher.
4. Simulating a professional activity itself.
5. Debriefing.
6. Follow-up.

But unlike role playing, only the stage of preparation by the teacher can be optional among the six stages and is not required when, for instance, the coursebook (the *Teacher's Book*) contains everything the teacher may need for organizing a simulation. All the other stages, as follows from everything that has been said above, should be considered as almost always mandatory.

As is clear from what has been said when discussing role plays, everything stated earlier concerning the teachers' involvement and the requirements to teachers in the process of students' role playing relate in an equal measure to the organization of simulations (as well as to all the other experiential learning activities). But there is one more specific and quite an important requirement that concerns the organization of simulations only (Vishnyakova, 1987).

This is the requirement to organize them in such a way that *imitational modeling of professional activities* is ensured. This means that in an ESP simulation not only the professional communication itself but the non-verbal professional activities accompanying that communication should also be simulated. For instance, if a business meeting is being simulated, students should not only *talk* in English on professional (business) matters, they should also *do* what professionals usually do at such meetings: demonstrate diagrams and graphs, present some samples, etc. Otherwise, learners will not really *feel* themselves to be in a quasi-genuine professional environment and much of the experiential learning effect may be lost. On the other hand, imitating professional non-verbal activities and environment should be balanced and never *overdone* because that may distract students from what is really important in an ESP course – professional communication in English.

Thus, simulating professional activities of a railway engineer in an ESP classroom does not require bringing a locomotive into that classroom – besides being impossible, that is not even desirable because students' attention will be focused on the locomotive and not on communication. In the same way, though organizing ESP simulations in professional locations (like an ESP simulation in a locomotive shed organized for future railway engineers) may sometimes be desirable, as follows from point 2 in the classification of simulations above, it should never be frequent. Such simulations in professional locations are good only as infrequent (sporadic) events for reinforcing students' belief in the modeled professional activities in their ESP classroom. But if those events happen too often, they may unnecessarily distract learners from their communication in the target language.

2.2.3. Definition of continuous simulation and its use in ESP teaching/learning

All the above requirements to simulations in ESP are best met in a comparatively novel kind of such simulations called *continuous simulations* (Tarnopolsky, & Kozhushko, 2003), first presented and discussed as a tool in Business English teaching at IATEFL 1998 Manchester conference by Tarnopolsky (2000).

Continuous simulation is a specific organization of a Business English (as a specific type of ESP – Ellis, & Johnson, 1994) course when learning develops as continuous modeling and enacting of business activities and communication in class. The enactment is done in the framework of almost life-size functioning of an imaginary company. Students themselves invent it, “set it up”, organize its “functioning”, and “work” in that company. It is a kind of play where learners themselves are actors, directors, and playwrights on an on-going basis. Continuous simulation, unlike traditional simulations, which are disconnected episodes in the learning process, creates a common meaningful plot for Business English learning and communicative activities in the course, that plot being developed from class to class. Students decide what form of business they are going to organize, what the structure and management hierarchy of their company is going to be; they organize the company, elect or appoint its top executives, find, interview, and select employees; determine the place that their business can occupy in the economy of the country; they do marketing research, solve financial problems, participate in fairs, sign contracts, etc.

This common plot developing from class to class creates an imaginary life continuum in which students do not need to focus on conscious learning. They acquire both Business English and business itself by constantly playing it in conditions imitating or modeling business environment. What is very important is the fact that in continuous simulation the modeled business environment is created by students themselves who develop the plot when they play business. That makes students’ communication highly creative and imaginative. Learners’ creativity and imagination is what the entire approach is based on.

In the teaching/learning process where the continuous simulation is used it becomes the principal type of learning activities. All the other learning activities ‘serve’ this one – leading up to it, supplying language material for the continuous simulation and helping organize it in the most efficient manner so that students could permanently simulate business activities and business communication in their classroom all through the course of Business English not only without too much efforts but also enjoying themselves in the process.

Continuous simulation as an approach to teaching Business English was most fully embodied in the coursebook *Business Projects* by Tarnopolsky, Kozhushko, et al. (2002). There continuous simulation was designed as a series of logically interconnected episodes-assignments for students that outline “the

development and functioning" of the imaginary company founded by them at the very beginning of the course. The episodes are staged by the students not only when they are working on each unit in the coursebook but almost in every class (see *Chapter 5*), ensuring the continuity of the simulation and the imaginary continuum of business activities mentioned above. Some of such episodes-assignments from the coursebook *Business Projects* by Tarnopolsky, Kozhushko, et al. (2002) are given below to provide examples. The episodes are borrowed from: *Unit 3. Making Appointments and Applying for a Job*; *Unit 7. Marketing*; and *Unit 9. Banking*.

Continuous simulation. *Conduct your company's Executive Board meeting. You have already advertised some job vacancies and decided how many people of various occupations should be employed. Your company's Personnel Officer has already received a number of applications. The job interviews will be held very soon. Now you need to discuss the personal qualities and qualifications you want an applicant to have in order to be given a certain position in your company. Every member of the Executive Board, as well as every director or manager, should give his or her opinion about both the qualifications (education, work experience, and other aspects) and the personal qualities that are required of the candidates. As a result of the discussion, minimum requirements for the candidates should be listed. The discussion should be based on the list you compiled in project work (1a.2) – professions required, the number of employees from those professions to be employed, conditions of their work, and salaries.*

Continuous simulation (small group work). *In small groups of three or four students, discuss the kinds of promotion you think would be good for your business and give your reasons. Which methods do you need (if any), and why? You will surely include advertising. Which method of advertising do you recommend that your company uses, and why? After a 5 to 7 minute discussion, each small group will make a two-minute presentation to the class, giving their recommendations and answering questions.*

Continuous simulation. At the meeting of the Finance Department. *In the preceding class each pair in the class simulated getting a loan for your company. Now the results should be reported. Each pair bases the presentation on their written report prepared after the preceding class. If every pair tried getting a loan for the same project, when all the reports have been given, there should be a whole-class discussion to decide which bank has offered the best conditions.*

If the loans were for different projects, each pair should first explain the project itself, and then report which bank was willing to grant a loan for it and on what conditions. In that case, the report of each pair should be discussed separately and a decision taken whether the project itself is acceptable and whether the conditions of the loan are suitable.

It has already been mentioned that in continuous simulation learners themselves develop the plot of the simulation and plan everything that is going

to happen. But the general outline is prompted/determined by the teacher/coursebook. It can be seen from the examples above and from the general outlay of the coursebook in question how it is done. The first unit in it is entitled "*Forms of Business*" and is devoted to discussing in English the most spread forms of business organization: sole proprietorship, partnership, two types of corporations/companies, and franchising. It is when working on that unit that the continuous simulation starts by students simulating "a meeting of founders" where they decide "to establish their own business." They also decide what the form of that business is going to be (a partnership, a corporation/company, etc.), what they are going to do (manufacture, sell, etc.), where their business organization is going to be located, what its name is going to be, what contribution to the common cause every student in the group is going to make, etc.

When working on the next unit "*Company Structure*", learners develop the hierarchy and structure of their "business organization" and elect or appoint its top executives. Then, while working on the third and fourth units, students are engaged in "recruiting staff" and interviewing "applicants for vacant positions"; later they start organizing production, doing market research, launching promotion campaigns, and so forth from unit to unit.

Continuous simulation generally develops for quite a long period of time – in the case of the coursebook *Business Projects*, for the whole academic year – and is mostly based on *learner autonomy* (Benson, & Voller, 1997; Dam, 2002). The teacher's guidance is quite prominent at the early stage of continuous stimulation when students are not yet used to this kind of learning and are not sure how to proceed. But with their progress, they become more and more autonomous, if not independent, in everything that concerns organizing the activities within their continuous simulation.

From this point of view, three levels of learner autonomy can be distinguished (Tarnopolsky, 2001):

1. Level zero of learner autonomy when everything is decided on, guided, and controlled by the teacher.
2. The first level of learner autonomy, or the level of group autonomy, when a pair, small group, or the entire academic group of students are mostly responsible for the organization of learning activities and their results, while the teacher's function is only to consult and help students at their requests, as well as to facilitate the learning process for them as far as possible.
3. The second level of learner autonomy, or the level of individual autonomy, when the responsibility for learning activities and their results is vested in every individual student, and the teacher's attention is focused on consulting, helping, and facilitating the work of such individual students.

The method underlying the coursebook *Business Projects* (Tarnopolsky, Kozhushko, et al., 2002) requires putting all the three levels of learner autonomy into practice. When students are being prepared for staging this or that part or episode in the continuous simulation (like reading or listening in English to professional information, collecting information and acquiring vocabulary that they need for their stimulation, etc.), they are totally teacher-guided and teacher-controlled, i.e., work on the zero level of learner autonomy. Later, when they pass on to actual engagement in some episode of the continuous simulation, the students simultaneously pass to the first level of autonomy – that of group autonomy. Naturally, working on that level, they need a lot of prompts and help from their teacher at first, but with their advance and the development of habit of working in such a manner, learners become more and more independent of the teacher in their group activities. Finally, when students are doing their project tasks on the basis of some continuous simulation episodes (see further), they start working on the level of individual autonomy, the teacher assuming the role of consultant and facilitator only (Rogers, 1983). In this way, students' work on every unit of the coursebook in question involves their consecutive passing from the lowest to the highest level of learner autonomy.

Group autonomy as the feature characterizing continuous simulation generates one more important characteristic of that learning activity. This is *cooperative learning*. Cooperative learning is not just students' work in pairs or small groups; it is such a kind of learning in which the knowledge and skills of all participants are added up creating a synergic effect so that all learners start unconsciously learning from each other and teaching each other (Kessler, 1992). Due to its design, continuous simulation is absolutely impossible without cooperative learning, as can be seen from the examples of tasks for staging episodes in that simulation given above.

It is due to the fact that continuous simulation is mostly based on group work (group autonomy, cooperative learning) that it cannot be widely used for ESP students of *all* majors. It is very good and perfectly adapted to students of Business and Economics (as well as a number of other majors) whose future professional activities modeled in continuous simulation are distinguished by the same characteristics. This is why it is on the basis of continuous simulation that the coursebook *Business Projects* (Tarnopolsky, Kozhushko, et al., 2002) was designed. On the contrary, the work of future psychologists is mostly based on individual and episodic psychologist-to-client activities that are better modeled in role plays than in continuous simulations. That was the reason for not using continuous simulation in the second coursebook (*Psychological Matters* – Tarnopolsky, Kozhushko, et al., 2011a) from which practical examples for this monograph are borrowed.

2.3. Project work in ESP teaching and learning

2.3.1. Definition of project work and its use in teaching/learning

Project work, or project method, is close in essence to role plays and simulations as they have been defined above. The project method was first put into practice in a series of textbooks by Hutchinson (1994) entitled *Project English*. Those were initially designed for teaching General English to adolescents but nowadays the project method is finding ever broadening application in teaching languages for professional purposes.

The essence of project method is the same *learning by doing* which has already been spoken so much about as underlying all experiential learning. It may be even said that project work is the fullest and the best embodiment of experiential learning in language courses; this is why it should obligatorily be included into ESP teaching if the experiential approach has been chosen as the principal distinguishing feature of that teaching.

Project work is based on project tasks, which model real-life productive activities and require relatively long-term fulfillment (from one or two weeks to a whole semester, academic year, or even longer). Project tasks are assigned to individual students or groups of them, and for fulfilling such project tasks, students need to share their responsibilities and functions, divide the task among themselves, work autonomously in and out of class (with only the consultative assistance of the teacher) to complete the part of the entire project assigned to them. At the end, they report the completion of their part of the project to other students and the teacher demonstrating the results of that completion in some material form. When the entire project has been completed by all the students in the group, the final results also need to be reported and demonstrated in some material form.

A good example of project work in the series of textbooks by Hutchinson (1994) for teaching/learning General English is the preparation of a class newspaper in English by adolescent students: one student's (the "editor's") responsibilities include planning and editing the newspaper; a number of other students ("reporters and correspondents") supply news, materials and write articles for the newspaper, some students are entrusted with illustrating and printing it, etc. The preparation of the newspaper can last for several weeks and the fully prepared paper, which may be placed on the school's web site, is the final material product of the project work as a whole.

Project work is, as rule, very effective and greatly enhances students' positive learning motivation. As Fried-Booth (1996) explained, when doing their projects, students feel totally involved in real-life extra-linguistic activities that have personal significance for them because they allow them to demonstrate their crea-

tive potential and assert themselves both in the eyes of their class-mates and in their own eyes. This generates what was called above intrinsic process motivation which by itself increases the productivity of learning and improves its outcomes (Leontiev, 1975).

There are five stages in doing a learning project that are also distinguished by the levels of learner autonomy:

1. Receiving the project assignment from the teacher and his or her instructions (the assignment and instructions may be in the coursebook but all the same, some teacher's comments and explanations are always required). This is the level of zero autonomy because everything that is going on in the classroom is teacher/coursebook-controlled.
2. Planning the project by students, including their sharing parts of the task between themselves for individual completion. This is the level of group autonomy based on cooperative learning, and the role of the teacher is that of a consultant in autonomous students' group work.
3. Completing individual tasks that individual students have received at the preceding stage. This is the highest level of learner autonomy: individual autonomy when individual students are on their own in completing their individual project assignments. The role of the teacher is again that of a consultant, but this time a consultant for individual learners, not groups of them.
4. Discussing and assessing the completed project work presented by individual students or groups of them, with the teacher again assuming the guiding role (zero autonomy). This stage also includes students' making corrections and amendments in the work that they have done. Correcting is based on what was said in the process of discussing and assessing the students' work and is also guided by the teacher.
5. Publishing/publicizing the material product of the project – like publishing the newspaper issue prepared by students on the web site of the school – see the example above. Some individual student or a small group of them may be entrusted with this task in which case such students work on the levels of individual or group autonomy.

It can be seen from above that in project work students pass from the lowest to the highest levels of autonomy, including the level of individual autonomy, unachievable in continuous simulation, while the transition between levels is totally organic.

The project method is ideally suited to ESP teaching at tertiary schools due to several of its intrinsic characteristics:

1. Project work allows the creation of a learning environment that most fully models, or imitates, the conditions existing in the professional environment where students are going to work in future.
2. Students' project work is always much better motivated than many other learning activities. This is because, after completing project assignments, students get some material products as the result of their totally practical efforts (like a class newspaper in English – see above). Thus, the learning outcome is tangible, and that generates higher positive motivation than 'abstract' learning. In ESP such visible outcome of project work is future profession-oriented, which may also enhance the motivation of students who are always interested in their future career.
3. When doing project assignments, students need to search for and collect information necessary for their completion. In ESP it is certainly professionally meaningful information that is researched. Such research becomes the basis for developing professionally oriented information research skills, as well as the skills of self-teaching in the field of professional activities using the target language for those activities. In general, in project work working with the professional materials/information in the target language has a dual function: developing target language communication skills and expanding professional knowledge.
4. In project work different foreign language communication skills (speaking, listening, reading, and writing) are much better and more organically integrated than in practically all other learning activities. When preparing their projects, students inevitably have to read very many materials in the target language that they themselves find in their information research (for instance, the information research done on the Internet). Such information research may also be bound with listening because a lot of professional information can be obtained from audio materials found on the Internet. Besides, students listen to each other when discussing their projects. This develops their reading and listening skills and makes reading and listening in the target language an organic part of all ESP project assignments. Those assignments, the process of completing them, and the intermediate and final stages of their completion are always being discussed by students in the target language (speaking) while project results (again intermediate and final) are always presented in writing. Therefore, all the four basic communication skills are inextricably bound together into a single unity which improves their acquisition since the development of one of the skills helps the development of all the others.

As already emphasized in the definition of the project work above, ESP learning projects can be of different durations: from projects requiring one to two weeks to be completed to projects that last all through the academic year or even through the entire language course (*through projects*). Such *through projects* seem to be especially beneficial in ESP because they unite all the learning activities into an integral professionally oriented extra-linguistic whole. Therefore, through projects are best suited for the experiential learning approach, and this is why both coursebooks (*Psychological Matters* and *Business Projects*) used in this monograph for supplying practical examples are designed in such a way that doing project assignments in a through project of one academic year's duration makes a substantial part of students' learning.

An example can be given from the coursebook "*Psychological Matters*" by Tarnopolsky, Kozhushko, et al. (2011a). In many ways, the ESP course based on the textbook *Psychological Matters* epitomizes a grand learning project beginning with *Unit 1 – Psychology and its Branches* and ending with *Unit 10 – Psychological Counseling*. The through learning project common for all units is the preparation of *A Short Psychological Encyclopedia*, a kind of reference book wherein students are asked to summarize the professional content learned during the course. Based on the materials covered in each of the units, every *Encyclopedia's* chapter summarizes the unit's content and/or provides additional materials on the theme not covered in the unit. In compiling the chapters, students are encouraged to make use of the materials found on the Internet (professional websites in English) during their *Internet-search classes* (c.f. in *Chapter 3* of this monograph). Every student is asked to prepare for each chapter their own version for possible inclusion in the *Encyclopedia*. In turn, all versions are discussed in class, and the best version(s) is chosen for inclusion but not before undergoing further editing by a specially appointed students' task force. The final edited version is then illustrated and discussed anew before being included in the *Encyclopedia*. An example of such an assignment from *Unit 8 – Psychotherapy* is given below:

Project work. *In the two pictures above you can see the examples from the practice of art therapy – a branch of psychotherapy that is currently very popular and that you have not yet discussed.*

The eighth task for preparing one more chapter for your SHORT PSYCHOLOGICAL ENCYCLOPEDIA will be connected with art therapy, a branch of psychotherapy. This explains why the eighth chapter planned for the Encyclopedia is to be called Art Therapy as a Specific Branch of Psychotherapy.

You are now going to conduct your Internet search. Use the websites your teacher has recommended and your own researched sites. Search for information on art therapy, its practice, distinctions, and differences from other branches of psychotherapy. You are required to inform your teacher what sites you are going to work on so that all of you have different information sources and collect different information.

After your source(s) is chosen, start collecting information from the Internet. Your goal is to prepare a 5-minute oral presentation on art therapy and its practice on the basis of the information found. You are also required to write a short article on this issue for the Encyclopedia. All this will have to be handed in the class after the next. Your short article is to be of about 150 words in length.

In the coursebook *Psychological Matters* not only does every single unit out of ten contain project assignments for students, those assignments are of the kind similar to the kind given above. Project work also takes at least some part of the learning time in the classroom during numerous classes all through the academic year when students use that coursebook for their ESP studies. The same concerns students' out-of-class work (home assignments). That makes the ESP course a kind of "project course" where student's efforts are to a large extent directed at completing their future-profession-oriented extra-linguistic project using the target language as a tool for its completion. This is exactly what was meant above when it was stressed that project work is the fullest and the best embodiment of experiential learning in language courses.

2.3.2. Combining project work with continuous simulation

Thanks to the aforementioned similarities of project work to role plays and simulations (that closeness due to the fact that in project work learners also assume roles: like 'an editor' in a class newspaper or 'a writer for an Encyclopedia' – see above), these three types of learning activities can be perfectly combined.

Every role play or simulation can serve as a basis for doing some project task or, vice versa, almost every project task can become a stimulus for role playing and simulating. This is especially true of continuous simulations. In the coursebook *Business Projects* (Tarnopolsky, Kozhushko, et al., 2002) project tasks summarize all the continuous simulation activities because after "founding" their company at the start of the course, the students immediately get the assignment of writing the company's prospectus – the assignment that is done until the end of the course (a through project). At the end of every unit, learners write one section of that prospectus where all the work done on the unit is summarized. For instance, on finishing *Unit 2 (Company Structure)*, the students write the section of the prospectus where the structure of their company and its management hierarchy are described. After *Unit 5 (Domestic and World Economy)*, they write a section discussing their company's place in the economy of the country, and it goes like this from unit to unit. That makes the results of written project tasks the visible material products of everything done in the course. Along with the entire work in the course, they find their full expression in the final product – the prospectus of learners' imaginary company written and prepared for publishing by students themselves. Writing and preparing for publication (typing, formatting, finding or creating illustrative materials for the prospectus, etc.) are very

important for the success of continuous simulation. They are the principal means of making that simulation seem "real life" because real material products of company's functioning are demonstrated.

What has been said above can be illustrated by three tasks from Unit 6 "Business Objectives, Strategy, and Competition" of the coursebook *Business Projects* (Tarnopolsky, Kozhushko, et al., 2002). The tasks show the transition from project work to continuous simulation and again to project work (the first two tasks are directly linked, the last one is linked to the continuous simulation episodes and intermediate project tasks in the preceding Unit 5 "Domestic and World Economy"):

Project work. Your teacher will give you some information about the companies that are the major competitors of your company. On the basis of this information, in groups of three or four students, write an essay of 100-150 words with recommendations as to what strategy should be followed to surpass your competitors and take the first place on the market. This project task should be completed before the next class.

On the basis of the project work, your small group should prepare a presentation to deliver in the next class. The topic of your presentation will be recommendations to your company concerning its business strategy and ways of dealing with your competitors. The aim of making recommendations is to develop the best policy towards achieving the objective of maximizing pre-tax profits.

Continuous simulation. Developing a Business Strategy (at the Executive Board meeting). While working on this unit, you were given the assignment of writing two essays in groups of three or four students. One concerned your recommendations as to your company's general strategy and another was on the strategy you recommended in dealing with your competitors. Now each small group, in turn, will make a presentation where they speak on these two issues and present their recommendations with their reasons. All the other students (Board members and other executives) will ask the presenters questions. Each small group has 10 to 15 minutes to deliver their presentation and answer questions. After all the presentations have been made, a general discussion is held in which all recommendations are discussed as to their good or bad features. As a result of the discussion, the Board should make a final decision on what strategy to follow, and why.

Project work discussion. In the last class on Unit 5 you were given the task of writing another section of your company's prospectus. That section concerned the role your company could play in the economy of Ukraine and in economic cooperation with English-speaking countries. Listen to all the alternatives of this section written by different students. Vote to select the best alternative and elect students who will finally prepare it to be included into the prospectus (who will type, format, and illustrate it).

The examples above show not only the organic links between project work and continuous simulation. They also show how closely project work is linked to

teaching writing in an experiential ESP course. In fact, in such a course project work is one of the leading means of developing students' writing skills. Learners do their written project tasks in the framework of the process-oriented approach (Tribble, 1996; White and Arndt, 1991; Zamel, 1982) since there are both pre-writing and post-writing discussions of what is going to be or has been written, and those discussions serve as a basis for drafting and redrafting the written texts. Besides, since written project tasks cover various and numerous themes related to professional activities, different genres (Swales, 1990) of professional writing are also covered. As a result, the skills developed are somewhat different from those ordinarily set as the goals of teaching writing for business purposes in ESP courses. They are not so much the skills of writing some standard documents as the skills of writing creatively on professional issues (primarily, writing compositions, essays, and articles that have professional activities as their content matter and that are the essence of project tasks). Developing such skills seems to be more important than teaching students to write several types of standard business letters and other standard papers. If creative writing skills are developed, developing skills of writing standard documents becomes comparatively simple.

What has been said about the combined use of project work and continuous simulation in teaching writing can be summarized, first, by remarking that, thanks to it, writing in an ESP course becomes as creative and continuous as speaking does in continuous simulation. Second, this writing may be considered the focal point of both the project work and continuous simulation. This is because everything done by the students to get ready for continuous simulation or to demonstrate its results is gathered in students' project work writings as in a focus. Thus, project work done in writing reflects all the other communicative activities in the course. Speaking has just been mentioned, but it concerns reading and listening as well. They are also done as creative activities because learners read or listen to some information for using it in their continuous simulation, i.e., for transforming it creatively in their speaking. But since everything that the students say during continuous simulation is reflected and transformed in their own writings in the process of project work, the information obtained from reading and listening in English passes through no less than two creative transformations – in learners' own speaking and in their writing.

2.4. Brainstorming, case studies, and discussions in ESP teaching and learning

In ESP all three kinds of learning activities mentioned above are so close to each other in their organization (see below) that they should better be analyzed under one heading.

2.4.1. Brainstorming

Brainstorming in the target language is a form of learning activity that is aimed at students' generating ideas in what concerns the issue or problem that they are discussing – as a rule, in small groups of three or four learners. The basic difference between brainstorming and forms of learning activities, such as case studies or discussions (see further), lies in the fact that in brainstorming the ideas being generated do not need to be proved. What is important is to create 'a bank of ideas' (even paradoxical or seemingly absurd) for further consideration and analysis. In this way, brainstorming may be regarded as an initial stage in problem-solving through the means of the target language.

In ESP courses the issues or problems to be brainstormed by students in the target language are usually taken from the coursebook or supplied by the teacher.

The most regular use of brainstorming in ESL/EFL teaching can be observed in courses of academic writing in English (MacDonald, & MacDonald, 1996; O'Donnell, & Paine, 1993; Smalley, & Ruetten, 1995; Tarnopolsky, Kozhushko, & Rudakova, 2006) that are designed on the basis of the process approach (Tribble, 1996; White and Arndt, 1991; Zamel, 1982). But, naturally, it can be used and is actually used in teaching all oral communication skills, especially in ESP.

For instance, a typical example of brainstorming for teaching professional oral communication in English may be the following task from an ESP course for students of Psychology:

Are generation (parents-children) conflicts unavoidable? How can they be avoided or successfully resolved with the least possible losses to both parties? List all possible ideas that you can generate on this issue.

This example vividly demonstrates the above mentioned distinctive feature of brainstorming as a learning activity: the generated ideas do not need to be proved. That can be clearly seen from the last sentence in the instruction for students: "*List all possible ideas that you can generate on this issue.*" Simple listing of the generated ideas is sufficient and proving those ideas is not required at all.

Another example of brainstorming can be taken from the coursebook *Psychological Matters* (Tarnopolsky, Kozhushko, et al., 2011a) – Unit 4. *Balancing Work and Family*.

What are the reasons for work-family conflicts? What groups of employees can experience such conflicts? What are the typical outcomes of work-family conflicts? What measures can reduce negative effects of such conflicts? Brainstorm these questions in groups of four or five students.

When students are doing that assignment in their ESP course, they have not been studying work-family conflicts in their classes on Psychology as yet, so they do not have any specific knowledge on the issue. That is why they really need to

brainstorm the issue and then to tell the class all the ideas that they have generated without trying to prove them.

The reason for including brainstorming into the list of experiential learning activities in an ESP course is not only the fact that brainstorming is what professionals often have to do in their work – brainstorming in the target language perfectly models the everyday professional activities of a future specialist. An even more important reason is that brainstorming, like probably no other learning activity, creates opportunities for unhindered oral target language communication. The absence of requirements to logically substantiate the ideas being voiced, the acceptability of voicing whatever ideas, however absurd, concerning the issues under discussion eliminate the psychological barriers that may hinder oral communication in the target language. That helps the acquisition of skills required for such communication and accelerates the development of those skills.

However, it should be remarked that for successful brainstorming the issues to be discussed by students in the process of doing it have to be of a rather *general character* and not specific ones. General issues, like the ones included in the two sample learning tasks above, are those that allow generating some ideas concerning them without having accurate knowledge. On the other hand, specific issues simply cannot be discussed without some accurate knowledge, while possessing such knowledge makes brainstorming itself more or less useless – in this case, discussion, with every idea that is voiced being proved, seems to be much more relevant (see further). What has just been said also gives grounds to the assertion above that brainstorming is good at the initial stage (before the students have obtained some accurate knowledge) of problem-solving done by the means of the target language in an ESP course.

2.4.2. Case studies

Case studies are a comparatively recent acquisition among the existing methods of second and foreign language teaching, though in teaching professional subjects (in Law studies, Psychological and Medical studies, Technology studies, etc.), they have been used for decades and are very popular.

In case studies the emphasis is on students themselves producing new knowledge in the process of discussing an issue or a problem, instead of getting that knowledge ready-made from a teacher or a textbook. As a result, not only knowledge is acquired but professional skills are developed as well. The method, in its classical application in psychological, legal, engineering, etc. studies, is based on modeling a particular professional situation that can take place in real life and reflects the set of profession-related knowledge and skills the students are expected to acquire.

In teaching different subjects, cases are usually defined as a method of teaching/learning using which both the teacher and a group of students take part in

discussing practical situations that can emerge in their professional activities. Students are guided by the teacher in their discussion aimed at finding a solution for every such problem. In this way, the case method unites both a specific kind of learning materials (practical situations) and a specific way of using such materials in the teaching/learning process (discussing the situations with the aim of finding practical solutions).

The definition of case studies in ESP teaching/learning is very much similar to the one above, though there are certainly some minor differences that are due to the peculiarity of the subject being taught and learned. First, cases in ESP can relate to whatever students' majors may be. It can be law studies, situations from the practical work of a psychotherapist, a businessperson, a flight dispatcher, an engineer, etc. Second, in ESP not only real situations can be used but also quasi-real or virtual situations, i.e., invented by the textbook writer or the teacher. What is important is the *plausibility* of such situations, making them *realistic* as to the possibility of encountering them in professional activities. Third, if case studies in teaching students' majoring disciplines are mostly organized on the whole-class discussion basis, i.e., when all the students in class are discussing one case together, in ESP such discussions are better organized in pairs or small groups of students. This allows the organization of a whole-class discussion after the discussions in pairs or small groups are finished. Thanks to that, the different solutions of an issue/problem under discussion suggested by different pairs/small groups can be compared and contrasted to find an optimal solution – thus expanding students' problem-solving communication in the target language.

From this point of view the definition of case studies in ESP teaching and learning may be as follows:

Cases in ESP teaching and learning are real or quasi-real (virtual, invented) situations from the areas of students' future professional activities (whatever their future profession might be). Those situations are discussed by students in the target language in their pairs or small groups with the aim of finding a solution of the issue/problem that arose as a result of the given situation or with the aim of disclosing the cause or results of that situation. When working on a case, students get from their teacher or their textbook some detailed information concerning the situation in question and it is on the basis of such information that they are expected to make conclusions and suggest their own solutions. Alternatively, students can develop cases themselves for other students in the group to solve. In general, the case method in ESP, just like the case method in teaching majoring disciplines, embraces both a specific kind of learning materials (practical situations) and a specific way of using such materials in the teaching/learning process (discussing the situations with the aim of finding practical solutions).

An example of a case study fully meeting the above definition can be taken from the coursebook *Business Projects* (Tarnopolsky, Kozhushko, et al., 2002) – Unit 2. *Company Structure*:

Case Study.

1. Read the short text below (3 min.).

Jeff Peters worked in the R&D Department of a big corporation. His duties were doing some independent work on developing parts of new products. He was very thorough and accurate in his job, but liked working alone, especially when he received some concrete assignments and instructions from the Department Manager. The results of his work were so good that when the Department Manager retired, Jeff's superiors promoted him to that post. But very soon things went wrong.

Jeff did not have good ideas about developing new products, and did not like to listen to other people's ideas. When a new idea was presented, he did not know how to organize teams to work on it, or which assignments to give to different people. His subordinates disliked him because he was distant and unfriendly. In his first year he developed only one new product and that was not a success on the market when manufactured. Talented people began to leave the Department and look for jobs in other companies. So after a year, Jeff's superiors asked him to resign.

2. Discussion:

- a) Why did Jeff fail?
- b) What qualities did he lack for being a good R&D Department Manager?
- c) Were Jeff's superiors right in promoting Jeff?
- d) What position would be best for Jeff and what job you would recommend that he looks for after leaving his present job?

The example above may be considered as a classical ESP case study in full accordance with everything that has been said above. But in ESP teaching and learning there can also be more sophisticated case studies where the initial information is not supplied by the teacher or the textbook but is invented by students themselves for their own (following) discussion. An instance of just such a case study is given below – taken from the ESP coursebook for future psychologists *Psychological Matters* (Tarnopolsky, Kozhushko, et al., 2011a) – Unit 4. *Balancing Work and Family*.

1. Write a case of 70-100 words. The situation for the case is as follows. You are a psychologist to whom a client turned with a problem of work-family conflict. Describe who the client was, what his/her job and position were, what the cause of the conflict was and what your recommendations to the client were. You may discuss the case in a way similar to all the case studies on which you were working in this Unit. But the case should be different from all the cases discussed before.

You have 15 minutes for writing your case.

2. Case studies. Divide into pairs. Each pair of students comes out and faces the class. The first student in a pair reads aloud his/her case (just written). S/he shortly describes who his/her client was, what his/her job and position were, what the cause of the work-family conflict was, but does not say what

recommendations were given by him/her to the client. Those recommendations are suggested orally by the second student in the pair. The first student has to say whether his/her recommendations were the same or different and why. After that, the students in the pair change roles: the second student states his/her case and the first one gives his/her recommendations, etc. When the work of the pair is over, the other students and the teacher comment on it and the teacher grades the students' speaking. Every pair is given not more than 5 minutes to do the task.

Higher level (as to difficulty for students) ESP case studies require greater creativity from learners and are, therefore, of a more experiential nature. Due to that creativity, such a form of learning tasks can be even more motivating than when all the information for the start of a discussion is supplied to students ready-made. But, on the other hand, the case studies of this kind cannot be introduced at the very beginning of an ESP course but should better be postponed until students reach a more advanced stage in it, not to make the level of difficulty too high for them.

Case studies are no less (if not more) important in ESP courses than brainstorming. This is because they most faithfully model what many specialists in a great number of fields have to do almost every working day in their life: consider a definite professional situation and take a certain decision as to solving the problem posed by that situation.

There are two basic differences between brainstorming and case studies as learning activities in ESP. The first difference is due to the already mentioned peculiarity of brainstorming – that of conducting it on the basis of generalized information without any specific details. On the contrary, case studies are based on specific details which specify a problem requiring a specific solution. The difference can be clearly seen if the example of brainstorming on the issue of work-family conflicts and the example of a case study on the same issue given above are juxtaposed. Such a difference lies at the bottom of another one which is even more important – if brainstorming is aimed only at generating ideas, at creating 'a bank' of such ideas for further consideration and analysis, case studies are aimed at *finding solutions*. Those solutions need to be specifically adapted to the particular details of the case and in no way generalized. All the more, the ideas generated by students in case studies cannot be illogical or absurd as in brainstorming where the point is simply generating ideas but not substantiating them. Unlike that, in case studies every generated idea has to be logically proved and well-grounded because otherwise this idea cannot lead to a logical and feasible practical solution.

What has been said demonstrates the best sequence of brainstorming and case studying activities in the ESP teaching/learning process. This is the sequence of brainstorming always *preceding* case studies and never following them, as it is shown in Fig. 2:

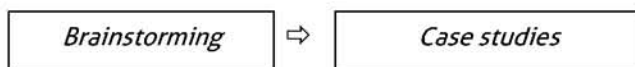


Fig. 2 The rational sequencing of brainstorming and case studies in the ESP teaching/learning process

Following the sequence demonstrated in Fig. 2, students are first given a generalized issue or problem for brainstorming and creating a bank of all possible ideas as to that issue or problem. Afterwards, they get some specific information (with some specific details) concerning a particular case in the framework of that general issue/problem – or they may invent the case with all its specific details themselves. The goal is to study the case thoroughly and, using practical, feasible, and applicable ideas from the bank of them created in brainstorming, to formulate a practical, feasible, and applicable solution of the issue/problem in question. This sequence is followed in the two examples concerning the discussion of work-family conflicts given above and, generally, in the ESP coursebooks quoted in this monograph.

2.4.3. Discussions

Discussions as a method in teaching ESL/EFL were studied by Ur (1992). But it should be said that her definition of discussions appears to be rather too broad since she includes in them question-and-answer work, role plays, and debates on various philosophical and political issues (Ur, 1992: 2-3). This very broad understanding of discussions may be considered as inconvenient at the very least since it embraces quite different types of learning activities in what concerns their organization and difficulties for students. It seems much more reasonable to limit the scope of discussion work to the last part of Ur's definition: *debates*. From this point of view, the definition of discussions in ESP teaching and learning may be formulated as follows:

Discussions in ESP may be defined as students' debates in the target language on general professional issues that allow different approaches to them. Discussions are held for comparing and contrasting various ideas that are generated through those different approaches with the aim of finding a consensus as to the optimal way or ways of solving professional problems posed by the general issue under discussion.

A good example of a discussion that meets the definition above is the task given to students in the coursebook *Psychological Matters* (Tarnopolsky, Kozhushko, et al., 2011a) – Unit 4. *Balancing Work and Family*.

In the photos you see pictures of four different families. In the first picture there is a young working couple with no children. In the second picture the husband and wife both work and have one child. In the third picture the family with both parents working has a number of children. The last picture shows a single-parent family with a working mother. In the same small groups discuss and decide which of the

four families are at the greatest risk of work-family conflicts. Why? What kinds of conflicts can there be? How can they be solved? You have ten minutes for discussion. After the group discussion, one student from each of the groups will be requested to make a short presentation of the conclusions.

Another discussion on the same issue and in the same coursebook is organized by suggesting that students *discuss the measures which can reduce the negative effects of work-family conflicts* (Tarnopolsky, Kozhushko, et al, 2011a, – Unit 4. *Balancing Work and Family*).

The definition and examples above characterize discussions in ESP as one more kind of experiential learning activities because, while discussing, students acquire their target language through the experience of communicating in it on professional matters. On the one hand, discussions are very much alike to brainstorming and case studies but, on the other hand, they are different from them.

The difference between discussions and case studies lies in the fact that discussions mostly involve more generalized issues without going into specific details of particular cases (c.f. the examples above where in the first one four families are discussed without knowing anything definite about them or in the second one the task is to discuss the most general approaches to reducing work-family conflicts). This generality makes discussions akin to brainstorming, but, as different from brainstorming, the results of discussions cannot be just a set of ideas, generated but not substantiated. Their results must be well-grounded solutions of issues or problems discussed (just like in case studies), and those solutions should also be based on the consensus of all participants in a discussion.

It may be said that, due to their inherent properties, brainstorming, case studies, and discussions make an ideal continuum in experiential ESP teaching/learning – the continuum shown in Fig. 3:

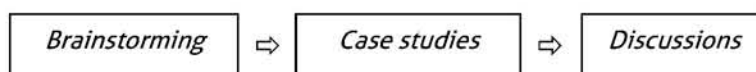


Fig. 3 The rational sequencing of brainstorming, case studies, and discussions in the ESP teaching/learning process

If the sequencing of brainstorming, case studies, and discussions shown in Fig. 3 is followed, students 1) begin by generating a list of disconnected, logically unsubstantiated, and unproved ideas in the target language but try and make that list as expanded as possible not to feel the lack of ideas in further work (brainstorming); 2) continue by testing the generated ideas on particular practical cases, in this way eliminating the ideas that definitely do not work and leaving only those of them that have proved their soundness in practical solutions (case studies); 3) find the final and generalized solution of the problem in discussions. It is just this sequencing that was demonstrated above when giving

examples of brainstorming, case study, and discussion tasks concerning work-family conflicts (*Unit 4. Balancing Work and Family* in the coursebook for future psychologists *Psychological Matters* by Tarnopolsky, Kozhushko, et al., 2011a). It should be noted that between brainstorming (when, as a rule, learners know next to nothing about the problem they are brainstorming) and discussions ESP students not only do some practical case studies where they find genuine and definite practical information about that problem. They usually read and listen to some materials in the target language as well, so that they arrive at the discussion stage armed for formulating sound and logical solutions of the problem that can be well-substantiated and proved. Just like brainstorming and case studies, discussions can be held as whole-class ones, i.e., when all the students in the class are discussing together one and the same issue. But such discussions must obligatorily be combined with discussions in pairs and small groups. It is rational to use the latter kind of discussions much more frequently in the learning process than the former ones. First, discussions in pairs and small groups create foundations for whole-class discussions held with the purpose of comparing and contrasting the ideas of different pairs and small groups for finding a single optimal solution of the issue/problem under consideration. Second, as Ur (1992) remarks, whole-class discussions almost always lead to the domination of 'speech leaders' – some of the most communication-proficient students with the best command of the target language. This can be avoided in pairs or small groups if they are adequately selected and matched.

Discussions are one of the basic elements of all the other types of experiential learning activities in ESP studies. It can be clearly seen from the examples given above that simulations, especially continuous ones, are almost all based on discussions. Role plays also often have discussions as their basis. For example, the role played conversation between an employer and a working person (mother or father) who is asking for a release time from work to attend to her/his children's needs at school (c.f. the example in 2.1.1.) is, in fact, a discussion because each of the two interlocutors is engaged in proving his or her points. The role of discussions is also very prominent in project work because every step made in the process of implementing a project is always thoroughly discussed (c.f. the examples in 2.3.). What has been said also concerns presentations that are going to be analyzed next because presentations made by individual students, pairs, and small groups of them naturally must be discussed by the entire class to agree or disagree with the speakers, evaluate their work, etc. (see further). Presentations can also be preceded by discussions as has been demonstrated above in the example of a discussion concerning four different types of working families. It may be said that *if project work, as follows, from its analysis above, is the central one among all other experiential learning activities combining all of them within its framework, discussions (with brainstorming and case studies attached to them as their preliminary stages) are the key elements in practically all of those activities.*

2.5. Presentations in the target language

Students' presentations in the target language on professional topics are becoming increasingly popular in ESP. This is due to the fact that in international professional contacts one of the most widespread forms of communication with your colleagues is giving them presentations dealing with your projects, prospects, achievements, and proposals and illustrated with graphic and verbal information demonstrated in PowerPoint. Mostly, such professional presentations are prepared in advance and then delivered, though sometimes they may be spontaneous (unprepared) if the situation requires that. Since English is the international language of professional communication (Graddol, 2006), such presentations are mostly delivered in English. That is why the issue of teaching professional presentations in English has become a topic of research in and outside ESP and a stimulus for developing relevant teaching materials (Comfort, 1995; Churchman, 1986; Jay, & Jay, 1996; King, 2002; Tarnopolsky, & Avsiukevych, 2007).

Professional presentations in English are most certainly an experiential learning activity for an ESP course because they model what the students will really need to do in English when they graduate. In general, such ESP presentations can be defined as follows.

Professional presentations in an ESP course can be defined as prepared or spontaneous monologue-type speaking activities of different duration with a definite (modeled) professional aim and in a definite (modeled) professional situation. Speaking in presentations is based on analytic research of a definite professional issue/problem; presentations have clear and logical composition and structure, internal unity, coherence, and cohesion, and are aimed at informing, motivating, or persuading listeners in what concerns their further professional activities (also modeled).

The teaching implications of the above definition of professional presentations in ESP may be formulated as caveats:

1. In teaching professional presentations in English students need to be taught to speak in monologues of different durations (mostly, from five minutes to a quarter of an hour which is more or less a standard duration of the majority of professional presentations, all the more so that some of them are delivered by more than one speaker speaking in turn after each other).
2. Students need to be taught to prepare their presentations through researching some professional issues/problems first and then through structuring in advance their future speaking clearly and logically so as to ensure unity, coherence and cohesion of that speaking. At the same time, spontaneous (not prepared in advance) students' presentations on the issues already researched by and known to them should also be periodically used in the teaching/learning process after the students have learned how to make their presentations logically structured and composed, coherent, and cohesive.

3. Students need to be taught to prepare professional presentations in English aimed at informing, motivating, or persuading their listeners (or doing all that together in one and the same presentation) because these are the goals of all professional presentations.
4. Students need to be taught to prepare professional presentations in English taking into account cultural and socio-demographic factors.

How such requirements may be met by presentation assignments for students can be demonstrated by four examples of such assignments given below:

Example 1. *What are the main symptoms of job burnout? What causes job burnout? Who is at risk of burnout? What measures can be taken to prevent or overcome job burnout? What helps to overcome job burnout? Discuss these questions in groups of four or five students (you have five minutes for discussion). After the group discussion, one student from each of the groups will be requested to make a short presentation of the conclusions made – an unprepared (spontaneous) presentation task following a discussion task (c.f. 2.4.3.) from the coursebook *Psychological Matters* (Tarnopolsky, Kozhushko, et al., 2011a, – Unit 3. Job Burnout). The aim of the presentation is to inform listeners.*

Example 2. *Working in the Internet class, do some Internet search using the web sites that your teacher recommends and some other sites that you will be able to find.*

The class is divided into pairs. Every pair searches for additional information on causes of job burnout and, what is most important, ways of treating it (ways of helping people who suffer from job burnout). It may be generalized theoretical information and descriptions of practical cases. Every pair is supposed to choose a particular site (or sites) and particular information. You are required to inform your teacher what information you are going to work on so that every pair has different information sources.

*After you have chosen, start collecting information from the Internet. Your goal is to prepare a 10-minute presentation on all possible causes of job burnout and ways of treating it for the next class. In your presentation you should speak both about the theory and practice of treating job burnouts. Find illustrative material (practical cases) on the Internet to be discussed during your presentation. Discussing in your pair the materials found during the search, decide what each partner from the pair will present – a prepared presentation task following an Internet research task from the coursebook *Psychological Matters* (Tarnopolsky, Kozhushko, et al., 2011a – Unit 3. Job Burnout). The aim of the presentation is to inform listeners.*

Example 3. *Listen to the presentations by the small groups. Each small group will make suggestions regarding the organization of your company's Financial Department, based on their project work in activities 1a, 6, and 7. These suggestions*

must include what managers should work there, and their designated functions. The purpose of this meeting is to cut expenses and to have as few managers in the Financial Department as possible. Every presentation should be made and the issue discussed and decided on with this purpose in mind. The organization of the presentations with the following question-and-answer sessions and discussion follows the pattern of similar activities in the preceding classes. The task should be completed by making final decisions on the structure of your company's Financial Department and what responsibilities the managers employed in it will have – a prepared presentation task within project work and followed by a discussion task (c.f. 2.4.3.), with the presentation structure and composition predetermined for students in the instruction from the coursebook *Business Projects* (Tarnopolsky, Kozhushko, et al., 2002 – Unit 10. *Finances*). The aim of the presentation is to motivate and persuade listeners.

Example 4. *Continuous simulation-project work.* In the next class you will simulate your company's participation in an international exhibition or fair – on the basis of your decisions made when preparing the catalogue for it. You will need to make two different presentations at the exhibition (fair). If your company is engaged both in manufacturing some goods and in some type of public service, a separate presentation will be needed to focus on each of those aspects. If your company is only involved in one of these, the two presentations should focus on different aspects of the product/service.

Now divide the class into two equal groups, each of which should discuss, prepare their presentation speech, and appoint a student to deliver it. All the graphs, charts and schemes should also be prepared for that presentation. You should also decide: who the presenter's assistants will be to join him/her in answering questions; who the stand attendants will be to demonstrate particular products and services to visitors and answer their questions, etc. Prepare carefully for a good presentation because the reputation of your company depends on it – a prepared presentation task within continuous simulation/project work and preceded by a discussion task (c.f. 2.4.3.) from the coursebook *Business Projects* (Tarnopolsky, Kozhushko, et al., 2002 – Unit 11. *Participation in Fairs and Exhibitions*). The aim of the presentation is to motivate and persuade listeners.

The given examples more or less demonstrate all links of presentations in English to other forms of experiential learning activities discussed before and all aspects of teaching such presentations to ESP students mentioned in the definition above.

It should be mentioned that teaching logical composition and structuring of presentations in English to ESP students, as well as ensuring the internal unity, coherence, and cohesion of such presentations are specific tasks requiring specific learning activities and even exercises. Special coursebooks aimed at solving just such tasks and designed as *additional materials* for ESP courses may be

recommended for this purpose – such as the already mentioned coursebook by Tarnopolsky, & Avsiukevych (2007).

One more remark is required to state that preparing and delivering presentations is not an activity for individual students only. Pair and small group presentations are also quite useful. In them the same topic is treated by several students each one presenting one aspect of the common topic in 'a presentation within a presentation'. In this way, each of the presenters speaks in turn continuing one another and adding something new to the information already rendered. This approach is the most rational at the early stages of an ESP course because it facilitates students' work due to the cooperative nature of their joint activity that always makes learning easier.

The discussion of presentations as an experiential learning activity finishes the analysis of those activities in this chapter of the monograph. But at the beginning of the chapter one more experiential learning activity was named: students' search for professional extra-linguistic information through target language sources (Internet, audio, audio-visual, and printed ones), that search being undertaken for finding some particular information required for doing profession-oriented learning assignments. As to such an activity as researching printed, audio, or audio-visual sources, it should be said that it does not require special analysis: students simply check them out of the university library, for instance, if there are enough of them there. But as a matter of fact, in libraries of very many universities in non-English-speaking countries the stock of professional sources in English is absolutely not sufficient for experiential ESP teaching and learning. So, both teachers and learners have to rely on the Internet as the primary source of supply of such materials. In just this quality, the Internet is worthy of special analysis, both as a basis for a specific experiential learning activity and as a basis for organizing blended learning. That analysis is made in *Chapter 3* of the monograph.

3. Experiential learning activities and teaching different communication and language skills in ESP

3.1. Experiential learning activities and teaching different communication skills in ESP

As it is clear from the above analysis, *all* the learning activities that have been discussed (together with students' Internet research to be discussed later) in their entirety compose experiential learning. All of them are united into a single

teaching/learning method thanks to their ensuring adequate *modeling* of professional activities in the learning process, thus providing for target language acquisition through the *experience* of profession-oriented communication in it.

However, adopting such activities as the basic ones for the suggested teaching/learning methods poses a very important question: whether they can equally ensure learners' acquisition of all the four basic communication skills – speaking, reading, listening, and writing. This question is due to the fact that role plays and simulations, brainstorming, case studies, and discussions mostly develop speaking skills. (They also develop listening skills to some extent but not adequately enough because it is only learners listening to other learners speaking in the language that is foreign to all of them.) Presentations and project work develop both speaking and writing skills (and also listening to the same extent as in the activities above) because in both cases writing always precedes or follows speaking: preparing notes of oral presentations, presenting the results of project work and what has been orally discussed in writing, etc. It is clear that in all these cases *productive communication skills* are taught while the *receptive ones* (reading and listening) may come into the focus of attention only when the students are doing Internet research.

Therefore, the important question to be discussed is how experiential learning and all the activities that characterize it influence the development of *receptive target language communication skills* and whether they can develop those skills as efficiently as they can for the development of productive ones.

The answer to this question can only be positive, at least with regard to ESP teaching and learning. It has already been stated how role plays, simulations, and project work can help in developing students' reading and listening skills. But those statements covered only three specific kinds of experiential learning activities. However, there are at least two general reasons for insisting on the beneficial influence of experiential learning in the process of developing students' receptive target language communication skills – the reasons that embrace *all* kinds of experiential learning activities and not just some of them.

The first reason is the fact that, in what concerns teaching and learning English for professional communication, none of the experiential learning activities discussed above is possible without prior reading and/or listening. For profession-oriented role playing, simulating, brainstorming, doing case studies and project work, for taking part in discussions or preparing a presentation in ESP, students must first obtain initial information for such activities – and quite a lot of such information. They can obtain that information only by way of reading or listening. So it is quite possible and absolutely necessary for teachers and authors of teaching materials to organize English-only students' reading and listening for obtaining the required information. It is also possible and necessary for them to channel students' information research efforts into either reading professional sources in English or into listening to such sources (audio and video materials,

YouTube on the Internet, etc.) – depending on whether it is preferable to develop reading or listening communication skills at any given moment of the teaching/learning process.

Such reading and listening in English are indispensable not only *before* but also *after* the experiential learning activities listed above. This is because those activities are distinguished by organic and natural transitions between them in the teaching/learning process. It is very simple, natural, and practically inevitable to organize a simulation on the basis of a case study, then to include the results of both into a project work, and finally, to organize students' presentations as an outcome of their completing their project task. But every such transition requires that students obtain some new (additional) information for doing a new activity, and that information can be obtained only through reading and listening. In this way, in the framework of the experiential learning approach to ESP students read or listen to professional sources in English not only less but maybe even more than in traditional ESP courses like those that have the ideas of Robinson (1991) at their foundation.

The second reason for the assertion that in experiential ESP learning receptive communication skills are developed as efficiently as the productive ones is the fact that in such learning reading and listening in English are done on a *higher motivational level* than in traditional ESP courses. Students read English texts and listen to audio materials in English not just because it is their learning assignment in their ESP course. They do so for professional reasons too with the purpose of obtaining professional information for doing experiential ESP learning activities that faithfully model, or imitate, professional activities. In this way, when students are reading and listening in English, professional motivation is superimposed on their ESP learning motivation, thus raising the overall positive motivation level and enhancing the skill development results in reading and listening.

Everything that has been mentioned above about teaching, reading and listening in the experiential ESP learning process also applies to teaching ESP writing. Not only project work and preparing presentations (see above), but all the other experiential learning activities too, require writing as their integral part. For instance, the best way of finalizing a brainstorming session is writing down the formulated ideas with the aim of their further discussion. It is also reasonable to suggest that students report in writing on the results of the case studies or discussions conducted by them, while role plays/simulations are logically followed by essays describing and drawing conclusions from the role played professional situation and professional issue/problem debated in that situation, etc (c.f. Weissberg, 2009, on this issue).

As an instance of the integration of different communication skills in an experiential ESP course, an example of the structure of one 80-minute class period designed following the tasks in the coursebook *Psychological Matters* (Tarnop-

olsky, Kozhushko, et al., 2011a) can be given (Unit 6. *Managing Emotions and Feelings*, pp. 158-159):

Step 1 (Speaking – Listening-Writing)

1. *Students' presentations.* Students from every pair deliver their presentations on personal experiences in the area of emotions and feelings and personal successes in managing them. Presenters should be asked additional questions by the students and the teacher when the presentations are over.

The time for every presentation is up to 5 minutes, including questions and answers; the total time for work is up to 35 minutes.

2. *Listen to the first part of Professor Smart's lecture "What to Do with Your Feelings" and take notes of it while listening. After listening, in a whole-class discussion try and list everything that Professor Smart recommends for:*

- 1) identifying how you feel;
- 2) acknowledging your feelings;
- 3) identifying the source of your feelings.

Discuss whether you agree with the recommendations or whether you can recommend some other procedures.

You have 25 minutes for doing the task.

3. *Now listen to the second part of Professor Smart's lecture "What to Do with Your Feelings" and take notes of it while listening. After listening, in a whole-class discussion try and list everything that Professor Smart recommends for managing and controlling our feelings. Discuss whether you agree with the recommendations or whether you can recommend some other procedures. You have 20 minutes for doing the task.*

4. Home assignment:

1) Do exercises 1 and 2 from Unit 6, Step 1 in the **Workbook**.

2) Read text 3 from Unit 6, Step 1 in the **Workbook** and do tasks 4 and 5 that follow it.

3) Write a 150-word summarizing essay on emotions, feelings, and ways of managing and controlling them. See 6 in Unit 6, Step 1 in the **Workbook** for more detailed instructions as to how to write your essay.

Thus, it may be seen that experiential teaching/learning creates the best opportunities for integrating different communication skills (speaking, listening, reading, and writing) for their parallel development in the teaching/learning process. This issue will be discussed again, in greater detail, in Chapter 4.

3.2. Experiential learning activities and teaching language skills in ESP

Another aspect that should be analyzed in connection with introducing experiential teaching/learning into university ESP courses has already been mentioned

very briefly in connection with the communicative nature of experiential learning. This is the impact that this approach makes on the development of students' language skills, such as their English pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar.

There are two points to be emphasized when considering this aspect. The first is the one that has already been briefly discussed before. It is the feasibility and rationality of introducing the suggested approach only after the students have reached levels B1, B1+, or even B2 (according to the *Common European Framework of Reference* – Council of Europe, 2002) in their command of General English. (It may be noted that tertiary students from Ukraine, for whom our approach had originally been developed, usually reach their B1/B1+ or sometimes B2 levels of General English by the end of the first year of their university studies. That is why it is in their second year at university that the course of ESP most often starts). Introducing the approach after levels B1/B1+ or B2 have been reached means that in an experiential ESP course there is absolutely no need to teach pronunciation; relevant skills can and should be only reinforced unconsciously while students are communicating orally in the target language. This is because all pronunciation skills are always being developed at much earlier stages of students' learning English – at A level at the latest, and it is at that level that the formation of pronunciation skills is completed.

Practically the same may be said about grammar skills that ESP students need to acquire. Most of them are acquired at the A level. But, on the other hand, here the situation is not similar to the development of pronunciation skills. Grammar skills are not completely and finally formed at the A level, their development continues at the B level and even later at the C level. Of course, in experiential ESP learning at the B level and higher, when the basic grammar skills have already been formed at the A level, their further development mostly occurs indirectly and subconsciously for students in the process of target language communication. However, some focusing of learners' attention on grammar forms and consciousness-raising as to them are also required if the already quoted ideas concerning the importance of that consciousness-raising in language acquisition are accepted (Doughty, & Williams, 1998; Ellis, 1990; Fotos, 1994; Rutherford, 1987; O. Tarnopolsky, 1999). No doubt, such consciousness-raising should not be planned for students work in class when professional activities and professional communication in the target language are being modeled. But there is a good place for it in students' out-of-class exercising if an ESP coursebook is accompanied with a *Workbook for Students* where grammar consciousness-raising exercises are collected to be done as home tasks. Just this approach was followed in the coursebook *Business Projects* (Tarnopolsky, Kozhushko, et al., 2002), and below two grammar consciousness-raising exercises from the *Workbook* to that coursebook are given as examples (example 1: *Unit 6*, grammar being trained: *comparative degree of adjectives – the ... the structures*; example 2: *Unit 10*, grammar being trained: *link words*):

Example 1. Combine the following phrases. The first example has been done for you.

a) profitable production	-----	competitive firm
the more profitable the production is, the more competitive the firm is		
b) attractive products	-----	good on the market

c) high quality	-----	reliable products

d) high price	-----	small market share

e) low price	-----	great turnover

f) low price	-----	low profitability

Example 2. Join sentences in the text using the link words below:

On the other hand but However On the contrary
First Next which while

When we speak about capital, we usually mean financial capital, there may be other kinds of capital. Financial capital includes liquid assets of a company., it does not include buildings, machinery, and other physical assets. Liquid assets may be of two kinds., they include stock capital, is collected from company's stocks., it is the debenture capital from loans. Stock capital is obtained from different types of shares: preference, ordinary, and deferred. Those who have preference shares will always get a fixed dividend., with ordinary shares your dividend will vary with the profits of the company., with ordinary shares you have the right to vote on decisions at the annual stockholders' meeting, a holder of preference stocks cannot vote.

If the situation with developing students' target language pronunciation and grammar skills in ESP experiential teaching/learning is relatively simple – such skills are mostly just reinforced and that reinforcement does not require a lot of efforts and numerous special learning activities, – the situation with developing and expanding learners' target language vocabulary (vocabulary skills) is very much different. It is just this difference that makes the second point mentioned above in what concerns the development of students' language skills in an experiential ESP course. In such a course, learners' *professional* target language vocabulary (terminology, etc.) is being formed practically from the ground level, and the development of that vocabulary is one of the course's principal tasks. Certainly, just like with pronunciation and grammar, the vocabulary skills development and reinforcement in an experiential ESP course mostly happens when students are communicating on professional issues in modeled

profession-oriented activities. But in this case, just because of the particular importance of teaching vocabulary in ESP, the share of specific activities (exercises) deliberately aimed at ensuring students' acquisition of vocabulary has to be much greater than in what concerns even teaching grammar (see above).

No doubt that in an experiential ESP course, just as it is the case with grammar exercises, there is no place for vocabulary exercises in classroom activities. But in out-of-class learners' work (home tasks) their position should be stable and quite prominent, so that *Workbooks for Students* attached to ESP coursebooks designed on the basis of the experiential learning approach should have quite a great number of them and various kinds of such exercises. The formulated requirement has been fully met in the two coursebooks used for giving practical examples in this monograph. Below, three examples of relevant vocabulary exercises are given from the coursebook *Psychological Matters* by Tarnopolsky, Kozhushko, et al. (2001). The examples have been taken from Units 2, 4, and 6 of the *Workbook* to that coursebook.

Example 1. Write out in alphabetical order all the underlined words in the text "Psychology Today and Tomorrow" that you were reading in class. Group the words that you have written out into two columns: the words that are mostly used in General English; the words that can be used as psychological terms. The first two words have been written out for you:

Words that are mostly used in General English	Words that can be used as psychological terms
millennium	insight

Example 2. Give the meanings (in English) of the following words and word combinations from the text "Balancing Work and Family" that you were reading in class. You will need to formulate your own definitions on the basis of the meanings of components of a given word or word combination.

- 1) creative solutions;
- 2) integrated whole;
- 3) setting limits;
- 4) well-balanced;
- 5) multitasking;
- 6) household chores;
- 7) spill over;
- 8) setting priorities.

Example 3. *Make up sentences and use in them all the words from the list compiled by you. You may use more than one of those words in one sentence if the meaning of the sentence does not become unclear or illogical because of it.*

In general, on the basis of everything said above, it may be said that language skills are never in the primary focus of attention in an experiential ESP course. They are always in the background and acquired mostly subconsciously in the process of experiential learning activities that model or imitate professional activities and communication. But at the same time, they are never neglected and their development is reinforced with special out-of-class exercises whenever the use of such exercises seems reasonable.

This remark finishes the analysis of experiential learning activities in an ESP course. The last thing that remains to be analyzed in this chapter is interactive learning and its relation to experiential learning

4. Interactive learning and its relation to experiential learning

Since the 1980s, after works by Long (1981; 1983), Long, & Sato (1983), Pica (1987), Rivers (1987), Yule, & Gregory (1989) appeared, interactive language teaching and learning have become something absolutely indispensable for teaching ESL/EFL. According to the above mentioned authors, interactive language learning ensures acquiring communication skills through the process of communicative interaction in the target language between learners and their teachers, among learners themselves, as well as between learners and native speakers with the aim of negotiating meanings so as to make communication mutually comprehensible and attaining its communicative goals.

In accordance with this definition, interactive language learning and cooperative language learning that has already been shortly discussed in the preceding pages are notions that are closely related to each other. But it should be noted that if in ESP every kind of cooperative learning is interactive (students interact with other people in their target language communication), not all interactive learning is cooperative. Cooperative learning is a narrower notion and an integral part/element in interactive learning – but only a part of it. The reason is the impossibility of designing an effective ESP course in which students are not required to leave their learning environment regularly enough and interact with the outside professional environment to collect some professional information for doing some profession-oriented learning tasks. For instance, as it is clear from what has already been said, when doing their project work, students may be requested to collect information for it on professional Internet sites in English. This is the interaction with the outside professional target language

environment though not necessarily cooperative learning because students can work individually without other students.

On the basis of everything that has been said, interactive language learning in ESP courses may be schematically shown as it is done in Fig. 4, which is, in fact, a model of interactive ESP teaching/learning.

This model is helpful for formulating the definition of interactive ESP teaching/learning in the conditions being analyzed in this monograph:

Interactive ESP teaching/learning at tertiary schools is such a kind of teaching/learning in which all participants actively interact in the target language

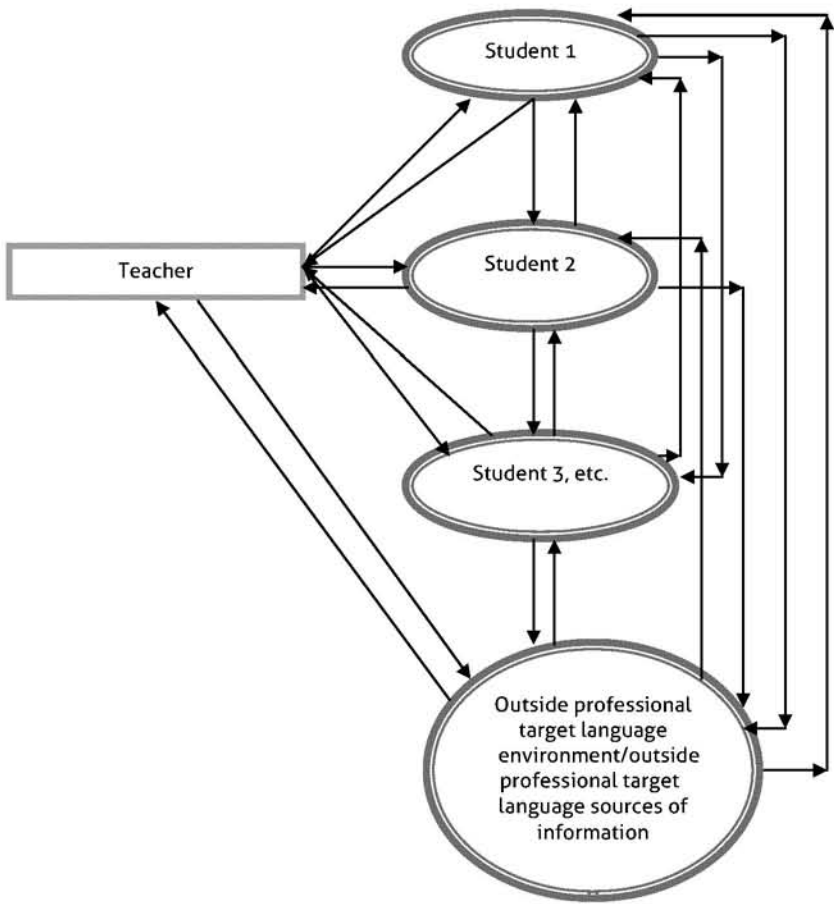


Fig. 4 The model of interactive ESP teaching/learning at tertiary schools

both among themselves and with the outside professional target language environment/outside professional target language sources of information. This ensures learners' mutual influence on one another in their learning efforts (cooperative learning) and the influence on them of outside professional target language environment/outside professional target language sources of information through their individual or cooperative learning activities in that environment. As a result, the learning process becomes totally socially regulated and socially oriented.

The conclusion which can be made on the basis of the given definition is that interactive ESP learning cannot be limited to students' interaction in the target language inside the classroom and with their teaching materials only. Outside interaction with the target language professional materials that were not originally meant for language learning purposes is absolutely unavoidable because, otherwise, orientation towards future professions will be flimsy and will hardly seem real and genuine to ESP students, which can only bring subsequent negative results for learning the language for further professional use.

The second conclusion that can be made is probably even more important in the context of this monograph. It is the conclusion that *experiential ESP learning can only be interactive, and experiential ESP learning which is not interactive is impossible both theoretically and practically*. There are several reasons for that:

It has already been shown when discussing experiential learning activities that most of them cannot avoid being cooperative by their very nature (role plays/simulations, project work, brainstorming, case studies, discussions). That certainly makes them interactive since cooperative learning is a part of interactive learning. Even presentations and information search (including the search on the Internet) can be made cooperative, for instance, when one and the same presentation is being prepared by two or more students with each of them planned to speak on a different aspect of one and the same topic. The same concerns information search when several students cooperatively search for some definite professional information. Certainly, this does not mean that experiential learning activities cannot be individual but have to be only cooperative. On the contrary, the analysis of such activities presented above shows that none of them can do without students' individual work and efforts. But in most of them those individual efforts result in a cooperative activity as the crowning point (as in project work).

Another argument seems to be even weightier. If interactive ESP learning cannot do without students' interaction with the outside professional target language environment/outside professional target language sources of information, experiential learning can do without such interaction even much less. This is so because without it there can be no faithful modeling of professional activities which is the most important foundation of experiential learning.

Therefore, experiential learning cannot do without interactive learning in an ESP course. This is the reason why this monograph speaks not about experiential and interactive learning as separate entities but about experiential interactive learning as an indivisible whole. Such experiential interactive learning can be defined as follows:

The experiential interactive learning in the conditions of teaching ESP to tertiary school students is a form of learning implemented through a set of specific learning activities. They ensure the acquisition of the target language and communicative skills in it as by-products of extra-linguistic activities modeling professional activities of a future specialist. In this way, students themselves “construct” their target language communication skills through the experience of direct participation in such communication. This makes experiential learning a fundamental feature of the constructivist approach. Experiential learning by its very nature requires students’ cooperative interaction that dominates over individual learning activities but does not exclude them. It also presupposes students’ interaction with the professional environment outside the classroom for using authentic target-language sources of professional information.

This definition in fact summarizes the most fundamental features of the *teaching/learning methods* in the constructivist approach (without the blended learning component in that approach) but does not say anything about selecting the learning content in ESP constructivism. The issue of teaching/learning content will be examined in the next chapter.

5. Conclusion to Chapter 1

In this chapter the notion of experiential interactive learning as the basic notion of the constructivist approach to ESP has been explored. Experiential interactive learning is considered as underlying the constructivist approach (the theory) – being the implementation of the approach in what concerns the methodology of teaching/learning.

Experiential and interactive learning are first explored and defined separately in the chapter, and, at the end of it, the cover definition of experiential interactive learning has been formulated as the definition of the basic method of teaching/learning within the framework of the constructivist approach.

The fundamental learning activities most characteristic of experiential teaching/learning have been analyzed with practical examples as to using those activities in the teaching/learning process. The ways of developing students’ communication skills (speaking, reading, listening, and writing) through experiential interactive teaching/learning have been discussed, as well as the opportunities that such teaching/learning creates for teaching language skills: pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary.

Chapter 2.

Content-based instruction as the constituent part of the constructivist approach that determines the selection of the content of teaching/learning English for Specific Purposes at tertiary schools

Content-based instruction is the second (out of three) fundamental notion underlying the constructivist approach advocated in this monograph. But if the first fundamental notion (experiential interactive teaching/learning) mostly concerns the methods involved in such teaching/learning, content-based instruction refers to the content of that teaching/learning, to the selection of that content, and to the phases in ESP teaching connected with transitions from the simpler to more sophisticated forms of instruction where the content matter of professional disciplines/activities, and not the language, is in the focus of attention. All these issues require a detailed analysis.

1. Content-based instruction: its definition and relation to experiential learning

One of the first and most thorough analyses of content-based instruction was made in the work by Brinton, Snow, & Wesche as far back as 1989. Summing up everything that was said about it in their book, the following definition of content-based instruction (specifically adapted to ESP by us) can be suggested:

Content-based instruction is the integration of content from the subjects of students' majors with the goals of target language teaching. It ensures parallel acquisition of knowledge from certain non-linguistic disciplines together with acquisition of the target language and the skills of communicating in it. In such instruction, the ESP curriculum is most closely linked or even based on the curricula of one or several of students' majoring disciplines so that learning the target language content follows the requirements of learning some professional content from the majoring disciplines through the medium of the target language. The development of students' target language communication skills proceeds mostly

subconsciously through their learning in the target language the content matter from the majoring subjects. In this way, content-based instruction eliminates the gap between language learning and learning professional subjects ensuring students' learning the latter through the medium of the former.

From this definition, it becomes clear how closely linked to experiential learning (or rather to the experiential interactive learning discussed in *Chapter 1*) content-based instruction is. In both cases, target language learning/acquisition proceeds mostly subconsciously – in the first case (experiential learning), through modeling professional activities in the process of which professional communication in the target language is going on; in the second case (content-based instruction), through modeling professional content matter of non-linguistic academic disciplines in the language classroom. It may be said that *experiential learning and content-based instruction complement each other – just as learning methods and learning content are mutually complementary.*

Despite this closeness, experiential learning and content-based instruction can exist and be implemented separately. If experiential learning is organized at a secondary school, it need not necessarily be content-based. For instance, the content of students' role play, presentations, and even project work can be taken from everyday life, i.e., there can be no connection with any specific academic subject or profession. On the other hand, when Brinton, Snow, & Wesche (1989) were writing about content-based instruction procedure, they did not mention experiential learning in any way. So, the former is, in principle, possible without the latter.

However, such 'separate existence' of experiential learning and content-based instruction ceases when ESP is being taught at tertiary schools, at any rate, if that teaching is based on experiential teaching/learning procedures. *In tertiary school ESP courses, experiential learning is totally impossible without content-based instruction.* This is because otherwise (when teaching English is not based on the professional content, i.e., on the content of students' professional majoring disciplines) the very sense and essence of teaching English for specific/professional purposes will be irretrievably lost. From this point of view, the relations between experiential teaching/learning and content-based instruction in tertiary school ESP courses can be represented as they are shown in Fig. 5: two intersecting ovals in which the joint part is *experiential interactive content-based ESP instruction at tertiary schools.*

From what is shown in Fig. 5, it is clear that experiential interactive content-based ESP instruction at tertiary schools is supposed to meet all the requirements both of experiential learning (c.f. *Chapter 1*) and content-based instruction. In fact, those requirements are quite similar if not totally identical, so there is no problem in trying to meet them when they are brought into play together. For instance, Brinton, Snow, & Wesche (1989) emphasize that in content-based instruction only those learning activities are acceptable that are specific for the

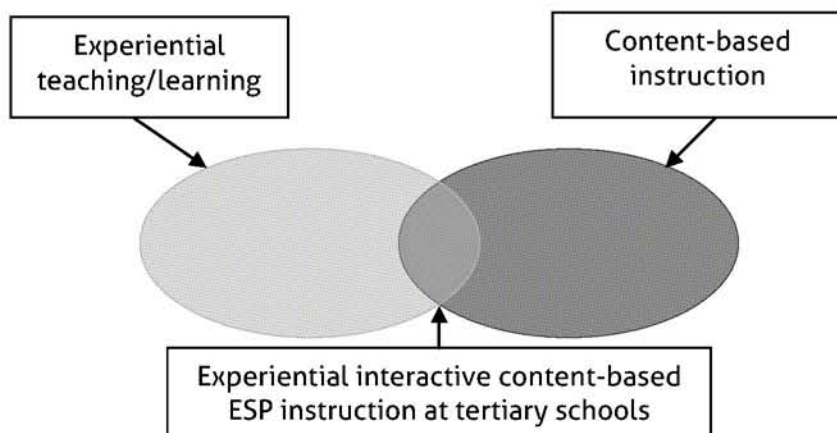


Fig. 5 The relations between experiential teaching/learning and content-based instruction in tertiary school ESP courses

professional content taught through the medium of the target language. But it is the same for experiential learning in which only those learning activities are used in the classroom that model or imitate professional activities, while the activities that are language forms-focused may be allowed only out of class (c.f. *Chapter 1*). This again emphasizes the closeness, even kinship, of experiential learning and content-based instruction and the rationality of using them together in the framework of one and the same approach to ESP teaching at tertiary schools.

It is only in the indivisible unity of experiential interactive teaching/learning and content-based instruction (experiential interactive content-based ESP instruction) that the constructivist approach can be practically implemented in tertiary school ESP courses. But this aspect deserves a separate analysis.

2. Experiential interactive content-based ESP instruction as practical implementation of the constructivist approach

To explain why it is experiential interactive teaching/learning and content-based instruction that only in their unity can ensure the practical implementation of the constructivist approach to designing tertiary school ESP courses, it is necessary to discuss the fundamental characteristics of every constructivist learning environment (including the ESP learning environment). Such characteristics

were most fully described by Jonassen (1995). The list of constructivist learning environment's characteristics suggested by that author (with our comments concerning ESP) is given below. According to the list in question, the ESP constructivist learning environment must be:

1. **Active** – Learners are engaged in mindful processing of the information and are responsible for the result of such processing. To achieve that in ESP courses, the information has to be meaningful and significant for learners, i.e., professional, and this is ensured by the content-based instruction, while experiential interactive learning ensures mindful processing of the information supplied to learners. Thus, the unity of experiential interactive learning and content-based instruction provides for the implementation of the first characteristics of the constructivist approach.
2. **Constructive** – Learners incorporate new ideas into prior knowledge to solve particular issues or problems. In ESP it means the requirement to make learners face professional problems or issues that only content-based instruction can provide, while only experiential interactive learning can develop fully adequate procedures for solving such problems/issues on the basis of prior knowledge and through the target language medium (again the unity mentioned above).
3. **Collaborative** – Learners mostly work not individually but in communities that have learning and knowledge building as their goals. In such communities the knowledge and skills of every member are exploited by all the other members of the community, and that community observes and evaluates the contribution of each of the members providing all of them with social support. This feature of the constructivist approach is implemented in ESP through experiential interactive learning, or rather through its interactive component, while the content-based instruction (in unity with experiential interactive learning) provides learners with the professional materials on the foundation of which the learning community builds new knowledge and skills.
4. **Intentional** – Learners have a common intention of achieving the learning goals. In ESP, experiential learning ensures the emergence of students' process motivation (c.f. *Chapter 1*) for generating such an intention, while content-based instruction in unity with experiential learning reinforces that intention by channeling it towards achieving professional goals through target language learning.
5. **Conversational** – Learning is a social, dialogical process by its very nature, so it is from dialogical/conversational learning in knowledge-and-skill-building learning communities that learners benefit most. In ESP, the conversational types of learning activities, which characterize experiential learning (role plays/simulations, discussions, presentations, etc. – c.f.

Chapter 1), provide for the practical implementation of this feature. Those activities achieve the required conversational effect not alone but in unity with content-based instruction providing for the professional content of students' dialogical target language communication.

6. **Contextualized** – Learning tasks are designed as meaningful real-world or simulated/modeled real-world tasks and are problem-based. This feature of the constructivist approach is at the same time the most prominent feature of experiential learning while (in unity with it) content-based instruction provides for the professional nature of such learning tasks making them appropriate for an ESP course.
7. **Reflexive** – Learners articulate what has been learned by them and reflect on their decisions and the processes through which they have arrived at those decisions. Every experiential learning activity discussed in *Chapter 1* is built on just such articulation and reflection, while content-based instruction ensures the appropriateness of experiential learning activities for an ESP course by filling those activities with professional content.

As it can be seen from the comments above, experiential interactive learning and content-based instruction genuinely and practically make an ESP course a constructivist one – but only in their unity, i.e., if they are used together in total harmony, while using only one of them cannot ensure the same effect. An identical conclusion can be arrived at if the seven constructivist principles in language learning put forward by another author – Ioannou-Georgiou (2002) – are quoted. According to her, constructivist learning is supposed to:

- "be an active process
- occur in authentic, interesting, and meaningful contexts
- take place in whole activities, such as projects, and not isolated skills exercises
- be context-dependent (e.g., activities should be linked around a situation or topic in which students are interested)
- be related to out-of-school experiences
- involve collaboration
- involve social negotiation of knowledge" (Ioannou-Georgiou, 2002: 21).

Three of Ioannou-Georgiou's principles of constructivist language learning – being an active process, occurring in authentic, interesting, and meaningful contexts, and involving collaboration – fully coincide, even in name, with three out of seven Jonassen's characteristics of the constructivist learning environment: to be active, collaborative, and contextualized. So, there is no need to prove additionally that the unity of experiential interactive learning and content-based instruction meets the requirements of those three principles in a constructivist ESP course since that has already been proved. The principle of involving social negotiation of knowledge, though

different in name, means absolutely the same as one of the characteristics of the constructivist learning environment that Jonassen (1995) called the *conversational* feature of that environment. So, in this case, additional proof is not needed either. But the fact that the unity in question also meets the requirements of the remaining three principles is also easy to prove following a similar line of argumentation as above.

Thus, for instance, the principle of context-dependency (linking activities around a situation or topic in which students are interested) is met by content-based instruction because just that kind of instruction is responsible for selecting professional topics and situations interesting for students and important for their professional development. But it is experiential/interactive teaching/learning that is responsible for profession-oriented work with the topics and situations selected so that their use inside and outside the language classroom would become beneficial both for students' progress in target language acquisition and for their professional growth (ESP).

The constructivist principle of learning in whole activities, such as projects, and not isolated skills exercises, is also a fundamental one for experiential interactive learning that, as follows from everything said in *Chapter 1*, is completely based on the whole language approach (Barclay, & Boone, 1993; Blake, 1990; Goodman, Goodman, & Hood, 1989; Manning, & Manning, 1989; Stice, Bertrand, & Bertrand, 1995; Wolsch, & Cothran Wolsch, 1982). The experiential learning activities, such as project work, continuous simulations, case studies, discussions, and all the others require the involvement of all the four communication skills: speaking, reading, listening, and writing (c.f. *Chapter 1*), i.e., are designed following the whole language approach, and not isolated skill exercise approach. But what content matter is processed in those activities depends on the selection process regulated by content-based instruction. That is why, again, only the unity of experiential interactive learning and content-based instruction allows meeting the requirement of the principle in question in the conditions of ESP teaching and learning.

Finally, the principle of relation to out-of-school learners' experience is met by the interactive component of the experiential interactive learning, namely, the interaction with outside professional target language environment/outside professional target language sources of information, while it is the responsibility of content-based instruction to determine what kind of professional environment/professional target language sources of information are required in each particular case. This is just another example of the necessity of using experiential interactive learning and content-based instruction in their unity to meet the principles of the constructivist approach.

Whatever other, out of very few, publications devoted either to the constructivist approach to language teaching/learning (Norman, 1998; Opp-

Beckman, 2002; Sotillo, 2002) or to the constructivist approach in general (Jonassen, 1991a, 1991b) are taken for analysis, the result will be same: everything the authors of those publications believe to be important for constructivist teaching/learning is ensured in ESP courses by the unity of experiential interactive learning and content-based instruction – but only by their unity and not by each of them separately. In this tandem both components have an equal responsibility and equal significance for implementing the constructivist approach to ESP courses – just as it is shown in Fig. 6.

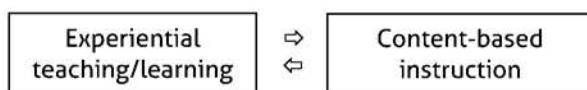


Fig. 6 The relations between experiential teaching/learning and content-based instruction as two equally significant constituent parts when implementing the constructivist approach to an ESP course

Therefore, everything said above shows that in ESP teaching/learning at tertiary schools the practical implementation of the constructivist approach becomes possible on the basis of introducing experiential interactive teaching/learning and content-based instruction – the first being responsible for the learning activities that are used, while the second is responsible for the selection of materials for the teaching/learning process. As it will be shown in *Chapter 3*, the third component of the approach suggested in this monograph, *blended learning*, is not as important as the first two, being subordinate to them and serving for the optimization of their practical implementation. But, in principle, a constructivist ESP course at tertiary schools can be designed even without blended learning, only on the basis of experiential teaching/learning and content-based instruction.

Having determined the relations between the experiential teaching/learning and the content-based instruction in a constructivist ESP course, it is most important to analyze how the latter – the content-based instruction – allows for the selection of the learning content for such a course. This should be done in the same way as in *Chapter 1*, where it was shown how experiential teaching/learning determined the practical learning activities to be used for ESP. But, before starting such an analysis, which is required for discussing the principle subject matter in this chapter, some other aspects concerning content-based instruction need to be considered. Since content-based instruction exists in different versions known under different names and has some other approaches closely related to it, it is first necessary to analyze those modifications and decide which of them is most suitable for an experiential interactive ESP course suggested in this monograph.

3. Versions of content-based instruction and approaches closely related to it

Content-based instruction has become widespread and enjoys great popularity in teaching English in the countries of Europe and North America. Evidence of this can be seen in the fact that entire collections of works have been published summarizing teachers' experiences in using content-based instruction in their pedagogical practice (c.f., for instance, Brinton, & Master, 1997).

It should be noted that in recent years content-based instruction has been known in Europe under the name of CLIL (*Content and Language Integrated Learning*) and there it has certain peculiarities that make it a version of one and the same approach. This version should be considered first.

3.1. Content-based instruction and CLIL as its broader version

The only difference between content-based instruction and CLIL is that CLIL is interpreted as a wider notion. (From this point of view, it is content-based instruction that should be considered a version of CLIL and not vice versa, though the former was developed earlier than the latter.) According to Marsh (2002: 15), every kind of language learning in which a target language is also used for teaching students non-linguistic content can be called CLIL, so that CLIL is an umbrella term for all such dual-focused educational contexts (Coyle, 2007: 97). It is this broad interpretation that determines the above-mentioned peculiarities of CLIL as compared with content-based instruction.

CLIL includes a much broader complex of various approaches than content-based instruction does because it is not specifically oriented at ESP and adult education, as the latter one is; it is no less, if not more, oriented at secondary school and the language education of adolescents (Eurydice Report, 2006). This, no doubt, requires specific methodological solutions and specific, as compared to content-based instruction, modifications of the approach. Those modifications do not interest us because they mostly do not concern tertiary education. What does interest us is the general advantages of CLIL which embrace content-based instruction as well – as a narrower (oriented only at ESP and adult education) version of CLIL. Those advantages were formulated by Coyle (2007: 104-105) who has shown that CLIL (and correspondingly, content-based instruction) can:

- "Raise learner linguistic competence and confidence;
- Raise teacher and learner expectations;
- Develop risk-taking and problem-solving skills in the learners;
- Increase vocabulary learning skills and grammatical awareness;

- Motivate and encourage student independence;
- Take students beyond 'reductive' foreign language topics;
- Improve L1 literacy;
- Encourage linguistic spontaneity (talk) if students are enabled to learn through the language rather than in the language;
- Develop study skills, concentration – learning how to learn through the foreign language is fundamental to CLIL;
- Generate positive attitudes and address gender issues in motivation;
- Embed cultural awareness and intercultural issues into the curriculum."

All these advantages of CLIL (and the advantages of content-based instruction as its narrower version) have led to the emergence of some ideas that have recently appeared in professional literature. Those ideas assert the inadequacy of ESP teaching in a more traditional manner when it is the language itself, or rather the professional sub-language, that is in the focus of teachers and students' attention (like in the approach developed by Robinson, 1991). For instance, Bicknell (2009) posed the question why we should teach Business English traditionally if CLIL can do it much more efficiently. Of course, not all authors agree with such ideas (c.f., for example, McBeath's (2009) objections to the article by Bicknell), but, in the conditions of CLIL (and content-based instruction) successes, their appearance seems inevitable.

It should be remarked that in the above controversy both sides are probably right – depending on the goals and conditions of ESP teaching and learning. For instance, if Business English, as one type of ESP, is being learned by practical businesspeople or economists who already know their field very well, no content-based instruction or CLIL is necessary since the students know the subject matter fully and do not need 'professional prompts' from their language course. Professional language is their only goal, so traditional ESP teaching of that professional language is quite adequate and sufficient. On the contrary, when ESP is taught to students who are not specialists in their profession yet, content-based instruction (or CLIL) is the best choice because it is just in this situation that all its advantages are most vividly manifested. Moreover, it seems quite probable that in future tertiary ESP courses content-based instruction (CLIL) may totally oust traditional language-focused teaching and learning.

Everything said above about the relations between content-based instruction and CLIL allows the following conclusions to be drawn:

1. Content-based instruction and CLIL are, in principle, if not identical, at least, very much similar. But CLIL is a broader notion. It includes different modifications, or versions, designed for different types of educational establishments, such as secondary schools, tertiary schools, etc., while content-based instruction is mostly aimed at teaching languages for professional use to adults, particularly at tertiary educational institutions. This is why, since this monograph deals with ESP at tertiary schools only,

it is reasonable to call the component of the constructivist approach under consideration *content-based instruction* (but not CLIL) understanding it as it was interpreted at the beginning of this Chapter (c.f. 1). Therefore, the term *CLIL* will not further be used in the following pages for describing our approach.

2. Content-based instruction (like CLIL) has a number of advantages over language-focused ESP teaching/learning – those advantages that can considerably improve the results of teaching the target language for professional communication at tertiary schools.
3. Those advantages may cause gradual ousting of more traditional language-focused ESP teaching/learning procedures from tertiary schools and their total replacement with content-based instruction procedures.

The conclusions above reflect only the relations between content-based instruction and one of its broader versions – CLIL. But they say nothing about its relation to *target language immersion* that cannot be actually considered as a version of content-based instruction but, still, is quite closely related to it – especially in ESP situations.

3.2. Content-based instruction and target language immersion as an approach closely related to it

Teaching foreign languages through immersion has become a widely used practice both in North America and Europe after the success of the so called 'Canadian French immersion' (Calvé, 1991; Rehorick, & Edwards, 1994). Every program of target language immersion is based on teaching some academic disciplines from the school or university curriculum in the language that the students are learning (Clark, 2000). More specifically, immersion programs for tertiary schools are defined as foreign language learning integrated with teaching other academic/professional subjects with the aim of providing students with the best means of acquiring their target language for professional communication (Walker, & Tedick, 2000).

Some authors (Stoller, 2007) consider immersion as the supreme form of content-based instruction and there are, certainly, reasons to believe that this assertion is true because in both cases the focus of students and teacher's attention is on the content of an academic/professional discipline, while the target language (though also in some degree focused on in content-based instruction) mostly serves as a means of acquiring the knowledge and skills relevant to that discipline. However, we think that, though content-based instruction and immersion are very closely related, they are much too different to be considered as lower and higher levels of one and the same approach, and their relations are more of the kind shown in Fig. 7.

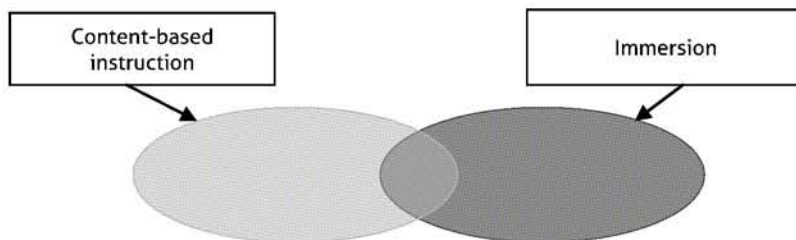


Fig. 7 The relations between content-based instruction and immersion

The difference between content-based instruction and immersion that, despite their closeness to each other, does not allow considering them as two levels of one and the same approach lies in the fact that, while content-based instruction belongs to a language course since it is done within classes in the target language, immersion belongs to a course of some non-linguistic discipline because it is in classes on that discipline, and not in language classes, that immersion is organized. This is why if in content-based instruction the teacher and students' attention can be focused both on content matter and on language in a more or less balanced manner (see 3.2. in *Chapter 1*), in immersion only the content matters while the target language is taken for granted. Thus, immersion is, in fact, outside the specific domain of second/foreign language purposeful teaching because language learning in it is totally based on involuntary acquisition and retention.

Therefore, what is discussed in this monograph (teaching ESP in classes of English at tertiary schools) is most certainly in the domain of content-based instruction, and not in the domain of immersion. But there is one aspect in the relations between content-based instruction and immersion that requires special consideration. This aspect is the issue of content-based instruction's (in ESP classes) contribution to later introduction of English immersion in classes on academic/professional or majoring disciplines.

Immersion can be divided into several kinds (Tarnopolsky, Kozhushko, Zheva-ga, 2010; Tarnopolsky, Momot, et al., 2008). The highest and the most complete kind of immersion is what is called *total immersion* (Johnson, & Swain, 1997). Total English immersion is based on teaching classes on whatever academic/professional subject not in students' L1 but in English. There is no 'adaptation' of the level of the English language in which the subject is taught to the level of students' command of English, which means that this latter level is expected to be high enough (at least, B2, if not C1 according to the *Common European Framework of Reference* – Council of Europe, 2001). More than that, such a high level of command of English should embrace not only (and not so much) General English but English for professional communication as well.

Our research (Tarnopolsky, Momot, et al., 2008) has shown that if an ESP course at a tertiary school is designed in a traditional language-focused manner and is taught during two years (the first and the second years of university studies), as it is customary for Ukrainian higher schools where the research was done, it is impossible to introduce total English immersion in courses of other academic/professional disciplines immediately after such an ESP course. Students' preparation and training in the English language will be absolutely insufficient for that.

However, this does not mean that in such a case introducing English immersion into tertiary school courses of academic/professional disciplines becomes totally impossible. But that introduction requires some specific measures directed at preparing students both linguistically and psychologically for 'total English immersion professional training'.

That issue was researched in the doctoral dissertation of our PhD student (Z. Kornieva, 2004). She demonstrated that in the case under discussion total English immersion becomes possible in courses of academic/professional disciplines in the last year of students' university studies (the fifth year at Ukrainian universities) if, *before* introducing such total immersion and *after* the learners finish their traditional ESP course (after the second year of university studies at Ukrainian universities), students have not less than one year of *sheltered immersion courses* and not less than one year of *partial immersion courses* (the third and fourth years of university studies for the conditions of Ukrainian universities).

Sheltered/structural immersion (Cummins, 2000; 2001; Freeman, 2000; Kerper, 2004) is the lowest level and the simplest form of immersion. It is based on permanent but limited use of students' L1 in the English immersion classroom. For instance, lectures in the academic course can be delivered in students' L1 (with the lecturer obligatorily summarizing and briefly reviewing everything that was said by him/her in English at the end of every lecture). On the contrary, practical classes and seminars are held mostly in English, though occasional recourse to students' native language is not impossible. Papers written by students and all kinds of tests in the course are also held in English.

Partial immersion (Holobow, Genesee, Lambert, et al., 1983) is a higher level in immersion teaching and learning because it presupposes only temporary inclusion of students' L1 in an English immersion course of an academic discipline. For instance, lectures can be delivered in students' L1 at the beginning of the course, but gradually the lecturer passes on to lectures in English only.

On the one hand, Z. Kornieva's (2004) research has shown that even after a traditional language-focused ESP course, total English immersion in teaching academic/professional subjects at tertiary schools is quite possible if students approach that total immersion gradually, first through courses of sheltered immersion and then, through courses of partial immersion. But on the other hand, this research has also demonstrated that total immersion can be arrived at quite

late (not earlier than the last year of students' university studies) and continue for quite a short period of time (not longer than one academic year) because the preceding immersion courses (sheltered immersion and partial immersion) take long enough – not less than an entire academic year for each of them.

It is due to that last shortcoming of the approach developed by Kornieva (2004) that a different approach to introducing total English immersion into university academic/professional or majoring courses has been developed by Tarnopolsky and his co-authors (c.f. Tarnopolsky, & Kozhushko, 2005; Tarnopolsky, Kozhushko, Zhevaga, 2010; Tarnopolsky, Momot, et al., 2008).

The main idea of the approach developed by us for students of Economics and Business at Ukrainian universities was deliberate and purposeful learners' preparation for English immersion to be implemented later in their courses on academic/professional subjects. That preparation started in the second year of students' university studies in their ESP classes organized as experiential interactive content-based instruction on the basis of the coursebook *Business Projects* (Tarnopolsky, Kozhushko, et al., 2002). Such instruction was considered as direct learners' adjustment to the following immersion courses (*preparatory immersion* – c.f. Tarnopolsky, Momot, et al., 2008). Being not actually an immersion but content-based instruction because it was in classes of English and not in classes on academic/professional subjects, it was still closely related to future immersion since English for professional communication was being taught and learned mostly subconsciously through modeling students' future professional activities and professional communication in the target language when participating in such activities (c.f. *Chapter 1*). This allowed for both linguistic and psychological adjustment of students to their future English immersion studies (Tarnopolsky, & Kozhushko, 2003; Tarnopolsky, Momot, et al., 2008).

The experiential content-based instruction in classes of English during students' second year of university studies served as a foundation for the introduction of what was called *preliminary immersion* in their third year (Tarnopolsky, & Kozhushko, 2005; Tarnopolsky, Momot, et al., 2008). That was already a course of genuine immersion but slightly modified and facilitated in comparison with total English immersion. The course was designed as an intermediary form between an ESP course and a course on some academic/professional subject taught in English. It was organized as a series of *mini-courses* (18-20 academic class hours for every separate mini-course) on different disciplines in the field of Economics: Management, Marketing, Finances, Microeconomics, and some others. The mini-courses, each of which was designed as a kind of simplified synopsis of a full academic course, or rather, as a kind of introduction to that course, were taught in English one after the other (four academic class hours per week – about five weeks for each of the mini-courses) all through the academic year. Each of the mini-courses was structured following the pattern of a regular academic course: with three or four two-hour lectures, four-five two-hour practical classes and/or

seminars, and at least one two-hour class of final testing. As a result, on finishing a mini-course, students acquired a basic generalized knowledge of a particular academic subject through the medium of the target language, thus getting preliminarily prepared for a complete total English immersion course on that subject in the following academic year.

Such complete total English immersion courses were introduced beginning from the fourth year of students' university studies and could continue for two academic years (and not only one as in the case discussed before) – until graduation.

The fact that experiential interactive content-based ESP course and preliminary immersion course sufficiently prepared students for total immersion was due to their ensuring learners' gradual advance up the "stairway" of linguistic and psychological training that could let them relatively painlessly approach the highest and most difficult level of total immersion:

- on the level of experiential interactive content-based instruction there was some kind of balance between content matter focus and language focus (see *Chapter 1*), also there was some degree of students' psychological adjustment to future total immersion through modeling professional activities in their ESP classroom;
- on the level of preliminary immersion content matter focus considerably dominated as compared with language focus and students' psychological adjustment to future total immersion came to the forefront because the situation of total immersion was fully modeled;
- on the level of total immersion itself only the content matter of the academic course was in the focus of attention while the linguistic and psychological preparedness of students was taken for granted.

This model of introducing immersion courses – experiential interactive content-based ESP course (one academic year) → preliminary immersion course (one academic year) → total English immersion courses (at least, two academic years) – has been tested and tried at Alfred Nobel University, Dnipropetrovsk, Ukraine (including testing the model in experimental conditions) beginning from the year 2006 (Tarnopolsky, Momot, et al., 2008). It was demonstrated that even after their experiential interactive content-based ESP course students had mostly reached not only B2 level in their command of both General and Business English but were also well advanced towards level C1. That latter level was always achieved after the course of preliminary immersion, so that the following total English immersion was not of any excessive difficulty for students in what concerns the language, the psychological readiness, or the content matter. Moreover, there has been some evidence (though not confirmed experimentally as yet) that in many cases total English immersion could safely be introduced immediately after the experiential interactive content-based ESP course without the intermediary stage of preliminary immersion. That would allow devoting at

least three years of university studies to teaching academic disciplines in the framework of a total English immersion program. Such findings have made it possible for the above mentioned university to make an agreement with the UK University of Wales concerning a joint program of teaching *in English only* future economists at Alfred Nobel University, Dnipropetrovsk with the aim of awarding the graduates two diplomas/certificates after graduation: the Ukrainian diploma/certificate from Alfred Nobel University and the British diploma/certificate from the University of Wales. This program has been functioning successfully since 2010.

The extensive analysis above of the target language immersion at tertiary schools (though, in principle, such immersion is outside the scope of this monograph) was required to demonstrate one more important function of experiential interactive content-based instruction. *It serves not only for substantially improving a university ESP course and making it most closely linked and related to students' professional training. It also serves for preparing students linguistically and psychologically for further English immersion in that professional training.* But the efficiency of experiential interactive content-based instruction in fulfilling both of these functions depends on the adequate choice of a proper organizational form of content-based instruction for introducing it into the university experiential interactive ESP course as one of its leading components. This issue is analyzed below.

4. Organizational forms of content-based instruction and their selection for an experiential interactive ESP course

Brinton, Snow, & Wesche (1989) distinguished three organizational forms of content-based instruction which were developed and described for teaching EAP (English for Academic Purposes) to international students learning English as a second language (and not as a foreign one – as is the case for this monograph) at US universities.

The first form is *adjunct language instruction*, the most advanced of all the three forms. Adjunct language instruction is a course of English *accompanying* what was called total English immersion above. It is organized for those international students at American universities who are taught their majoring subjects in mainstream courses together with American students but need some help to cope with their language problems in those mainstream courses. Adjunct language instruction is designed specially for rendering such help, so it cannot be considered as an independent language course.

This kind of instruction can be used when English for professional communication is taught as a foreign, and not as a second language at tertiary schools but at a much later stage than the stage discussed in this monograph when students are just starting their ESP course. Adjunct language instruction is required only if and when total English immersion is introduced in courses on academic/professional disciplines during senior years of students' university studies. That is why it is not necessary to analyze such a kind of instruction in details in this monograph because it is beyond its scope.

The second form is *sheltered content instruction*. It was developed for those international students at American universities whose English (as a second language) was insufficient for attending mainstream courses on academic/professional subjects together with American students. They have separate courses on those subjects organized for them only, and such courses are taught in English that is modified and simplified, i.e., specially adapted to the level of students' command of the language.

In the terminology of our monograph, this form is not a form of content-based instruction at all but *a simplified (as to language) form of English immersion*. This is because the language for professional communication is acquired not in language (ESP) classes but involuntarily in classes on some other academic disciplines. The place of sheltered content instruction is somewhere between what was called above *preliminary immersion* and *sheltered immersion* – as one more form of teaching and learning facilitating the students' transition from their ESP course to their total English immersion courses on majoring disciplines. Anyway, this organizational form is also beyond the scope of our monograph.

The third form which is of the greatest interest to us is *theme-based language instruction*. It is specially designed for ESP classes only, and not for some kinds of immersion teaching. The course of ESP, when it is built as theme-based instruction, is structured around a set of professional topics (themes) that follow each other in a logical consecutive order which corresponds to the order of studying those themes in an academic course of some majoring discipline or in courses on several such disciplines. In theme-based instruction special attention is paid to the *integration* of reading, speaking, listening, and writing for professional purposes in the teaching/learning process (Brinton, Snow, & Wesche, 1989).

No special proof is needed to assert that it is the *theme-based language instruction* which is the optimal organizational form for an experiential interactive content-based ESP course. First, it is the simplest form best suited for the conditions when the students only start learning ESP in their classes of English at university. Second, for an ESP course to be divided into profession-oriented topics (themes) is absolutely logical and fully corresponds to students' (and teachers') expectations, so that they are psychologically ready for it. Finally, all ESP courses (even the most traditional and language-focused

ones) have always been theme-based – meaning that they have always been divided into profession-oriented topics. (A different thing is how those topics are selected, arranged, studied, etc. – this is where the borderline between a traditional ESP course and a content-based ESP course lies). Such theme-based division has always been recognized as highly pertinent to the learning purposes, so there is no need to reject it even if the course is different in a lot of other aspects.

One more feature that makes the choice of the theme-based form attractive is the fact that, as follows from what was said about experiential learning activities in *Chapter 1*, they are always task-based. And solving learning tasks in target language instruction is, according to Legutke, & Thomas (1991), invariably a *theme-centered interaction*, i.e., requires theme-based organization.

Therefore, the organizational form of content-based instruction most suitable for the conditions of the experiential interactive content-based ESP course discussed in this monograph is the *theme-based instruction*. This may be considered as the general conclusion from everything said and analyzed in this section and the one that precedes it (devoted to English immersion in ESP teaching at tertiary schools).

The materials and analysis in these two sections allow admitting and stating (just like Stoller did in 2007: 59) that content-based ESP instruction together with English immersion, which is closely related to it and may follow it at tertiary schools, can be implemented through a number of their alternative and consecutive forms and configurations, such as the ones shown in Fig. 8 (the orientation is from the lower to the higher levels). These forms and configurations primarily differ as to the degree of their difficulty and sophistication that is mostly due to the degree of focusing on language in each of the forms or configurations: from the highest degree of such focusing in a traditional ESP course to its practically total absence in total immersion.

It is only the degree of language focusing that determines the rational consecutive order of proceeding from the lower forms/configurations to the higher ones – in accordance with the decrease of language focusing in each of the following forms/configurations, so as to gradually bring students to the level where their command of the target language is taken for granted (total immersion). As a result, a definite continuum shown in Fig. 8 appears.

From the scheme, it can be seen that traditional language focused ESP teaching/learning, having no relation by itself either to content-based instruction or to immersion, can yet, as experimentally proved (see above), lead to the total immersion through the stages of sheltered and partial immersion. Most probably, the transition may be facilitated if sheltered content instruction precedes entering the sheltered immersion stage and if the total immersion is aided by adjunct language learning – though this still remains to be tested in teaching practice. But in all cases, the road from traditional ESP to total English immersion

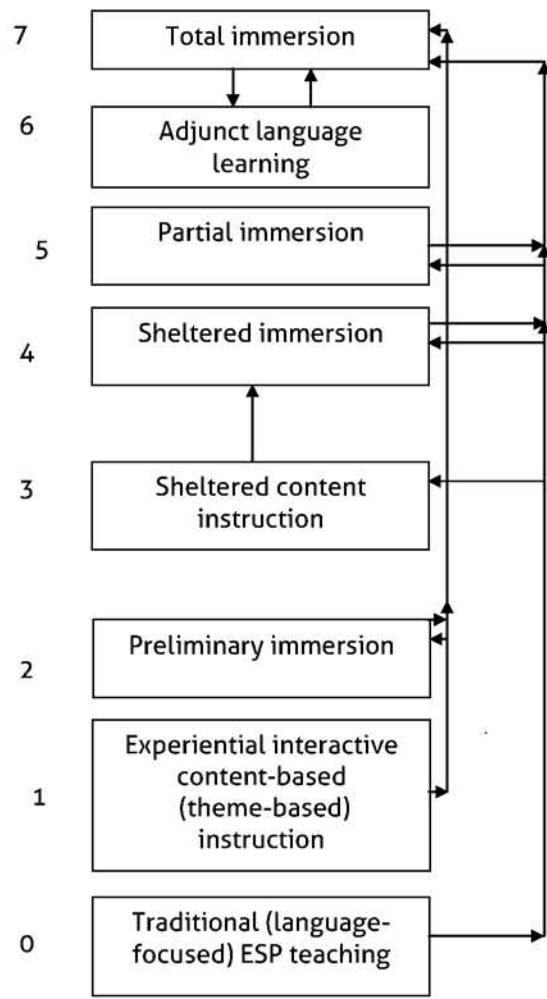


Fig. 8 The continuum of consecutive transitions from the simplest (bottom) to the most complicated (top) forms of content-based instruction and ESP immersion

is long and arduous, and when the final stage (total immersion) is reached at last, there is not much time remaining to practice it in the course of students' university studies.

The royal road to total immersion lies from experiential interactive content-based (theme-based) instruction that, passing through only one intermediary stage of preliminary immersion (which, quite probably, may even be 'leapt over' - see before), directly leads to total English immersion that can be practiced dur-

ing several years of students' university studies. Of course, in this case too total immersion can be aided by adjunct language learning, but, as shown in our research (c.f. Tarnopolsky, & Kozhushko, 2005; Tarnopolsky, Momot, et al., 2008), the system may well work without it.

The general conclusion from everything said in this and the preceding section may be as follows:

For practical introduction of content-based instruction in the framework of the constructivist approach, the theme-based organizational form of that instruction is the most suitable one for use at an early stage of teaching ESP to tertiary school students. Using this form means structuring learning around professional themes (topics) selected in a definite manner and logically/consecutively following each other in the teaching/learning process. Using this form during the early period of ESP teaching and learning opens the road to introducing the total English immersion into courses of academic/professional disciplines in later periods of students' university studies.

The conclusion above poses the question of what 'the definite manner' of selecting professional themes (topics) is and should be. That particular question, finally, directly brings us to the central issue of this chapter – the issue of selecting the content of learning for an experiential interactive content-based ESP course that embodies the constructivist approach to ESP teaching and learning at tertiary schools. The issue of learning content selection is analyzed in the next two sections.

5. Learning content selection in an experiential interactive content-based ESP course

The learning content is one of the three fundamental categories of second/foreign language teaching/learning. (The other two have already been discussed in this monograph. The first is *the goal of teaching/learning*, this goal being, as mentioned, developing students' communicative competence in the target language – linguistic, sociolinguistic, and pragmatic (Council of Europe, 2001) – for ensuring their efficient communication in that language. For the conditions of an ESP course, this communicative competence should be aimed at *professional communication* only. The second category is *the method of teaching and learning*, and entire *Chapter 1* in the monograph is devoted to analyzing what kind of method is required if the constructivist approach to ESP is being implemented.) Hardly any proof is needed to assert that it largely depends on the properly selected learning content whether the goal of ESP teaching/learning will really be achieved. It also depends on the selected content how the method of teaching/learning is going to be implemented in the practical teaching/learning

process. But to discuss the issue of adequate selection of the learning content, it is first of all necessary to specify what components this content consists of and what the general sequence of their selection should be.

5.1. The componential structure of the learning content in an experiential interactive content-based ESP course and the general sequence of its selection

There can be and are different ideas as to that componential structure but there hardly can be any objections to the statement that the learning content in ESP courses must include everything that the students are expected to retain in their memory after they finish their particular course. From this point of view, the components in question may be considered as consisting of:

1. **Communication and language skills** as the principal component of ESP learning content (since it is just such skills that make up the communicative competence which is the goal of teaching and learning). It should be noted that from what has been said before it is clear that communication skills that students are expected to develop embrace all the four basic communication activities (speaking, reading, listening, and writing), inasmuch as those communication activities serve professional activities implemented through professional communication. But the situation with language skills is different. The development of learners' vocabulary skills is constantly in the focus of teacher and students' attention, while pronunciation skills are only subconsciously reinforced thanks to students' continuous participation in professional communication in the target language. Grammar skills are paid more attention to than pronunciation skills but mostly those skills are also just reinforced on the basis of what the students have achieved during their pre-ESP stage of English training (see *Chapter 1, 3.2.*).
2. **Language materials:** vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation materials that students are supposed to retain in their memories because it is only when having those materials at their disposal, they can develop relevant vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation skills. It should be noted that for an ESP course, only the vocabulary to be acquired by students is supposed to be properly and thoroughly selected. Pronunciation materials (pronunciation patterns) are not selected at all because all students' pronunciation skills are expected to be developed before their ESP course even starts, and the skills that are subconsciously reinforced in that course are only those that are activated when learners are orally communicating on some professional issues. The same concerns the greater part of grammar materials in an ESP course, though there may be some grammar in it that is new for students and that is selected exclusively in accordance with profession-

al communication needs and processed according to the mode discussed in Chapter 1, 3.2. But this kind of grammar material is quite limited.

3. **Sociolinguistic and pragmatic information** that serves for developing students' sociolinguistic and pragmatic competences and relevant skills that are proper to the *speech community* (Hymes, 1974) whose language is being learned as the target one. In some cases, the sociolinguistic and pragmatic information from some other (not only the target one) speech communities may be included in the ESP course when it is known in advance that, after graduation, former students are going to communicate in English with representatives of a number of different cultures. This is especially characteristic of Business English studies. In general, owing to the growing intercultural and cross-cultural orientation of language teaching and learning, the adequate selection of sociolinguistic and pragmatic information for such teaching and learning has an ever-increasing significance for evaluating an ESP course as quite suitable.
4. **Speech/communication materials and samples**, such as professional texts for reading, audio and video materials, etc. These materials are included into the learning content not because it is expected that students retain in their memories every single professional text in English that they have read or very single professional conversation in English that they were listening to in their ESP course. But, first, it is expected that they retain the content information from those materials because only on the basis of that information their own speech production in English is possible. (Students in an experiential interactive content-based ESP course often get professional information in their ESP classes *before* they obtain it in their classes on academic/professional subjects. This is why the professional texts and audio/video materials in English are frequently the only sources for them to obtain such information and generate their oral and written speech in English on its basis. Therefore, the information in question necessarily has to be retained in students' memory.) Second, it is mostly those materials that are the sources of vocabulary, grammar, sociolinguistic and pragmatic information that must be retained by students (see above), so they also need to be at least partially retained in their memories in what concerns the language, pragmatic, and cultural data from them.
5. **Themes (topics) and situations for communication**. This is the last component, but not the least important. First, this is because if an ESP course under discussion is theme-based, it is clear that professional themes (topics) to be studied in the course must be carefully selected for achieving the course goals. Second, no communication (either professional or not) is possible without a topic. Actually, communication starts with a certain topic (theme), which determines the communication content. Though in the process of every kind of communication topics may be changed, each of the

single fragments of verbal intercourse is always devoted to some specific topic and cannot take place in its absence. The same concerns situations because no communications, either spoken or written, is possible outside some situation in which that communication is developing (Zimniaya, 1985). One and the same book of fiction will be read differently if we are reading it for relaxing while lying on the sofa or while revising for an examination on literature, i.e., depending on a particular situation. In the same way, one and the same professional topic will be discussed differently in the situation of a professional meeting and in the situation of having lunch together with a colleague. This means that 1) in their interaction topics (themes) and situations of communication determine the communication content and, therefore, the characteristics of oral and written discourses (texts) generated and read/listened to in that communication; 2) through the content of communication and the characteristics of oral and written discourses (texts), those themes and situations determine the sociolinguistic and pragmatic skills that need to be used by communicators, the skills in question being developed in target language studies on the basis of relevant sociolinguistic and pragmatic information; 3) the themes and situations also determine the language material (like vocabulary) to be used by communicators; 4) finally, they determine the communication and language skills to be activated in this or that fragment of communication. This demonstrates that it is the themes (topics) and situations of communication that to a large extent determine the selection of all the other components of learning content – those that are higher up in the hierarchy (see above). So, themes (topics) and situations of communication may be considered as the foundation-laying, basic component of that content. It is on the selection of just this component that the selection of all the other components depends. As to the question what should be selected first: the themes or the situations; for teaching target language *professional* communication (ESP), there can be only one answer – themes should go (be selected) first. It is not only because we have chosen the theme-based instruction as the starting point for developing *our* experiential interactive content-based ESP course. It is also because professional communication as such is mostly governed by themes (topics) of that communication while the situations in which it takes place are usually adapted to the needs of professional communication on a particular professional topic. This is why communication on professional topics (themes) can sometimes take place in very unlikely or even inappropriate situations – like the situation of a corporate Christmas party.

The list of learning content components given above and the suggested interpretation of each of the components, especially the last one (themes and situations), both show the direction towards rational sequencing and selection of those components. The approach to logical sequencing and practical

implementation of that selection was developed by the Ukrainian scholar Skalkin (1989) and later elaborated in details in the monograph by Tarnopolsky, & Kozhushko (2004).

According to Skalkin (1989: 47), learning content is a structure of several layers in which the ground layer is the *communicative aspect* including the meaning of language signs and the meaning of texts selected for learning purposes. The next layer higher up is the linguistic aspect including the entire *language inventory* selected for learning purposes. The topmost layer represents the *psycho-physiological aspect* which embodies the process of acquiring the knowledge and skills that are necessary for target language communication.

Skalkin's approach is attractive because it creates a foundation for selecting learning content in a manner that has some theoretical and logical substantiation as to its sequencing and is not done in a frequently encountered totally empirical manner. With the empirical approach, the authors of textbooks, coursebooks, and other teaching materials (including the materials for ESP courses) often *begin selecting the learning content with the language inventory (grammar and vocabulary)* that they believe to be the most important for the target language acquisition. All the other aspects of learning content (topics and situations for communication, texts for reading, audio and video materials, even skills that need to be taught) are selected so as to match and adjust them to the pre-selected language inventory. As a result, it is not communication and learners' communicative needs that govern the selection of language inventory but vice versa – the language inventory and the language system as a whole govern what kind of communication skills are taught to students. And this is definitely wrong from the point of view of the final teaching goal – developing students' communicative competence – that requires considering communication and communicative needs as the only governing factor regulating the selection of learning content in whatever kind of target language course.

This (regulating learning content selection through communication and communicative needs) is the approach suggested by Skalkin (1989). He postulated the communicative aspect as the starting point of such selection because it was defined as the bottom, initial, layer of that content. In the monograph by Tarnopolsky, & Kozhushko (2004), it was shown that the communicative aspect of learning content includes the themes and situations of communication to be used in the teaching/learning process, as well as the speech materials and samples in which all the meanings of language inventory to be taught and learned must be found. The language inventory itself, as representing the linguistic aspect, includes the language materials whose selection was determined by the meanings of those materials selected on the communicative aspect level. The materials chosen on the communicative aspect level also regulate what knowledge (sociolinguistic and pragmatic) should be selected for students' acquisition. Finally, both the communicative and linguistic aspects determine what communication and

language skills need to be chosen for acquisition and development by learners in the practical teaching/learning process.

The approach above suggested by Tarnopolsky and Kozhushko (2004) has led to postulating the logical sequence of conducting learning content selection for a content-based (theme-based) ESP course. This sequence is schematically shown in Fig. 9. According to the suggested sequence, first the *themes (topics)* on which the entire ESP course is based are selected and, on their basis and together with them, the *situations for communication* in the teaching/learning process. The selected themes and situations serve as the starting point for selecting *typical speech materials and samples* that cover the chosen themes and situations. Those materials and samples demonstrate what *meanings* of linguistic, cultural, and pragmatic units the students need for communicating in the framework of pre-

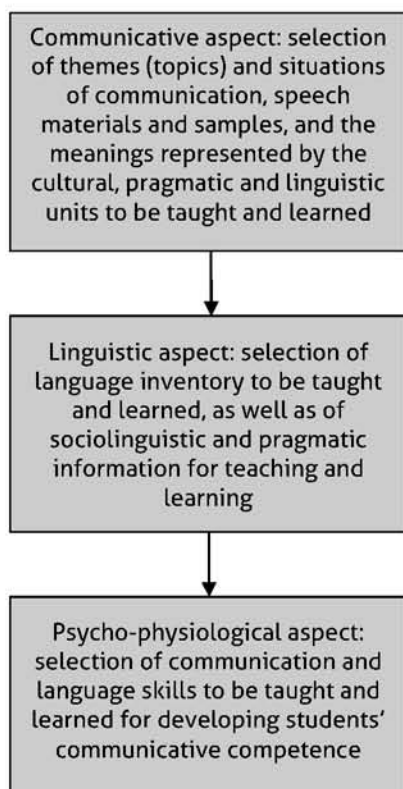


Fig. 9 The sequence of selecting the learning content for a content-based/theme-based ESP course (quoted from the work by Tarnopolsky, & Kozhushko, 2004: 43)

selected themes and situations. So, the materials and samples become the source for selecting the *sociolinguistic and pragmatic information* and *language inventory*. Finally, both the speech materials and the language inventory demonstrate what *communication and language skills* the students need to develop.

The advantage of such an approach to the selection of learning content for a content-based ESP course can be shown if the differentiation of the *carrier-content* and the *real content* suggested by Dudley-Evans, & St. John (1998) is taken into account. Following these two authors, it should be said that carrier-content is *the subject matter aspect* of what learners read, hear, say, and write in the target language, while real content is *the language and communication aspect* of what they read, hear, say, and write in it. This latter aspect is always intrinsically dominant in whatever language course (by definition – because it is the *language* course), though its dominance may be hidden behind the *seeming* dominance of the subject matter aspect – like in content-based instruction. This seeming dominance is required when developing students' communicative competence is considered as the primary goal of teaching and learning since communication is always directed at and conditioned by its subject matter, and this to a much greater degree than it is directed at and conditioned by the language system. That is all the more true in what concerns professional communication taught in every ESP course.

Just for such a situation and approach, the above scheme of selecting the learning content for a content-based/theme-based ESP course seems to be the most suitable. This is because in the case under consideration the selection begins from the carrier-content (themes, situations, typical discourses/texts, etc.), and it is the carrier content that determines what real content (language units, communication skills, etc.) should be selected. This is the principal advantage that allows making the language instruction genuinely content-based.

Having determined the general sequence of implementing the suggested approach to learning content selection for a content-based/theme-based ESP course, the next step should be the detailed description of the full procedure of that selection.

5.2. Procedure of learning content selection for an experiential interactive content-based ESP course

5.2.1. The first stage in learning content selection

From the suggested general sequence of selecting the learning content for an experiential interactive content-based ESP course it is clear that selecting themes and communication situations is not only the first stage in the selection procedure. This is probably the most important stage just because all the

following selection stages depend on it. This is why this first stage should be organized very carefully to obtain the most accurate and precise results.

Selecting themes (topics) as the first step, or stage, in the selection of learning content for a content-based ESP course, should be implemented following four basic conditions:

1. The selected themes should not embrace the most fundamental information about the content of just one, however important, students' majoring/professional discipline. They should reflect the fundamental content related to students' *future specialty as a whole*. Those themes are supposed to allow creating a kind of synopsis of learners' future profession in the target language. It is what content-based instruction is, in fact, designed for. Otherwise, the specific goal of every ESP course at tertiary schools cannot be attained. This goal is *to prepare students for professional communication in the target language on all issues that may require such target language communication in the course of their professional activities and career*. Achieving that goal is only possible if the students have a more or less complete 'picture' of their entire future profession formed through the medium of the target language; a 'picture' of just one academic discipline related to that profession cannot really help in attaining the required result. Thus, the selected themes are called upon to lay the foundation for creating *a model of students' future profession* in ESP classes.
2. The above condition presupposes that the themes for an ESP course should be selected from at least *a number of students' majoring disciplines*, if not from all of them. But all the selected themes need to be systematized and arranged in such a manner as to unite them into one integral and harmonious whole that can allow creating *a model of students' future profession* in ESP classes, or *a synopsis (a short course)* of that profession in the target language (see above).
3. The selected themes should be accessible and comprehensible to students. In all countries of the world where ESP courses are taught in the framework of tertiary schools' curricula, such teaching is, as a rule, planned for the first years of students' university studies (e.g., our ESP courses for future economists/businesspeople and future psychologists discussed and used as examples in this monograph were designed for students' second year at their universities). At that time, students do not know very much about their future profession as yet. But the fundamentals of that profession are quite accessible and comprehensible to them (in fact, the fundamentals of whatever profession are accessible and comprehensible to every layperson with a sound and complete secondary education). So, it is on such fundamentals that the selected themes should concentrate to make a content-based ESP course accessible to students during the given period of their university studies. Rendering all specific and more

complicated professional details in the target language should better be postponed for later periods – for instance, when English immersion is introduced in courses of academic/professional disciplines (c.f. 3.2 and 4 in this chapter).

4. The task of selecting the themes for a content-based ESP course cannot be solved by ESP teachers, authors of textbooks, coursebooks, and other ESP teaching materials working totally on their own. These people are not and cannot be genuine specialists in any of the given fields of professional specialization, like Business Studies, Engineering, Biology, Psychology, Transport, etc., so they cannot select such themes in full accordance with the three requirements above in a fully competent and qualified manner. Collaboration with genuine specialists is required – and, preferably, not with just one or two of them but with at least several dozens, so that the themes are chosen following the opinions of their majority, thus providing for the most accurate and precise selection.

It is on the basis of the last requirement that we organized the selection of themes both for the coursebooks *Business Projects* for future economists and businesspeople and the coursebook *Psychological Matters* for future psychologists. In the first case, a kind of questionnaire was prepared with the list of fifty themes in the field of Economics and Business and distributed among 100 professional Ukrainian economists and businesspeople. Eighty of them were those who had a good knowledge of English and often had to use it in their professional activities (this was important for further selection of situations of professional communication that will be discussed below). Every participant of the survey was requested to tick 12 themes (the number of planned units for the coursebook *Business Projects*). They were those that he or she considered as the optimal ones to be chosen for most fully embracing the fundamental content matter of the majoring/professional disciplines in the field of Business Studies, so as to create for students a more or less complete, accessible, and comprehensible model of their future profession in the target language. Besides, every respondent had an opportunity of adding those themes that were not in the list but that s/he deemed to be important. The themes included in the final list of them (given further) were only the ones marked by no less than 75 respondents – 75%.

An absolutely identical approach was followed when selecting the themes for the coursebook *Psychological Matters*, though in the latter case we managed to involve only 40 respondents, specialists in practical psychology, in our survey. As a result, the topics selected for teaching future psychologists in their ESP course comprised:

- THEME 1. *Psychology and its Branches*
- THEME 2. *History of Psychology*
- THEME 3. *Job Burnout*
- THEME 4. *Balancing Work and Family*

THEME 5. Psychology of Employment and Working Place Conflicts

THEME 6. Managing Emotions and Feelings

THEME 7. Personality and Individual Differences

THEME 8. Psychotherapy

THEME 9. Gestalt Therapy

THEME 10. Psychological Counseling

After the themes for an ESP course designed for future psychologists had been selected, they were discussed (in the year 2008) with the scholars from the Department of Practical Psychology at Alfred Nobel University, Dnipropetrovsk, Ukraine (see also on that issue *Chapter 4*, section 1). That discussion confirmed that the themes really: 1) embraced the most fundamental information about the content of the profession of a practical psychologist, i.e., could serve as a basis for creating a synopsis (a short course) of that profession in the target language; 2) were sufficiently systematized as to their order of sequencing and arranged so as to make possible uniting them into one integral whole within a model of students' future profession that was supposed to be created in ESP classes; 3) were quite accessible and comprehensible for second year students of the Department of Practical Psychology as to the content matter that was expected to be discussed in the framework of those themes. Therefore, the themes in question fully met the pre-set requirements for their selection.

The procedure of selecting professional situations for communication, supposed to be chosen, as it follows from what was said before, *after the themes and on their basis* (to match them), had been quite similar to the one described above. When preparing both coursebooks *Business Projects* and *Psychological Matters*, the lists of fifty possible situations of professional communication in the target language were compiled, and the same respondents who took part in selecting the themes were asked to tick the communicative situations that matched the themes already selected by them. They were asked to tick only the situations that, in accordance with their personal experiences, were the most likely to occur in the conditions when a particular professional theme was the subject matter of communication in the target language. They also had opportunities of adding some situations that they considered as important but which were not included in the list that they had received.

This is why only those respondents who had good knowledge of English and often had to use it in their professional activities were involved. Thus, just eighty out of one hundred respondents taking part in the selection of professional themes for the coursebook *Business Projects* could participate in the process of selecting professional situations of communication to match the already selected professional themes – since only they had practical experience of using English for professional communication (see above). They chose the following situations of *oral (speaking and listening) communication* to match the earlier selected twelve professional themes:

Themes:	Situations:
<i>Forms of Businesses</i>	<i>Business interviewing. Getting information concerning a particular company – for different purposes, like preparing for organizing a joint venture, preparing for starting a joint project, etc.</i>
<i>Company Structure</i>	<i>Business interviewing. Getting information concerning a particular company – for different purposes, like preparing for organizing a joint venture, preparing for starting a joint project, etc.</i>
<i>Making Appointments and Making Business Inquiries</i>	<i>Business telephoning. Getting and supplying some required business information</i>
<i>Career Profiles and Applying for a Job</i>	<i>Job interviews</i>
<i>Domestic and World Economy</i>	<i>Business and economic discussions. Business negotiations. Delivering business and economic presentations</i>
<i>Business Objectives, Strategies, and Competition</i>	<i>Business and economic discussions. Business negotiations. Delivering business and economic presentations</i>
<i>Marketing and Advertisements</i>	<i>Promotion campaigns. Business talks. Delivering business presentations</i>
<i>Production</i>	<i>Business interviewing. Touring production facilities (factories, works, etc.) with different purposes, e.g., placing orders, company mergers, etc. Purchasing, selling, and delivering goods and equipment manufactured by an organization. Delivering business and economic presentations</i>
<i>Banking</i>	<i>Contacting banks with the aim of getting bank services, obtaining loans, opening accounts, etc.</i>
<i>Finance</i>	<i>Discussing company's finances, sales and sales results, etc. Discussing financing in a joint project. Delivering business and economic presentations</i>
<i>Participation in Fairs and Exhibitions</i>	<i>Business discussions, business negotiations when participating in and attending fairs and exhibitions. Delivering business presentations</i>
<i>Contracts</i>	<i>Business discussions. Business negotiations. Purchasing, selling, and delivering goods and equipment manufactured by an organization. Delivering business presentations</i>

According to our respondents, specialists in the field of Business and Economics, this set of situations faithfully reflects the most probable and frequent cases in which a businessperson for whom English is a foreign language has a professional need to speak English and to listen to English being spoken. These situations are the most probable and frequent ones when a businessperson wants to discuss some business issues and solve some business problems with his or her foreign counterparts, and English is their only possible verbal medium of professional oral intercourse. Therefore, it is at the intersection of such selected topics and situations that typical speech materials/samples for teaching oral communication in English must be selected for an experiential interactive ESP course. (Those materials/samples are called upon to demonstrate how English is typically spoken in the selected situations when the selected topics determine the subject matter of communication.)

The same concerns written communication. For teaching reading and writing, situations are selected in an identical manner on the basis of and to match the pre-selected themes (e.g., the situations of reading the text of a business contract prepared as a result of business negotiations or the situation of preparing that contract in writing after discussing its clauses). Speech materials/samples for teaching written communication are selected at the intersection of those themes and situations.

5.2.2. The second stage in learning content selection

The selection of such materials/samples (texts for reading in English, audio and video materials, etc.) is, as follows from the scheme in Fig. 9, the second stage in selecting the learning content for an ESP course. The number of sources for that selection is practically unlimited. The largest store of authentic materials in English can be found on professional Internet sites. That concerns not only the materials for reading but also the materials/samples for listening (YouTube and other Internet media).

An instance of one of many Internet sites used by us when working on the theme "*Managing Emotions and Feelings*" for Unit 6 in the coursebook *Psychological Matters* (Tarnopolsky, Kozhushko, et al., 2011a) was <http://EzineArticles.com> where materials from different fields of knowledge (including Psychology) can be found. Some typical texts on the topic of emotions and feelings were there at that time, and they could be used as a source for creating teaching materials for profession-oriented reading in English on that subject. An example that can be given is an extract from the article by Zoey Jordan retrieved from the site in question January 11, 2009 (http://EzineArticles.com/?expert=Zoey_Jordan):

"A feeling has no power over you, unless you allow it to. Releasing allows us to get more in touch with our intuition. There is a difference between our intuition and our emotional reactions. The more releasing you do, the more intuitive you'll feel."

Negative feelings cut us off from the flow of abundance, joy, excitement and creativity that we are entitled to experience. Sometimes the thought of releasing or letting go of the low energy emotions can feel overwhelming. Maybe we resist letting them go. Our rational mind knows that letting go or releasing the feeling will better serve us, but we might wonder «Who would I be without the feeling?»

If you wonder who you might be without the feeling, make a list. A simple list of pros and cons. If you do release the feeling – what might that feel like? What positive changes do you think you might experience? Do the same for holding onto the feeling – how is that feeling serving you?

Our emotions actually relate to each other in an organized way. Releasing will allow your mind to become progressively clearer. The changes you feel as you move out of low energy emotions might be gradual. But each time you go through the process of releasing, you will notice yourself naturally gravitating more to the higher energy emotions.

For example, apathy is an emotion that we feel each day to some degree. It would serve us to move through and release the low energy emotions so we can move into lighter, more positive feelings. Some examples of feeling apathetic might include feeling:

- Defeated
- Hopeless
- Indifferent
- Lazy
- Lost
- Numb
- Overwhelmed
- Worthless

Challenge yourself to take action when you least feel like it. Putting something into motion is the opposite of apathy. Taking action engages your mind in a lighter thought, and allows you to access a better feeling.”

Speech materials/samples found on the Internet (like the material above) most certainly need some ‘pedagogical processing’ for using them as texts for reading or audio/video materials for listening in the teaching/learning process. (What kind of processing is required will be discussed in details in Chapter 4.) But on the other hand, the Internet has some really incomparable advantages as a source for selecting speech materials and samples. Those advantages are such that they make the Internet the principal source of speech materials’ selection for content-based ESP courses. They are as follows:

1. The materials from the Internet are very accessible. Quite frequently, no special permission is required for using them for teaching/learning purposes (if the source and the author are duly quoted) because the copyright regulations in this case are often either absent or not so restricting

as with the printed materials. This is especially true when the materials taken from the Internet have already been removed from it (This is the case with the fragment used above for giving an example).

2. Those materials are more than numerous; they are, for all practical purposes, unlimited in numbers and so varied and diverse that all requirements may easily be met, including the requirement to choose only those profession-oriented materials that are comprehensible to students in the early years of their university studies. Besides, it is only on the Internet that enough materials can be found to create a short synopsis (a short general course) of students' future specialty in their ESP classes.
3. The materials are authentic, i.e., prepared by native speakers of the target language for other native speakers; moreover, they are, as a rule, prepared by specialists in a given professional field. Both these factors are more than important if we want to create a genuine content-based ESP course (the course based on genuine professional content and not on the ideas about that content of an ESP coursebook writer who is not a real specialist in a given field). But to achieve this adequately, the selection of materials from the Internet should be done in cooperation between an ESP materials writer and a specialist in a given field of knowledge or a field of professional activities.
4. The numerous speech materials/samples found on the Internet can serve as the best source for selecting the language inventory and the sociolinguistic and pragmatic information – just because of the greatest possible volume of those authentic materials.

Of course, there are other sources that can be used for selecting the learning content at the stage of selecting speech materials/samples. For instance, textbooks on professional disciplines written for English-speaking students can provide a lot of authentic professional texts for reading in English. For future businesspeople annual companies' reports are a good source of reading materials too. Professional newsletters, magazines, and even specialized journals should not be neglected either as such a source. Even advertisements and promotional materials can help. But although the listed kinds of materials should never be discarded and, on the contrary, should be made the best use of, relying on them has several disadvantages:

1. Almost all printed materials (maybe, except annual companies' reports) are copyrighted, so that for using them, special permission is needed, which is not always easy to procure.
2. The printed materials in English are by far not as numerous as the materials that can be found on the Internet and those of them that are accessible to ESP teachers and teaching materials writers/compiler may simply be not sufficient for creating a short synopsis of students' future specialty in their ESP classes. In some countries or universities, such printed mate-

rials may not be accessible at all or accessible in such small numbers as to be practically useless for creating a content-based ESP course.

3. Of course, the required printed sources can be ordered (e.g., through *Amazon.com*) and bought by ESP teachers and teaching materials writers/compilers. But buying them in sufficient numbers can often be too expensive not only for those teachers and writers/compilers themselves but even for their institutions.
4. Such sources are not as varied and diversified as Internet sources, so quite often it is difficult to find those of them that can fully meet all the requirements – like the requirement to choose only profession-oriented materials that are comprehensible to students in the early years of their university studies.
5. Because of their scarcity indicated above, printed materials may be insufficient for properly selecting the entire language inventory and the sociolinguistic and pragmatic information required for a content-based ESP course.
6. Last but not least, outside the Internet, it is very difficult to find enough audio/video materials/samples in English to provide for the needs of teaching listening in English for professional purposes (while on the Internet they are in abundance – if not actually recorded, then in the forms of tapescripts that can be recorded which amounts to the same as having recorded materials because, as said above, all the Internet materials need some 'pedagogical processing' before their inclusion into an actual ESP course).

This last difficulty can be overcome if the teaching materials writer/compiler collects his/her audio materials himself/herself by getting permission and recording some authentic samples of oral professional communication in English. Those (properly processed and re-recorded) samples may be used later in the audio supplements to printed coursebooks or in other teaching materials. This was the way followed by us for procuring the audio materials for the coursebook for future economists and businesspeople *Business Projects* (Tarnopolsky, & Kozhushko, 2002). It was inevitable because at the time when the coursebook started to be prepared (in the 1990s) there was little possibility of getting audio/video materials from the Internet. The initial recordings of such audio samples were made mostly in the USA but also in some other countries. Below, as an example, is a sample tapescript of a conversation recorded live (with the oral permission of its anonymous participants and their permission to use the recording further for learning purposes) in 1994 during the *International Festival "Languages and Cultures"* held in Moscow, Russia. This (later processed and re-recorded) conversation was used as one of a number of audio materials for *Unit 11* in the coursebook *Business Projects*, that unit being devoted to participation of businesses in fairs and exhibitions (see the list of themes for the coursebook in 5.2.1.).

The conversation is used in the ESP course based on the coursebook in question for teaching students listening to sample conversations that can be held in a company's booth at an international fair. The recorded conversation itself is being held between a company's representative (in this case, a representative of a language school from the UK) and a potential customer (in this case, a Russian parent who is interested in sending his daughter to that school for learning English). For convenience of reading, the tapescript below is presented without speech pauses, hesitations, silence fillers, etc. that were originally recorded:

A. *Hello. I'm interested in your language school. Could you answer some of my questions, please?*

B. *Sure. Is it for yourself that you want to get the information?*

A. *No, it's for my daughter. I know English well enough. Will you please tell me where you are located?*

B. *Our school is located in the beautiful coastal resort of Torquay. That's in south west England. So, our students have an opportunity not only to learn the language, but also to relax at the seaside. That means studies and holidays together.*

A. *Fine. And what about accommodation for students?*

B. *Students live with families. They have bed, breakfast, and an evening meal. And living in families gives additional opportunities for language practice.*

A. *And what about lunch?*

B. *Students have to take care of their lunches themselves. But there is a small and quite inexpensive restaurant at school and lots of pubs in the neighborhood.*

A. *What courses do you offer?*

B. *We offer intensive courses in General English and Business English on a one-to-one basis, or in small groups of 4-6 students. In small groups it is certainly cheaper.*

A. *How long are the courses? And how intensive? I mean, how many classes a day does that make?*

B. *The duration of the course depends on the student's choice. There are two-week courses, and one, two, or three-month courses. We also offer courses with a certificate. They last from 6 to 10 months. Some of them end with a test in General English, the others with a test in Business English. All our courses are intensive. That means that classes are held every weekday, five one-hour long classes a day.*

A. *And on weekends?*

B. *Weekends are for relaxing after studies. On some of them, tours are organized – to London, Salisbury, Stonehenge, and to some other places. On other weekends,*

there are sports competitions, dancing parties, and so on. Our students do not get bored.

A. What does the fee include?

B. First of all, the tuition fee. It includes not only classes, but also using the teaching materials, the language lab – in fact, everything needed for learning. Then, there is the board and lodging, paid separately. Finally, there is the cost of all leisure activities – tours, using facilities, and so on.

A. And what about the airfare?

B. That is not included. But transfers from the airport to the school and from the school back the airport after the end of the program are included in the cost of board and lodging.

A. Are there any discounts?

B. Yes, if you register and pay three months before the start of your program, you will get a discount. But the payment deadline is one week before our classes start.

A. Does the same teacher teach all the classes in one group?

B. No, we have 5 highly qualified teachers, all with an M.A. degree. They teach almost every group, but they teach different courses in the program. For instance, one teacher specializes in conversation practice, another teaches reading and writing, and so forth.

A. Could I have the application forms, please?

B. Sure. Here they are. And here's our brochure where you will find all the answers. I hope to see your daughter at our school.

A. Thank you.

This way of procuring audio materials for an ESP course, though possible and never to be neglected, is quite hard – finding people who would agree to have their professional communication in English recorded and would give permission to use those recordings in the teaching/learning process, ensuring that the oral recorded communication is really typical for the selected themes and situations, etc. For instance, it took us several years to collect and record all such audio materials/samples for the coursebook *Business Project* (Tarnopolsky, & Kozhushko, et al., 2002) and the relevant content-based ESP course. Selection from the Internet resources when preparing the coursebook for future psychologists *Psychological Matters* (Tarnopolsky, & Kozhushko, et al., 2011a) was much faster and less labor-consuming.

The above approaches to selecting speech materials/samples make such selection well-grounded and logical – ensuring the choice of only those materials

and samples that are really authentic and typical for the pre-selected themes and situations of professional communication. The next logical step is, as already mentioned, the pedagogical processing of the selected speech materials/samples for making them ready to be used in teaching and learning. But this processing is outside the scope of learning content selection, so it will be discussed in *Chapter 4*. In this chapter, the subjects for further discussion are the third and fourth stages in the process of content selection itself.

5.2.3. The third and fourth stages in learning content selection

Before speaking about the third stage, the reader should be reminded that the second stage (selecting speech materials and samples) completes the selection of the entire communicative aspect of learning content (c.f. Fig. 9). Since the selected speech materials/samples demonstrate definite meanings of language units that are functioning in those materials, it allows passing to the following (third) stage of selecting the language inventory for the learning content. It should also be mentioned that the selection of such an inventory embraces, first of all, the selection of vocabulary and, to a much lesser degree, the selection of grammar (mostly for its reinforcement and not for learning as something new and unknown). The selection of materials for teaching pronunciation is not planned at all.

In what concerns the selection of both vocabulary and grammar, the sources for such selection naturally are the selected speech materials reflecting the themes and situations represented by them. The basic criteria for doing the selection are:

1. The *typicality* of every particular language unit to be selected (a word, a structure, etc.) for written and/or oral communication on a given professional topic (theme) and in given professional situations, i.e., how typical it is for native speakers, specialists in a given field, to use just such a language unit in written or oral discourses/texts when writing or speaking on a professional topic in question in professional situations in questions.
2. The *frequency* of every particular language unit to be selected (a word, a structure, etc.) for written and/or oral communication on a given professional topic (theme) and in given professional situations, i.e., how frequently native speakers, specialists in a given field, use just such a language unit in written or oral discourses/texts when writing or speaking on a professional topic in question in professional situations in questions.
3. The *explanatory potential* of every particular language unit to be selected (a word, a structure, etc.) for written and/or oral communication on a given professional topic (theme) and in given professional situations, i.e., what opportunities the language unit creates for explaining the basic notions and ideas connected with the professional topic in question.

The text about releasing feelings quoted above (5.2.2.) as an example of a typical speech material/sample for the theme “*Managing Emotions and Feelings*” used in teaching future practical psychologists is also a good example of a piece of written discourse on the basis of which both a part of the vocabulary to be learned and a part of the grammar material to be reinforced were selected for Unit 6 “*Managing Emotions and Feelings*” in the coursebook *Psychological Matters* (Tarnopolsky, Kozhushko, et al., 2011a). That speech sample and the others, both written and oral ones, selected for the unit served as a source of the vocabulary chosen for students’ mandatory acquisition when working on the professional topic in question. The choice was made according to the three criteria above. The vocabulary selected as mandatory for acquisition comprised 45 lexical units listed below which were all assembled in the *Glossary to Unit 6* placed for teachers’ reference at the end of the *Teacher’s Book* attached to the coursebook *Psychological Matters* (Tarnopolsky, Kozhushko, et al., 2011b). The lexical units included:

- | | |
|---|-----------------------------------|
| 1. accept | 24. law of attraction |
| 2. acknowledge | 25. manifest |
| 3. appreciate | 26. miserable |
| 4. attract | 27. muscle group |
| 5. breathe | 28. overwhelming |
| 6. chest | 29. power |
| 7. conscious | 30. powerful |
| 8. create a different reality | 31. privacy |
| 9. creator | 32. progressive muscle relaxation |
| 10. curl up | 33. reassure |
| 11. deep breathing | 34. recognize |
| 12. deny | 35. reinforce |
| 13. distract | 36. release |
| 14. empowerment | 37. responsibility |
| 15. explore | 38. scream |
| 16. express | 39. self-worth |
| 17. fulfilling life | 40. source |
| 18. happy experiences | 41. supportive |
| 19. healthy coping strategies | 42. suppress |
| 20. hit | 43. take over |
| 21. infinite possibilities and outcomes | 44. tension |
| 22. inner guidance system | 45. yell |
| 23. inward | |

In fact, the sample vocabulary for one unit, given above as a simple list, in the real *Glossary* for teachers (c.f. Tarnopolsky, Kozhushko, et al., 2011b: 163-165) contains explanations of meanings of all lexical items. It is done to provide

teachers with all the necessary references as to what meanings the students need to be taught.

The list of lexical units that is considered as mandatory for students' acquisition while working on *Unit 6* (like all the other similar lists compiled by us) comprises both special psychological terms related to the theme "*Managing Emotions and Feelings*" (*deep breathing, empowerment, law of attraction, reinforce, release, self-worth*) and lexical items belonging to General English (*appreciate, hit, take over*). The list certainly does not cover *all the vocabulary* with which students work when studying *Unit 6* in the coursebook. Only those lexical units are included into it that students do not know (with a great degree of probability) but which are important for the theme in question. Those lexical units that the students are very likely to know are not put into the mandatory vocabulary list – this is why the list above does not contain the names of emotions and feelings (like *anger, sorrow, love*, etc.) because they are supposed to be remembered by learners from their previous courses of English. But while working, on the unit allowances are made in the coursebook for giving students opportunities of reinforcing the vocabulary processed but not included in the mandatory lexical items list.

The same approach is followed when selecting grammar structures from previously chosen speech materials/samples – those structures that are planned to be reinforced in the teaching/learning process. A good example of grammatical items to be reinforced (as well as the demonstration of one of the ways of reinforcing them) can be found in one of the exercises in the *Workbook to Unit 1 "Forms of Businesses"* in the coursebook *Business Projects* for future economists and businesspeople (Tarnopolsky, Kozhushko, et al., 2002):

Write a conversation between two people who are planning to organize a partnership. The content of everything that is said has been written out for you. You need to make regular sentences of what is written. There are no modals or auxiliary verbs in the prompts. Use them wherever necessary. 'A' starts the conversation.

- | A | B |
|--|---|
| 1. What kind of /partnership/ /you/ to have in mind? | 2. A partnership /two/ – you and me. |
| 3. What /we/ /to be going to/ do? | 4. I /suggest/ /to open/ a cafe. |
| 5. But /we/ /to employ/ /a lot of staff/ / – waiters, cooks, and others. | 6. Not at all. I /to be/ /the cook/. /You/ /to know/ /I/ /to be/ good at /to cook/ /and to love/ to do it/. |
| 7. And what about /to employ/ waiters. | 8. There /to be/ no need/. Our families/ to work as waiters. |
| 9. And where /we/ /to open/ our cafe. | 10. I suggest /to open it/ on the bottom floor/ of your house.
/There /to be/ room enough there.
/Your house/ to be/ in a good place. /And we / not to need/ to pay the rent. |
| 11. Well, /I/ /to want/ /to think/ about it. | |

It can be seen that this exercise is designed to reinforce (train) the following grammatical structures in a communication-oriented learners' activity:

1. Word order in English affirmative, interrogative, and negative sentences;
2. Present forms of the verb "to be", including "there + to be" structure;
3. Present Simple tense structures (affirmative, interrogative, and negative);
4. Structures expressing future;
5. The infinitive form of verbs;
6. The gerund;
7. The modal verbs "can" and "must".

Such grammatical structures were selected for reinforcement as the most typical and frequent ones in those speech materials/samples that were chosen for the theme "*Forms of Businesses*" and the communicative situations matching this theme (topic): business interviewing; getting information concerning a particular company etc. (see the theme-situation matching list for the coursebook *Business Projects* in 5.2.1.). Besides, the selection of such grammatical structures to be reinforced at the very beginning of working on the coursebook *Business Projects (Unit 1)* seemed particularly important for one more reason. These structures are absolutely the fundamental ones for the grammatical system of the English language. So, recapitulating and reinforcing them during the very first classes of an ESP course is propitious for improving the grammatical accuracy of students' English communication in the course as a whole.

The fourth stage of learning content selection (selecting sociolinguistic and pragmatic information) does not necessarily follow the stage of selecting the language inventory. These two stages may, and in most cases should, go in parallel – because in both cases the selection is done from the same sources: the chosen speech materials reflecting the themes and situations represented by them. The basic two criteria for doing this particular selection are:

1. The differences between sociolinguistic and/or pragmatic aspects of communication in the target language and in students' mother tongue – if there is no difference or a great similarity, a particular sociolinguistic or pragmatic item is not taken into account at all and is not selected; the chances to be selected are the greater the greater the difference with L1 communication is.
2. The importance of sociolinguistic and/or pragmatic aspects of communication in the target language for avoiding misunderstanding or for avoiding giving offence to one's counterparts in communication – the more important the item is in that respect the more chances it has to be selected and included into the learning content.

From the point of view of these two criteria, the dialogue between a language school representative and a potential customer at the “*Languages and Cultures*” Festival given above (5.2.2.) as one of the selected speech samples is important for illustrating the sociolinguistic norm of asking polite questions in the British culture. The Russian interlocutor in the conversation begins with asking his questions in full accordance with that norm, i.e., not too directly and, therefore, politely:

Could you answer some of my questions, please?

Will you please tell me where you are located?

Then, in the following questions, he reverts to a more direct Russian mode of asking questions that may seem a bit too abrupt to his British counterpart in the conversation:

How long are the courses? (It would be better to ask: “*I wonder how long the courses are.*”)

And what about the airfare? (The alternative: “*Could you let me know if the airfare is included in the price?*” would sound more polite and formal)

Thus, the conversation in question can serve as a source of selecting some sociolinguistic information that is very important for students to know so as to behave properly in their own target language communication in accordance with the sociolinguistic norms.

In the same way, in what concerns pragmatic information for structuring one’s communication, the conversation between a language school representative and a potential customer at the “*Languages and Cultures*” Festival can help in clarifying the appropriate manner of supplying the requested information in oral business intercourse. Similarly, the quoted text about releasing feeling (see in 5.2.2.) may be a source of pragmatic information about the manner of logically connecting ideas in written discourse in English and of ensuring coherence and cohesion in that discourse, etc.

The selection of the language inventory and sociolinguistic and pragmatic information to be taught to students finalizes the selection of learning content in accordance with the linguistic aspect of that content and completes the third and fourth stages of selection. That allows passing to its last, fifth, stage which is focused on the psycho-physiological aspect of learning content selection: the selection of communication and language skills to be taught and learned for developing students’ communicative competence.

5.2.4. The fifth stage in learning content selection

In what concerns the language skills to be taught, their selection fully depends on the chosen language inventory.

For example, all the lexical units that were listed in 5.2.3. as belonging to the mandatory vocabulary on the theme “*Managing Emotions and Feelings*”

selected for the ESP course designed for future psychologists are supposed to be acquired by students in such a way as to be included into the overall structure of their lexical skills. This means that learners are expected to recognize and understand them with no difficulty when reading or listening, and mostly subconsciously, i.e., without special efforts for remembering, use them in their own oral or written speech (speaking and writing). The same concerns all grammar items listed in 5.2.3. as grammatical material for recapitulation and reinforcement when working on the first theme "*Forms of Businesses*" in the ESP course for students of Economics and Business.

In fact, no special selection is needed for determining what language skills students are expected to develop. The lists of such skills totally depend on the language inventory lists compiled for every particular ESP course. Since such inventories may be different for different content-based ESP courses (depending on students' majors, the peculiarities of their future professions, etc.), the language skills taught in a variety of ESP courses may also vary rather broadly.

The situation with selecting communication skills is different in certain respects.

On the one hand, the skills to be selected depend on the sociolinguistic and pragmatic information chosen for teaching and learning. For instance, it is clear from those items of selected sociolinguistic and pragmatic information which were given in 5.2.3. that for oral communication in English students majoring in Economics and Business need to develop the sociolinguistic skills of asking polite questions when speaking in a formal (official) situation, as well as the pragmatic skills of supplying orally the requested information through appropriate language means. This requirement follows from the sociolinguistic and pragmatic information items selected for such students from the sample conversation at the *Festival "Languages and Cultures"* (c.f. 5.2.3). For written communication in English, the students majoring in Psychology need to develop the pragmatic skills of logically structuring the texts that are being written and of making such texts united, coherent, and cohesive (also by using relevant language means). This latter requirement follows from the pragmatic information selected from the sample text about releasing feelings (c.f. 5.2.3).

In all such cases, the selection of communication skills to be taught and acquired is no more difficult than the selection of language skills on the basis of the selected language inventory. Students are expected to develop all communication skills that are based on the sociolinguistic and pragmatic communication norms demonstrated through the inventory of sociolinguistic and pragmatic information items selected for teaching and learning.

However, students must also develop other communication skills. They are connected not to the sociolinguistic or pragmatic communication norms but

to the requirements of professional communication in the target language that specialists may be involved in when engaged in their professional activities. Such skills are the specific skills of reading, speaking, listening, and writing for professional purposes in the target language, and they have to be adapted to the specificity of professional tasks solved by specialists.

When compiling the list of those skills to be taught to future economists and businesspeople (in the process of preparing the coursebook *Business Projects*), we interviewed, during the years 1996-1998, forty specialists in that field. All the interviewees were oriented in their professional activities at working with foreign partners, so they all knew English and quite frequently used it in their work. The interviewing was done on the basis of questionnaires that comprised the lists of possible skills to be developed. The interviewees were asked to comment on those skills of which they felt the greatest need in their professional work requiring the use of the target language and to add whatever other skills they deemed to be important.

Among the most important reading skills for them they named *skimming* (for finding what the texts that they were planning to read were about and whether they needed more detailed reading and understanding of them) and *scanning* (for full understanding of all the principal information in the texts being read while skipping the information of secondary importance). This is why they especially valued the skills of being able (a) to find the main idea(s) in the text as a whole and in its separate paragraphs; (b) to make logical connections between elements and parts of the text; (c) to determine what information in the text is of primary importance and which one is of secondary importance to be able to skip it; (d) to find in the entire textual information some particular (required) information as fast as possible, etc. On the other hand, the interviewees were very little interested in the skills of reading professional texts very attentively and thoroughly from the beginning to the end with the aim of understanding absolutely every smallest item of information in them. That was believed to be hardly applicable to their professional reading in English as a foreign language. So, top-down reading techniques were much more highly valued than bottom-up ones. In fact, it can be seen that the interviewees' requirements as to reading skills to be developed by ESP students coincided with what the experts in teaching reading in English as a foreign language have actually been recommending for decades (Dubin, 1986; Grabe, 1986; Carroll, Devine, & Eskey, 1988; Kellermann, 1981; Nuttal, 1996; Silberstein, 1994).

The target language oral communication skills (speaking and listening skills listed together as being parallel) that our interviewees considered to be the most important for them included:

Speaking skills

Orally supplying in English business and economic information in various situations of business intercourse

Business telephoning in English to partners, suppliers, customers, clients, etc.

Interviewing in English partners, suppliers, customers, clients, etc.; making inquiries with the aim of obtaining some specific required information.

Negotiating in English on business issues with partners, suppliers, customers, clients, etc.

Discussing/debating business and economic issues in English.

Delivering in English presentations on business and economic issues.

Conducting job interviewing in English and/or participating in such interviewing as an applicant for a job.

Listening skills

Understanding business and economic information that is being supplied orally in various situations of business intercourse

Understanding telephone calls in English from partners, suppliers, customers, clients, etc.

Understanding in all details when being interviewed in English on business and economic issues or when having to answer inquiries on those issues.

Understanding in all details what is being said by partners, suppliers, customers, clients, etc. in the process of negotiating in English on business issues.

Understanding in all details what is being said in the process of discussing/debating business and economic issues in English.

Understanding presentations on business and economic issues delivered in English.

Understanding in all details what is being said/inquired in English in the process of job interviewing.

Understanding business news and programs in English broadcast over the TV and radio.

(It should be explained in brackets that the last listening skill – understanding business news and programs – was something not foreseen by us. It was added by 19 interviewees out of 40. Due to the addition of that last skill, the item “*Business News*” was included into the audio materials to the coursebook *Business Project* – to train students in listening to such specific kinds of information in English. For those audio materials, fragments of authentic business news and programs were selected and recorded – to be processed and re-recorded later, see *Chapter 4* – but only those ones that were not firmly attached in what was

said to some specific time periods which would make them impossible to be used after that period had elapsed. An example can be given in the tapescripts of two fragments below which originate from an authentic *Deutsche Welle* program of 2002. The considerably modified fragments of that program continue each other and are used in the audio materials for the coursebook *Business Project* for business news listening tasks in two classes when working, first, on *Unit 3* and, later, on *Unit 4*:

1. The History of the Euro's Coming Into Europe

The year 2002 saw the replacement of the national money in a number of European countries with one international currency. It was the year when the Euro came into Europe. It's interesting to remember how such a radical step as replacing national currencies was made. How long did the transition periods last? In twelve European countries all cash transactions started to be made in Euros as of January 15, 2002. But national currencies were still usable up to a certain date to make the transition smoother and less painful. There were both economic and psychological reasons for this. Among them was the fact of some opposition to the Euro in a number of countries where the population found it difficult to switch and get used to new money.

2. The History of the Euro's Coming Into Europe (continuation)

The transition period, that is the period of double circulation when both the Euro and the national currencies were used, differed from one Euro zone country to another. Germany was the fastest. The mark's last day was December 31, 2001. But companies went on accepting the mark up till the end of February 2002. The Netherlands took the guilder out of use at the end of January 2002. It was followed by Ireland's pound on the 9th of February 2002. France waited until the 17th of February 2002, while the other countries concerned said good-bye to their currencies at the end of February. But if you didn't manage to spend the last of your national notes and coins in the double circulation period, you could still exchange them at your regular bank. But there were date limits at the banks, too. Germany was fast again and banks there stopped exchanging at the end of February 2002. The French, Irish, Spanish, Portuguese, and Luxembourgers could exchange till the end of June 2002. The Dutch and Belgians had time till the end of that year. But even after the latest date, the central banks continued exchanging. And it was the central banks who were responsible for destroying the old cash.

The tasks that were done by the students on the basis of listening to such fragments were: 1) discussing what was heard in pairs or small groups, which helped the teacher to check whether the fragments were adequately understood; 2) role playing interviews on the basis of news heard; 3) supplying learners' own items of business news – all of which helped in acquiring the skills of full comprehension of broadcast business news and programs in English.)

In what concerns the skills of writing in English for professional purposes, the interviewed specialists in Business and Economics selected the following ones:

- writing business letters and emails;
- compiling in writing business contracts and agreements;
- writing the notes of presentations and full texts of them (to orally deliver those presentations later);
- taking notes of presentations made by other people; taking notes in the process of business meetings, negotiations, etc.;
- writing reports on the work done (like in joint projects);
- writing different kinds of instructions;
- writing in message/note pads, i.e., taking telephone messages in writing.

It is interesting to note that, when we were selecting – in quite an identical manner (21 interviewees) – the communicative skills to be taught to students majoring in Psychology, the results obtained were substantially different:

1. The smallest difference was observed in what concerned the skills for reading in English. Actually, the only difference was a much greater interest in being able to read professional texts very thoroughly and attentively to understand all details – which was deemed to be necessary for reading professional (scholarly) articles, cases, and reports. All the other required skills were the same.
2. In speaking and listening the differences were much more easily observable. Telephoning skills and skills for listening to radio/watching TV programs were not required at all, while negotiating skills were much less valued. On the other hand, skills connected with interviewing (like during psychological sessions), presenting and reporting (like at professional conferences and seminars), discussing/debating professional issues were in much greater demand than with the economists and businesspeople. At the same time, the skills of supplying information, inquiring for information and corresponding listening skills were equally valued.
3. In writing, quite naturally, the skills of compiling contracts and agreements and taking telephone messages were not in demand at all. Equally required (as compared with the economists and businesspeople) were the skills of writing notes of presentations and full texts of them to orally deliver those presentations later at psychological conferences and seminars, as well as the skills of taking notes of presentations, reports, and, especially, lectures on professional issues being delivered by colleagues. The same concerned writing reports on the work done and, what seemed a little surprising to us, writing formal letters and emails. What was absolutely different from the requirements of economists and businesspeople, was the need to learn how to write notes, summaries, and abstracts of what has been read in English, as well as summaries and abstracts of one's own papers, and even (9 interviewees out of 21) short articles in English.

As can be seen from above, in content-based instruction future psychologists need to be taught different communication skills as compared with future economists and businesspeople. With the difference in language inventories, speech materials and samples, themes and situations of professional communication, this means that the learning content in a content-based ESP course for future psychologists greatly differs from the learning content in a content-based ESP course for students majoring in Economics and Business. And it is going to be the same for each of the two randomly chosen specialties in which our students major and which we choose for analysis. So, *in content-based instruction the learning content in ESP courses is totally dependent on students' majors and will inevitably be quite different for different majors.*

Therefore, the purpose of the last several sections in this chapter (see all the sections in 5) was not to supply the full learning content for ESP teaching to students of just two majors: Economics and Business and Practical Psychology – those were nothing more than practical examples. Its purpose was *supplying the complete practical procedure of rational, well-grounded, accurate and precise selection of ESP learning content for whatever content-based ESP courses designed for ESP tertiary students of all majors.*

Having finished the description of that procedure, we could finish this chapter with it – but for one important question. This is the question of ESP teachers who are not and cannot be specialists in all of students' majors. If in content-based instruction the learning content is very closely connected and fully dependent on the content matter of students' majoring disciplines and their future professional activities, the question arises how ESP teachers can cope with such content. This question is discussed in the last part of the chapter.

6. Preparing ESP teachers for teaching in content-based ESP courses for tertiary students

Preparing teachers for teaching ESP in programs where not only the language but the extra-linguistic professional content is in the focus of attention is one of the difficult issues that hinder the successful and comprehensive introduction of such programs (Coyle, 2007; Stoller, 2007). Due to this, some authors even express doubts as to the possibility of effectively using CLIL (Pugliese, 2011). These doubts spread to content-based instruction too, which is, as it is clear from what has been said earlier, a twin sister of CLIL.

Most certainly, such doubts are grounded in what concerns the English immersion programs where the greatest difficulty with the teachers arises.

In one of our previous works (Tarnopolsky, Momot, et al., 2008), it was shown that classes in immersion programs at tertiary schools cannot be taught by ESP

teachers. It should only be specialists in a given field of knowledge because, otherwise, even if the level of English is good, the level and standard of teaching the majoring/professional discipline is inevitably going to suffer.

If we exclude the cases when such disciplines are taught by native speakers of English, specialists in a given field, working in English immersion programs at tertiary educational institutions in non-English-speaking countries (not an infrequent case in today's Europe but the one that is beyond the scope of our analysis), there are only two possible options left:

1. The first and the best option is organizing the teaching of English immersion programs at tertiary schools by teachers with dual higher education: one in the field of languages (a certified teacher of English) and the other in the field of some of students' professional/majoring disciplines. Nowadays, it is not an infrequent situation, at any rate, at Ukrainian tertiary schools – for instance, at Alfred Nobel University in Dnipropetrovsk five ESP teachers have both higher education in Economics and higher education in the field of English language teaching. Naturally, they are the best candidates for teaching in English immersion programs and are actively engaged in such programs.
2. The second option is employing teachers, specialists in a given field, with a high level of command of English that allows them teaching classes in their specialty in this language. That level should not be lower than C1 (Council of Europe, 2001) because, otherwise it is hard to expect a sufficient linguistic standard of classes taught in English. This alternative is possible but worse than the first one because the sufficient level of potential teacher's English has to be confirmed – for instance, with a certificate of successfully passing a CAE or an IELTS exam. Besides, a professional teacher of English should also be included in the program to control and check the adequacy of its language component.

However, the problem and difficulty of finding an adequate (both in what concerns the language and in what concerns the discipline's content matter) teacher for an English immersion program loses its acuteness when the choice of such a teacher should be made for a content-based ESP course planned to be taught during students' junior years of university's studies (like the second year of such studies which is the case for practical examples given in this monograph). It may be said that in such situations it is more of a pseudo-problem.

Of course, even here, like in immersion programs, the teacher with dual higher education (English and its teaching and some other field corresponding to students' majors) would be the best option. But even if this is impossible, it should be remembered that, unlike immersion, which is a course of a certain discipline (first) taught in English (second), a content-based ESP course is in the first place a course of English and only in the second place a course modeling some professional discipline(s) through the medium of the target language. This

is why this course must be taught by a professional teacher of English and by no one else. As to preparing such teachers for the requirements of content-based instruction, it should be taken into account that such preparation is not too difficult and will not take much time.

First, this is because, as already said, content-based ESP courses are designed for students in their junior years of university studies, i.e., for those students who do not have too much knowledge of their future profession as yet. That is why content-based ESP courses embrace only the basics of that profession accessible and comprehensible to educated laypeople – both the students and the teachers. The ESP teachers in this case do not need to be specialists in a given field – the basic professional content matter embraced by whatever content-based ESP coursebook will be quite understandable to them, and they are not going to feel the necessity of going beyond such basics into more specific and technical details of students' future specialty.

Second, it should be remembered that during their teaching careers ESP teachers, as a rule, specialize in teaching English for Specific Purposes mostly only in certain fields of knowledge – Business, or Technology, or Medicine, or whatever other field – and are always reluctant to change that field. Such content-based specialization of ESP teachers that naturally happens is a great help in introducing content-based ESP instruction. If content-based ESP instruction for future economists and businesspeople is being dealt with, there are always enough ESP teachers who for years have been teaching Business English to just that category of students and who have acquired enough knowledge of Economics and Business during their careers to make a relevant content-based ESP course no problem for them in what concerns the content matter of that course.

Finally, since what we are discussing is content-based ESP courses at tertiary schools where ESP teachers work in the professional surrounding of specialists in their students' majors, there cannot be any problems in organizing short courses on certain specialties specifically for such ESP teachers even before they start teaching their content-based ESP courses – to help them cope with the professional basics of those courses.

Therefore, it may be asserted that the issue of preparing ESP teachers for teaching in content-based ESP courses is not an insurmountable problem at all and it can be successfully solved by every higher school.

7. Conclusion to Chapter 2

In this chapter the notion of content-based instruction, as the second (after experiential interactive teaching/learning) fundamental notion of the constructivist approach to designing ESP courses at tertiary schools has been analyzed. The definition of content-based instruction has been given, and it has been shown that the adequate implementation of the constructivist approach is impossible without both the experiential interactive teaching/learning and the content-based instruction taken in their integral unity. The characteristics of this integrated experiential interactive content-based ESP teaching/learning have been discussed as the only possible full practical embodiment of the constructivist approach to designing ESP courses at tertiary schools.

A version of content-based instruction, such as CLIL, has been analyzed with demonstrating that it is a broader notion than content-based instruction, the latter being meant for ESP courses at tertiary schools only. Also, an analysis of English immersion courses has been made as an approach closely related to content-based instruction that may continue it during the senior years of students' university studies. The manner of gradual transition from content-based ESP courses to English immersion in courses of students' majoring/professional disciplines in the senior years of their university studies has been substantiated.

The organizational forms of content-based instruction have been considered, and theme-based instruction has been demonstrated as an optimal form of it for ESP courses during the junior years of students' university studies.

Five component parts of learning content for a content-based (theme-based) ESP course have been determined and the five-stage procedure of selecting this content was described, with every stage of selection discussed in detail using appropriate examples.

Finally, some ideas concerning preparing teachers of English as a foreign language for teaching in content-based ESP courses have been formulated.

Everything said in the first and second chapters about experiential interactive teaching/learning and content-based instruction as the fundamental constituent parts of the constructivist approach to designing ESP courses for students of tertiary educational institutions allows proceeding to analyzing the third, last, of such basic constituents subordinated to the first two. It is blended learning discussed in the next chapter.

Chapter 3.

Using Internet technologies as the foundation of organizational forms in introducing the constructivist blended learning approach to teaching English for Specific Purposes at tertiary schools

This chapter is devoted to analyzing the third and last basic constituent of the constructivist approach to designing ESP courses for students of tertiary educational institutions – *blended learning*. It has already been mentioned that the first two fundamental constituents – experiential interactive teaching/learning and content-based instruction – are quite equal in what concerns their significance for effective implementation of the constructivist approach (see Fig. 6). On the other hand, it was also mentioned that blended learning as such is not absolutely indispensable for introducing that approach. For instance, the first version of it we developed when elaborating the ESP course and coursebook (*Business Projects*) for future economists and businesspeople had experiential interactive teaching/learning and content-based instruction at its base but without obligatory blended learning orientation. Blended learning was integrated into the approach only when developing the ESP course and coursebook for future psychologists. This particular aspect will be discussed in greater detail further.

In general, in the case under consideration, blended learning is meant only to support experiential interactive teaching/learning and content-based instruction, to improve them by making the teaching/learning process more intensified and efficient, thereby accelerating and facilitating language acquisition by students. Thus, blended learning is subordinated both to experiential interactive teaching/learning and to content-based instruction, as it is shown in Fig. 10.

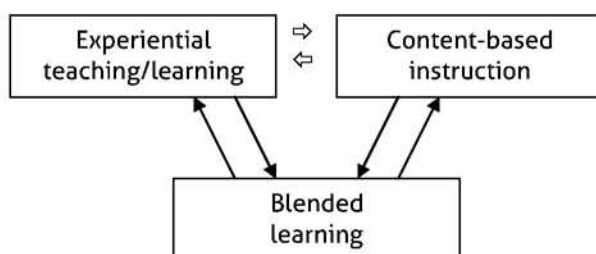


Fig. 10 The relations between experiential teaching/learning, content-based instruction (as two equally significant constituent parts) and blended learning (as a subordinated constituent part) when implementing the constructivist approach to an ESP course design

Blended learning, as it is clear from what was said in the *Introduction*, means using Internet technologies for language teaching and learning. There is nothing surprising in the subordinated position of such technologies in the constructivist approach discussed in this monograph. This is due to the very fact of their being only *technologies*, i.e., just *tools* in the process of language acquisition by students. The subordinated position of Internet technologies (and even broader – of all computer technologies) in second/foreign language teaching is current even in distance learning situations because achieving teaching and learning goals cannot be determined by tools alone, however sophisticated they may be. The attainment of those goals depends on the teachers, students, coursebook writers, on learning content, and on methods developed which determine how efficiently the tools (including the Internet) are used. In our case, it is such a method as experiential interactive teaching/learning and the learning content, whose selection procedure is dictated by content-based instruction requirements, that determine when, where, and how to use Internet technologies (blended learning) in the constructivist ESP course. On the other hand, nowadays the role played by Internet technologies in language teaching is so great that blended learning, which presupposes their mandatory use for facilitating and accelerating the target language acquisition, deserves to be postulated as one of the *basic* prerequisites for developing a genuinely up-to-date approach to designing ESP courses at tertiary schools. The possibilities provided by the Internet (to be discussed further in this chapter) for successful language learning, especially in what concerns its learning for professional communication, are so broad that no approach can be considered as fully adequate if those possibilities are neglected.

So, this chapter is intended to analyze how blended learning (Internet technologies) can help in implementing the constructivist approach in the framework of ESP courses taught at tertiary schools, i.e., how it (they) can help in ensuring the optimal and most successful implementation of experiential interactive teaching/learning method in the conditions when the learning content is selected following the content-based (theme-based) instruction's requirements to such selection. The chapter is also intended to analyze what modifications – in comparison with the descriptions in the two preceding chapters – in experiential interactive teaching/learning method and in content-based (theme-based) instruction are generated by the introduction of blended learning serving as an organizational tool for their practical implementation. But before discussing those issues, it is first necessary to analyze what place Internet technologies (and broader – computer technologies of which Internet technologies are only a part) occupy in today's language teaching and what opportunities they create for such teaching.

1. Computer and Internet technologies in target language teaching

The analysis of how Internet technologies are and can be used in ESP teaching first requires at least a short description of using computer technologies in general in foreign/second language studies since the former is but the subdivision of the latter. However, it should be noted that it is probably the most important subdivision for our case because Internet technologies have become the peak point in employing computers for improving, facilitating, and accelerating language acquisition.

The history of computerization in foreign/second language studies started in the last decades of the 20th century and got the name of *CALL* (*Computer-Assisted Language Learning*). Egbert (2005: 4) defined *CALL* as learning languages in whatever context with the aid of and by way of using computer technologies.

CALL has been developing gradually and a distinctive feature of this development has been the fact that the trends which manifested themselves from the very beginning are still active and have not been discarded as obsolete (as with a lot of other trends in foreign/second language teaching). For instance, the development of computer programs for teaching grammar was very popular at the very start of *CALL* when teaching aspects of language was in the focus of attention of computer programs' developers. But creating numerous grammar teaching programs continues even now, which can be seen in whatever most up-to-date computerized materials designed for training students in language skills required for taking international examinations in English, such as FCE, CAE, IELTS, TOEFL, and others.

In what concerns teaching target language vocabulary, the development of computer programs for that has even expanded with the appearance of *corpus linguistics* (Biber, Conrad, & Reppen, 2002). Corpus linguistics is aimed at determining all possible ranges of meanings and combinations of lexical units within a certain language. Utilizing special computer programs called *concordancers*, corpus linguistics is engaged in compiling *corpora* of actual uses of every given lexical unit and of its *concordances* – the list of possible combinations with other lexical units which makes clear all its possible meanings at the given stage of language development. It was soon discovered that compiling concordances of lexical units with the help of concordancer computer programs was quite accessible to language students and greatly facilitated and improved their vocabulary learning. This is why some experience has already been gained in teaching vocabulary by using the methods of corpus linguistics and relevant software (Fan, & Xu, 2006; Römer, 2004). The approach is based on giving students some lexical corpora and providing them with relevant concordancer programs. Students are requested to compile *concordance lines*

using that program and, on the basis of the concordance lines obtained, analyze the range of possible meanings, combinations, and usage of every lexical unit processed by them. The authors mentioned above have found that such an approach greatly contributes to improving and facilitating vocabulary acquisition by students – both for recognizing and understanding lexical units when reading and listening and for using them in speaking and writing. Besides, the approach is good for integrated teaching of vocabulary and grammar (Tribble, 2000).

There are also computer programs that teach pronunciation, especially target language intonation (students listen to the speaker and see the graphic patterns of his/her intonation on the screen; the aim of every learner is to try and imitate the intonation of the speaker in such a way that the graphic representation of his/her own intonation on the screen coincides with that of the speaker). Though such programs are sometimes strongly criticized as being of very little avail (González, 2010: 101-102), their real efficiency is beside the point for our discussion. The important thing is that even in such an unlikely field as teaching pronunciation, computers and computer language teaching programs can find their use.

In what concerns the computer programs for teaching target language communication skills (reading, writing, speaking, and listening), early programs of that kind were oriented exclusively at teaching written communication: reading and writing. That was quite natural because until comparatively recently computers could not speak. But such programs continue to be actively developed now too – due to the importance for students of learning target language written communication and, primarily, due to the best adaptability of computer technologies for teaching just this type of communication.

Computer programs for teaching reading are the simplest to develop. This is why they are being developed in great numbers, and the issues of their development are thoroughly analyzed in professional literature (c.f. AlKahtani, & Abalhassan, 1999; Chun, & Plass, 1997, and a number of other authors). The relative simplicity of developing such programs is due to the fact that checking readers' (students') understanding of a text read by them on the computer screen can be done by making learners choose a correct response alternative out of several ones or by some other similar test-type assignments for checking understanding. This is absolutely within the range of what computers can do (even with giving explanations of the mistakes made if a wrong alternative has been selected) because in all such cases the choice is only binary – yes or no – which corresponds to the basic principle of computer operation. That is why in teaching target language reading computer programs can even replace teachers to some extent.

Computer programs for teaching target language writing need to be much more sophisticated because writing is a productive communicative activity, so checking the correctness of students' work by making them choose one alternative response out of several suggested is of no avail. However, in teaching writing various computer programs are used probably even wider than in teaching reading.

Research has shown that their aid is incomparably valuable thanks to:

1. The opportunities given by the text processor because its use considerably facilitates, intensifies, and optimizes the development of writing skills due to creating conditions for multiple editing, amending, and improving the text being written by every particular student (Harmer, 2001; Slaouti, 2000).
2. The opportunities for accelerating and improving the development of students' spelling, punctuation, lexical, and even stylistic writing skills/techniques due to the availability of an editing program in every text processor, that program helping writers to find their spelling, punctuation, lexical, and stylistic errors and providing them with some alternatives for their correction (Kern, 2006).
3. The opportunities for teachers of improving and facilitating their own work on checking and correcting their students' written pieces due to using the same facilities provided by the text processor (Slaouti, 2000).
4. The opportunities for developing special computer training programs for training (or even drilling) some standardized writing skills/elements, like those that abound in business correspondence (Storozhuk, 2004).
5. The opportunities of combining students' individual training (or even drilling) of some standardized writing skills/elements with the help of specific computer teaching programs and their collaborative work with the teacher and/or other students on more creative writing assignments.

All these advantages of computer-assisted teaching of target language writing has led to considering working on students' writing skills development without using computers as something inadmissible for an up-to-date writing classroom.

Comparatively recently, with the development of computer technologies, programs for teaching listening and speaking have appeared. In what concerns computer programs for teaching listening in the target language, they have become especially popular due to the broad teaching opportunities given by the multi-media nature of audio materials listened to through computers: combination of sound, video, photos, pictures, animation, music, and even graphic texts when they are useful (Kern, 2006). Numerous authors believe in great advantages of teaching listening with the help of computer programs (c.f., for instance, Motteram, 2000), especially with the help of computer digital video programs (Brett, 2000) as compared with traditional technical appliances used in teaching practice, such as cassette recorders, CD players, video, etc.

Computer programs for teaching target language speaking also exist and begin to spread (Motteram, 2000). However, in this case there is the same limitation as in teaching writing with the aid of computers: computer programs can be used only for teaching some standardized elements of speaking, as well as for giving speaking tasks and supplying prompts to learners. More creative, genuinely productive, assignments need to be done in live communication – with the

teacher, other students, etc. But even in their auxiliary function computer programs for teaching target language speaking skills can be a great help in intensifying the development of those skills.

Computer programs have also started playing an increasing role in teaching the cultural aspects of communication and, in general, in teaching the target language culture (Kern, 2006). This role has especially gained significance after the emergence of the Internet (Thorne, & Thorne, 2000). The cause is due to the fact that nothing else can supply such an abundance and variety of cultural information ready for use in the teaching/learning process.

Finally, computerized testing as one of the most important component parts of CALL cannot be forgotten (Filcher, 2000; Harmer, 2001). The advantages of computer-based testing over the paper-based one in what concerns its efficiency, providing for mass testing of great numbers of candidates at once, comparative cheapness, objectivity, automated checking of test results, and opportunities of informing the examinees about those results not only immediately after testing but even in the process of testing itself are so great that computerized testing is gradually ousting the paper-based one in language teaching. And it is quite natural that some of the most prestigious international exams (tests) of English as a second/foreign language, such as TOEFL, are almost completely computerized.

Everything said above shows that there is not even one single aspect in teaching/learning second/foreign languages which is not embraced by the process of computerization of that teaching/learning – even without taking into account the Internet technologies to be discussed further. The computerization in question has such important advantages that up-to date language teaching can hardly be imagined without it. If we try to summarize those advantages (both those already discussed above and the ones to be first mentioned and explained below), their list should include at least:

1. Considerable intensification and optimization of students' acquisition of language skills (vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation).
2. Considerable intensification and optimization of students' acquisition of communicative skills in reading, writing, listening, and speaking.
3. The opportunity of improving and making more authentic the study and acquisition of target language culture and the cultural and pragmatic communication norms characteristic of the target speech community (Hymes, 1974), i.e., serious help in the process of development of students' target sociolinguistic and pragmatic competences.
4. Raising the testing of students' competence in the target language to a much higher level of efficiency and objectivity, creating better opportunities for mass testing of great numbers of candidates at once and for automated checking of test results.
5. Creating opportunities for constant automatic collection and systematization of data related to every individual student's progress during all the

period of his/her language learning (Chapelle, 1998) which is important for improving the organizational and administrative aspects of teaching.

6. The opportunity of using computer as a single technical device in the teaching/learning process which alone can replace all the other devices, such as cassette recorders, CD players, videos, TV, etc. Every computer can not only combine all the functions of those devices that are important for language teaching/learning. It can also surpass by far everything that all the other technical devices can do thanks to text processors, multi media, and everything else that computers have and the other technology does not.
7. Ensuring students' learning autonomy and teacher's pedagogical autonomy (Warschauer, 2002). In the *Introduction* and *Chapter 1* of this monograph the issue of learning autonomy was discussed as one of the most important ones in creating conditions for more successful language acquisition and for more democratic and humanistic structuring of the pedagogical process (Benson, & Voller, 1997; Dam, 2002). Only learning autonomy can develop the skills of learning efficiently and teach students to assume responsibility for their own learning. From this point of view, learners' work with computers is autonomous in its very nature, so when they use computers for language studies, it automatically develops their abilities of being autonomous in such studies. This is applicable to teachers too who, thanks to computers (especially to the Internet), get rid of the total dependence on the textbook(s) that they are using.

All these advantages of computerization in language studies allowed Warschauer, even before the avalanche-like spread of using Internet facilities in ESL/EFL teaching, to draw the conclusion that when we use computers in such studies "... we do not have old language learning plus the computer, but we have a different language learning" (Warschauer, 1998: 760). It is a new approach, a new stage in teaching and learning languages which creates opportunities for radically enhancing the efficiency of that teaching and learning ensuring far better learning outcomes.

It should be noted in passing that, since the introduction of computers into the process of teaching and learning languages has practically become an absolute necessity, the issue of ensuring language teachers' computer competence has come to the forefront (Warschauer, 2002).

That issue has become especially topical after the development of approaches to introducing Internet technologies into the process of second/foreign language teaching. If introducing computer language teaching programs had generated radical changes in that process, bringing Internet technologies into it gave rise to a real revolution. A number of opportunities were created that before had not existed at all. Those opportunities are so important for language teaching in general and for ESP teaching in particular that they deserve a special and detailed analysis.

Warschauer and Whittaker (1997: 27) name four principal reasons for introducing the Internet technologies into language studies:

1. They contribute to language acquisition thanks to the linguistic nature of online communication. It was discovered that electronic discourse is more complicated in what concerns its lexical and syntactic characteristics than oral discourse (Warschauer, 1996a), and it also manifests very many specific characteristics of speech functions (Chun, 1994; Kern, 1995). It is obvious how important and useful these features of electronic discourse are for language and communication skills acquisition.
2. They ensure the best conditions for teaching target language writing because authentic audience for written communication is provided (Janda, 1995).
3. They ensure the enhancement of students' learning motivation (Warschauer, 1996b).
4. They ensure students' gaining command of the skills of working on the Internet in English – those skills that are very important for future career success. Students do not need Internet only for learning English. Sometimes, English is required for acquiring efficient skills of working on the Internet (Warschauer and Whittaker, 1997).

The authors who have just been quoted did not pay special attention in the particular work that has just been mentioned to one more very important reason of using the Internet in foreign/second language teaching and learning. This reason is discussed by Harmer (2001: 146) who says that the Internet is *an inexhaustible source of information*, especially of information in English which makes for its broadest use in the process of teaching/learning. Though this information is mostly authentic, i.e., prepared by target language native speakers for other native speakers, however, it can be used for teaching/learning purposes, especially in what concerns ESP teaching (see further).

This gives an opportunity not only to teachers to extract from the Internet inexhaustible materials in English that, being authentic in the above sense, can at the same time be used as materials for the teaching/learning process aimed at students' acquisition of English as a second/foreign language. Obtaining information in English from the Internet can be done by students themselves as well. They can work on procuring and processing that information either after receiving a relevant assignment from their teacher or totally independently. In this way, learners can greatly expand and improve their contacts with the target language through constantly using that language when visiting different Internet sites in English. It is obvious how important this is, especially for ESP teaching and learning, because authentic professional sites in English become one of the principal sources of students' materials for learning the target language. Outside professional target language environment/outside professional target language sources of information are also provided which is a requirement for designing a really interactive model of ESP teaching and learning (c.f. *Chapter 1*).

Therefore, it can be asserted with confidence that *the principal advantages of using the Internet in ESP courses designed for tertiary schools are: 1) creating opportunities for teachers and authors/compilers of teaching materials to select (with no limitations) professional content-based authentic materials on professional Internet sites in English, thereby providing for the professional content-based orientation of the teaching/learning process as a whole; 2) creating opportunities for students of doing Internet research on professional Internet sites in English with the purpose of finding materials there for completing their learning assignments in the ESP course. This facilitates and accelerates students "self-constructing" their skills of professional target language communication.* These two advantages, or two functions, of Internet technologies will be further considered as the principal ones for introducing the blended learning constituent into the constructivist approach to ESP teaching and learning.

The functions in questions were also considered among the principal ones in another publication by Warschauer and his co-authors (Warschauer, Shetzer, & Meloni, 2000). In their work, the authors distinguished three principal functions of the Internet in learning English as L2:

1. Communication via the Internet and doing joint projects via the Internet. Communication via the Internet (e-mails, forums, chat rooms) can be with native speakers, the teacher, other students of English – from the same academic group, the same university, other universities in the same country, and from universities of other countries. Joint projects can be done in the same way, for instance, a project on researching the ecological situation in two big cities of two different countries. This project may result in writing a joint report that is presented by all participants. Presentations can be held simultaneously in the classrooms of different universities if the participants were working via the Internet only – with no live contacts and no opportunities of coming together for presenting the outcomes of the completed project. The intensive written communication required by such a project cannot but have a favorable impact on developing students' productive and receptive communication skills.
2. Information research on the Internet. This research provides students with numerous sources for completing their learning assignments (to be further discussed in this chapter). As already said, we consider just this function to be of primary importance and deserving to be mentioned first – though Warschauer, Shetzer, & Meloni (2000) put it only in the second position. The prioritizing functional significance of Internet research in comparison with Internet communication is due to the fact that the former can be organized with no problems at all and can occupy a considerable place in everyday teaching/learning process. On the other hand,

the latter may be used more episodically because it is much more difficult to organize.

3. Publication of students' works in the Internet network. If a group of students together with their teacher create their own web-page in English and the best students' works, such as essays, are published there, it creates additional and very strong stimuli for learners to improve their communication skills, especially their writing skills. This is because the web page can be accessed and read by many different people, not only the students themselves and their teacher. This creates broad potential readership for what the students have written – making them try and do their best in order to produce pieces of writing that could interest and attract all visitors to their web-page. Besides, in such a case, prerequisites are created for publishing students' own online journal in English which makes their English studies even more motivated uniting all learning efforts in the framework of one meaningful and creative communicative activity.

Sharma (2003) was one of the first to emphasize the greatest potential of the Internet in ESP teaching and learning, particularly in teaching and learning Business English. In his book co-authored by Barrett (Barrett, & Sharma, 2003) one important point made by the authors was disclosing the *interactive nature* of using the Internet in ESP/Business English courses. According to them, such interactivity is obvious even in cases when the Internet is used for information research only. This feature is of cardinal importance in the context of our monograph in view of those characteristics of the approach suggested in it that were discussed in the first chapter. Interactivity distinguishing the work with the texts placed on the Internet from reading ordinary linear printed texts is manifested through:

- "choice of route through the material. This can be determined by the user, using hyperlinks to move off in different directions
- choice of media. The user can make decisions how many times to use an audio clip, or choose when and whether to access a video clip, etc.
- submission of answers or information. The learner fills in a form or completes an activity, submits this and receives some kind of feedback
- customising. The learner can input data and receive specific information" (Barrett, & Sharma, 2003: 35).

Everything said in this section shows the great potential of using computer technologies, and Internet technologies among them, in language teaching. Since it is the Internet (in the framework of blended learning) that mostly interests us, the next issue to be discussed is the organizational structure of introducing Internet technologies into ESP courses at tertiary schools.

2. The organizational structure of introducing Internet technologies into ESP courses at tertiary schools

A very logical organizational structure of using the Internet for teaching ESP/ Business English was suggested by Barrett and Sharma (2003: 38). They have divided the forms of using the Internet in such classes of English into two basic ones: *on-line* (in-class use directly during the lesson of English) and *off-line* (out-of-class use with utilizing the materials found during the Internet search for doing later in-class assignments).

According to Barrett and Sharma (2003: 38), *on-line* lessons should consist of three main stages:

1. *Pre-computer work*. It is the period when the teacher sets the task for students to do when they are working with the computer.
2. *Computer work*. It is the period when students are directly involved in working on the Internet, mostly searching for some information there in accordance with the task set.
3. *Post-computer work*. It is the period of work during the lesson when students are supposed to report in some form on the results achieved by them when working on the Internet.

As it can be seen from above, for in-class work on the Internet Barrett and Sharma mostly recommend students' Internet research, thus implicitly endorsing our assumption that such research is the principal form of using the Internet in language teaching and learning. But the authors also suggest other possible *on-line* uses of Internet technologies in ESP/Business English classes (Barrett, & Sharma, 2003: 38):

- students may use web-sites as parts of presentations delivered by them in class;
- the same can be used by the teacher (s/he may use a web-site as part of his/her presentation);
- students may collaborate when doing some learning project in class via the Internet. Barrett and Sharma (2003, 38) give the example of creating students' own website as a learning project.

Two kinds of on-line Internet work distinguished by Barrett and Sharma (2003: 38) are organized not directly in class but immediately precede or immediately follow the lessons. They include:

- learners doing a task on a web-site just before their arrival for a lesson (pre-lesson task);
- learners following the lessons with some task done on a web-site (post-lesson task).

Off-line use of the Internet facilities, according to Barrett and Sharma (2003: 38), embrace all cases when students work on the Internet out-of-class with the aim of using the results of their Internet search (the materials taken from web-sites) during the following lessons. For instance, such materials can be used as a stimulus for in-class discussion, or as the informational foundation for students' presentation, or as information relevant in doing project assignments, etc.

Both the on-line and off-line organizational forms are possible and necessary to be used in ESP courses at tertiary schools. A third organizational form that was not accounted for by Barrett and Sharma is also possible. It is implemented through students working on the Internet mostly in their classroom – doing the Internet search in accordance with the task(s) given by the teacher (pre-computer and computer work in the on-line alternative suggested by Barrett and Sharma). After that, the material found during the search is processed out of class and the results are reported in one of the following classes, for instance, when students make presentations summarizing their findings on the web. In this case, the post computer work of Barrett and Sharma is organized following the off-line pattern. This creates the *third, mixed, on-line-off-line organizational structure of using the Internet for teaching ESP*.

This was our primary organizational structure when developing the constructivist blended learning approach because it has a number of advantages specifically for the conditions of ESP teaching at tertiary schools:

1. It solves all possible problems with students having difficulties in accessing the Internet out of class. Universities nowadays are mostly sufficiently provided with Internet facilities to organize students' computer work in the classroom. But in some countries (like Ukraine) not all students have Internet connections at home. So, making them do frequent (more often than once in one or two weeks) Internet search assignments out of class would mean for them the necessity of frequently visiting Internet cafes and paying for using the facilities there. It is not always ethical to make students incur such additional expenses too often. As to doing the Internet search assignments in universities' computer laboratories during after-class hours, this is not the best solution for all cases either because computer laboratories/classes are regularly overcrowded at some universities so that a student may need to wait a couple of days to find a place to work there. Therefore, only computer work during lessons can ensure that all students do their *mandatory and most important for the learning process* Internet search assignments in time and without organizational problems.
2. Students are not always competent and proficient enough in doing their Internet search and working with information sources from the Internet, especially if those sources are in English. When their Internet search is teacher-supervised, such problems disappear because students can al-

ways turn to their teacher for help. This approach can also accelerate students' Internet proficiency development (especially in what concerns working with Internet sites in English).

3. The suggested organizational form enables students' groups engaged in computer/Internet assisted ESP learning to occupy computer classes/laboratories with Internet connection only for what they are really needed – for working on the Internet. Students come to a computer class/laboratory, get instructions from their teacher, and work on the Internet all through the class period (pre-computer and computer work according to Barrett and Sharma – see above). Post-computer work is done in traditional classrooms, not in computer ones as it follows from Barrett and Sharma's scheme of on-line lessons. That makes using computer classes/laboratories much more economical and cost-effective because working in computer classrooms without using computers is totally avoided.
4. If blended learning is combined with the constructivist approach to ESP teaching/learning (as it is advocated in this monograph – see the *Introduction*), the Internet research done by students becomes *regular and mandatory*. Making some learning activity regular and mandatory requires considerable organizational efforts, especially at the early stages of introducing that activity. This is why at early stages in a constructivist ESP course it is better to organize the *most important* students' Internet search activities in class and under teacher's direct supervision.

It was due to the reasons listed above that in our ESP course for future psychologists embodied in the coursebook *Psychological Matters* (Tarnopolsky, Kozhushko, et al., 2011a) special *Internet search classes* were introduced into the course and coursebook structures. Every *Internet search class* is a two academic hour class period held in one of university's computer classes/laboratories and totally devoted to students' mandatory Internet search (pre-computer and computer work) done under the teacher's supervision. The search is done to collect materials for doing some creative learning assignment with the results to be reported during one of the following class periods held in a traditional classroom but not in a computer one (post-computer work).

Such Internet search classes are held approximately once every three weeks – as every sixth or seventh class period in the framework of the entire ESP course. The two academic hour-long Internet search class period (eighty minutes which make two academic hours by Ukrainian standards) is divided into two equal parts with 40 minutes allocated for each of the parts. Each of the two parts is numbered: *Internet search 1* and *Internet search 2*.

An example of *Internet search 2* assignment has already been demonstrated in section 2.3.1 of *Chapter 1* devoted to students' project work. In the coursebook *Psychological Matters* all *Internet search 2* assignments are designed in quite a

similar manner because all of them are aimed at students collecting the materials for preparing separate parts of their *Short Psychological Encyclopedia* – a through project that learners work on during all the period of their studying an ESP course for psychologists (c.f. 2.3.1 in Chapter 1).

Unlike *Internet search 2*, *Internet search 1* assignments are more short-termed tasks aimed only at one professional theme under discussion within the boundaries of just one unit of the coursebook (not aimed at something as general and embracing the entire course as *A Short Psychological Encyclopedia*). The results of *Internet search 1* are supposed to be reported by students not later than the next class period. Three examples of *Internet search 1* assignments are given below to demonstrate the variety of creative experiential learning tasks that learners may do on the basis of the information obtained in their Internet search. The first is taken from Unit 7 of the coursebook *Psychological Matters – Personality and Individual Differences*.

Internet search 1. As you most probably know, the important parameters of people's personality are:

- Extraversion/Introversion (whether a person is talkative, sociable, and socially self-confident or the opposite of that);
- Agreeableness (whether a person is cheerful, warm, and empathic or unsympathetic and grumpy);
- Openness to experience (whether a person is curious, imaginative, and artistic or practical and focused);
- «Natural Reactions» (whether a person is calm and contented or easily upset, tense, and anxious);
- Conscientiousness (whether a person is hard working, self-disciplined and well-organized or disorganized, easily distracted, and unreliable).

Now, working in the Internet class, do an Internet search using the web sites that your teacher recommends and some other sites that you will be able to find.

First, divide into five small groups (from two to three students in every group). Second, every group should choose one of five personality parameters. For instance, the first group can choose Extraversion/Introversion, the second Agreeableness, the third Openness to experience, etc. You are required to choose only one parameter and inform your teacher which one it is going to be, so that all groups have different parameters to work on.

Now your task is to search on the site or sites recommended to you or the ones that you have found yourselves for information about the personality parameter that you are studying. You should find both general information and practical illustrative information (for instance, information about behavior and problems of certain people who are introverted, or are not open to experience, or are easily upset, tense and anxious – case studies).

On the basis of the information found, prepare a presentation of about five-minute duration on the personality parameter that you have studied. In the next

class, you will have to deliver your presentation to all the other students who will then discuss it. Decide what each partner from your small group will present.

You have 40 minutes to do the assignment.

The second example is taken from Unit 8 of the coursebook *Psychological Matters* with the topic *Psychotherapy*.

Internet search 1. *Working on the Internet class, do an Internet search using the web sites that your teacher recommends and some other sites that you will be able to find.*

Divide into groups of four students. Every group should find and read on the Internet one case study of psychotherapeutic problems. You are required to inform your teacher what particular case your group is going to study, so that all the groups have different ones. On the basis of the information found, prepare "a seminar of psychotherapists" for the next class. During the 15-minute seminar that each small group is going to conduct in the next class, two students from that group will present the case: they will speak about the client's problem(s) and complaint(s) that s/he came with to the therapist. They will also discuss what real underlying causes of the problem(s) and complaint(s) were revealed during the first psychotherapeutic sessions. After that, the third student from the small group will ask the opinions of "colleagues" (all the other students from the class who are taking part in the "seminar") as to how the problem(s) should be dealt with (what the psychotherapist should do during the following sessions to help that particular client). When all the ideas are collected, the fourth presenter should inform what the course taken by the psychotherapist who described the case on the Internet site really was. The 15-minute seminar should finish with the discussion of the relative merits and demerits of the courses of treatment suggested by "the participants of the seminar" (students) and the psychotherapist who was actually dealing with the case.

You have 40 minutes to do the assignment.

The last example is taken from Unit 9 of the coursebook *Psychological Matters*. The name of the unit is *Gestalt Therapy*.

Internet search 1. *Working in the Internet class, do an Internet search using the web sites that your teacher recommends and some other sites that you will be able to find.*

Divide into pairs. Every pair should choose one or two of Gestalt techniques or one or two of Gestalt exercises. Do not limit yourselves to those techniques and exercises that you have already read about or discussed. You can and should find some other kinds of them in the Internet (for instance, the awareness continuum in a meditative context exercise). You are required to inform your teacher which kind of techniques or exercises your pair is going to work on, so that all pairs have different ones.

Now your task is to search on the site or sites recommended to you or the ones that you have found yourselves for information on psychotherapeutic sessions where such techniques or exercises are used. The best option would be to find particular cases and transcripts of sessions that can serve as examples.

On the basis of the information found, prepare a role-play of about three-minute duration in which you will model a part of a (Gestalt) psychotherapeutic session. During the session, the technique or exercise that you found in the Internet has to be demonstrated. So, you have to invent the case of a client (one student in the pair) that would make appropriate the use of such a technique or exercise by a psychotherapist (the other student in the pair). In the next class, after demonstrating your 5-minute role-play, you will both have to make a 3-minute presentation where you will need to give the reasons for choosing just that technique or exercise for the particular case given and discuss what was expected to be achieved (search for the reasons for using each particular technique or exercise on the Internet as well). You should also be ready to answer the questions from the other students and the teacher concerning the technique or exercise that you were demonstrating in your role-play and concerning the appropriateness of its use.

Discussing in your pair the materials found during the Internet search, decide what role each partner will play in your role-play and prepare a draft of it (a draft script). You should also prepare the plan of your short presentation after the role-play and decide what each partner will say during the presentation.

You have 40 minutes to do the assignment.

The examples above demonstrate that students' Internet searches can and should be organized to do productive, creative, and experiential tasks on the basis of their results, so that speech reception – while reading (or listening to) professional information on Internet sites – leads to speech production like preparing and delivering presentations, conducting seminars, role playing, etc. The speech production in this case is not limited to speaking; writing is involved as well. First, to prepare a presentation (see the first example), students need to write its notes; to conduct a seminar like it is required in the second example, the description of a particular case needs to be written, etc. Second, the task connected with the Internet search may be directly focused on writing – like writing an essay, a report, or an abstract on the basis of the information found (c.f. also Weissberg, 2009).

Another peculiarity of the given examples that deserves attention is the fact that all three of them involve students doing their Internet search in pairs or small groups. Though this is absolutely optional and students can do the Internet search individually (and should quite often do so to develop their learning independence), collaborative Internet research has some considerable advantages:

- students communicate in English with each other which is helpful in developing their speaking skills (it is the supervising teacher's duty to block any attempts to use learners' L1 in the process of their collaborative Internet search);
- students with better competence in using the Internet can help and teach the students whose proficiency in that respect is at a lower level;
- if the computer class/laboratory with the Internet connection where the students are working has fewer computers than the number of students in the group, collaborative Internet search solves the problem.

The third peculiarity which is most clearly observable in the second example above is the help that the Internet research can render in developing students' *critical thinking* – in Freire's (1973) understanding of the term – in their language studies. Discussing and critically evaluating during the modeled "seminar of psychotherapists" the professional information found on the Internet is a very good way of developing critical thinking through the medium of the target language. Though in principle all experiential learning activities are propitious for critical thinking development, as follows from their description in *Chapter 1*, the Internet research tasks place such development on a much more regular basis thanks to supplying students with numerous materials on which to practice their critical thinking skills. Therefore, such tasks are of great importance in forming and improving those skills whose development is considered to be one of the priorities in contemporary language teaching (Kabilan, 2000; Mitsaki, 2012).

The fourth and last peculiarity of the given examples to be discussed is the fact that in each of the examples (instructions for learners) it is indicated that the teacher is supposed to provide students with the addresses of some sites where to do their Internet research. An important issue is where the teacher is supposed to take those sites. This question is answered in the *Introduction* to the *Teacher's Book* attached to the coursebook *Psychological Matters*. The quotation below from the aforesaid *Teacher's Book* explains that:

*"To organize students' Internet searches, the teacher has to be able to recommend different professional web sites in English to his/her students. For this purpose, s/he is required to collect and constantly renew his/her **Library of psychological sites in English**. The authors of the coursebook could not provide the teacher with such a Library of sites because the sites themselves and the information in them frequently change. Of course, beginning to collect his/her Library of sites, the teacher should better use as a starting point those web sites that are indicated in the Student's Book and Workbook as sources of the texts for reading. Some of those sites may lead him/her to other sites and in this way help to create the entire Library. But the teacher should keep in mind that, first, the **Library of sites has to be collected before the work with the coursebook begins in the classroom** (the teacher is going to need his/her Library from the very first class on Unit 1) and, second, **the teacher has to check the collected sites at least once in two months to be able to replace the sites that have become obsolete or disappeared.**"* (Tarnopolsky, Kozhushko, et al., 2011b: 12).

This recommendation is valid for every kind of ESP course based on whatever students' majoring disciplines if learners' Internet search is planned to be introduced as a regular and mandatory learning activity. In this case, the teacher should always be able to recommend a number of Internet sites in English to his or her students (especially if students' Internet search is conducted in the classroom), both upon request and when giving them assignments on doing that search. This is possible only if s/he is in possession of a well-stocked, con-

stantly replenished and renewed library of such sites adapted to all the possible needs of the teaching/learning process. On the other hand, the teacher is supposed to teach the students how to find relevant sites in English on their own, i.e., how to best use search engines to become independent in their Internet research learning activities (and in later professional activities when doing Internet research for professional purposes on professional Internet sites in English).

Everything said above about learners' Internet research in their ESP classroom does not mean that out-of-class (*off-line* in the terminology of Barrett and Sharma, 2003) Internet research is meant to be totally excluded. Out-of-class students' work on the Internet is receiving increasing attention in language teaching today (Symposium on language learning beyond the classroom, 2012) and can by no means be disregarded. The approach that is suggested in this monograph envisages quite broad and regular use of students' off-line activities. That can be shown by examples of learning tasks (home assignments) taken from the course-book *Psychological Matters* (Tarnopolsky, Kozhushko, et al., 2011a). Three such home assignments are quoted below:

1. *Divide the class in two groups. The students from the first group (group A) have to read the text in activity 6 from Unit 2, Step 1 in the **Workbook**. This short text is devoted to the behaviorist Edward Lee Thorndike. The students who are going to read the text should get ready to be interviewed about the life and work of Edward Lee Thorndike (find additional information about him on the Internet using the site or sites recommended by your teacher). The students from the second group (group B) have to read the text in activity 7 from Unit 2, Step 1 in the **Workbook**. This short text is devoted to the behaviorist Clark Hull. The students who are going to read the text should get ready to be interviewed about the life and work of Clark Hull (find additional information about him on the Internet using the site or sites recommended by your teacher) (Unit 1. Psychology and Its Branches).*
2. *Prepare a presentation in pairs on the basis of text 1 from Unit 8, Lead-in in the **Workbook**. That text discusses nine different approaches, or branches, in psychotherapy. Your teacher will now tell you what approach, or branch (it may be two approaches or branches), every pair will be discussing in their presentation. The pairs will have to give a 5-minute presentation on those approach(es) or branch(es). For preparing the presentation, use not only the text from the **Workbook** (there is too little information on each approach or branch, in it). Find additional information on the Internet, using the sites recommended by your teacher. (Unit 8. Psychotherapy).*
3. *Divide into small groups of 3-4 students in each of the groups. On the basis of text 1 from Unit 10, Lead-in in the **Workbook** (see the assignment above), and also on the basis of what you were reading and discussing in this class, prepare*

*in your small group a 10-minute presentation under the title **What Psychological Counseling Is, What it Isn't, How and in What Cases It Can Help People** (the time for every presentation includes the time for possible additional questions from other students and the teacher when the presentation is over). For preparing the presentation, use not only the text from the **Workbook** and the materials from the Lead-in in the Student's Book. Find additional information on the Internet, using the sites recommended by your teacher. Also keep in mind that a Contest of Presentations is going to be held in the next class and one presentation (and the small group who prepared it) will be proclaimed the winner of the Contest (Unit 10. Psychological Counseling).*

As it can be seen, off-line students' Internet research can also be mandatory and indicated as such in assignments included in the coursebook. It should be so to provide optimal conditions for blended learning because in-class Internet search done, as it is suggested above, only once in three weeks is hardly sufficient. (In-class Internet search cannot be made more frequent since most of the class time should be devoted to natural, and not virtual, communication in the target language.) Therefore, students should get additional off-line Internet search assignments at least once in two weeks – once a week if possible. On the other hand, such assignments can hardly be made more frequent not to overload learners, especially in conditions as those mentioned before, when finding Internet access outside the university can pose financial problems for some students.

Since, as indicated in section 1 of this chapter, Internet search is only one of the possible ways of using Internet technologies for EFL/ESP teaching and learning, it is now necessary to discuss what place other ways can occupy in the organizational structure of introducing the Internet into ESP courses.

In general, all the possible ways of using Internet technologies for teaching ESP should be divided into two categories: the *principal (mandatory)* ways and the *optional* ones.

Since the structure and the process of teaching and learning every ESP course depends on the coursebook that is chosen for that course, the principal (mandatory) ways can only be those that the author(s) of the coursebook can regularly utilize for designing learning assignments that are included into the coursebook and that students are supposed to do by all means.

It is clear that only Internet research assignments can be listed as mandatory Internet-based activities of this kind because nowadays hardly any tertiary school may be found that is unable to organize sufficiently regular on-line Internet search classes for their students. Even off-line Internet research, if it is not too frequent (see above), can be safely made mandatory, at least for most universities. This is why Barrett and Sharma, often quoted in this chapter, aimed at on-line and off-line students' Internet search, and at practically nothing else,

the organizational structure developed by them – that of using the Internet for teaching ESP/Business English (Barrett, & Sharma, 2003: 38).

On the other hand, all the other Internet-based ESP learning activities should better be included into the category of *optional* ones, and whether to utilize them or not should be decided by the teacher depending on local conditions, particular curriculum and a lot of other factors.

For instance, using computer ESL/EFL teaching programs that were discussed in section 1 of this chapter – and first of all, the programs on the Internet because they are often renewed and modernized – is very desirable and can greatly help in accelerating the development of learners' communication and language skills. But utilizing such programs cannot be made mandatory and indicated as such in the coursebook for whatever ESP course. First, this is because every particular program indicated there can disappear from the Web during the period the coursebook is being used (or from the market if it is a stationary program on CDs). Second, using such programs is not free and it is hardly ethical to include payable learning activities into a coursebook as mandatory ones. So, a coursebook author can only recommend using computer/Internet programs as optional learning activities citing some relevant programs that may be used while they can still be found on the Web or on the market.

The same concerns communication via the Internet, such as e-mail, chat rooms, forums, etc., and also doing Internet projects with other students – including students from other universities and even other countries. Those activities are also more than desirable to be involved in a constructivist blended learning ESP course. Giving students tasks via the Internet and receiving their completed tasks in the same way; receiving consultations, prompts and assessments from the teacher electronically; participating in forums and chat rooms in English on the issues connected with learners' majoring disciplines; doing via the Internet joint learning projects with students from different universities and different countries; communicating via e-mail with students who have identical majoring disciplines to learn but who are native speakers of English – all such activities raise the process of ESP teaching and learning onto a much higher level. This is why, when there are opportunities for using those activities, they should be used by all means. But whether those opportunities do exist, can be decided only locally; this is why the activities in question cannot be introduced into an ESP course as mandatory ones by a coursebook writer or a compiler of a sample curriculum, though recommendations in that respect should be given.

Some words should be said separately about using e-mail correspondence in ESP courses. The skills connected with such correspondence in English are very important nowadays for a specialist in every field. This is why even special coursebooks are published for teaching emailing in English (c.f., for instance, Emmerson, 2004). So, if there is an opportunity of using emailing in English in ESP courses (and that opportunity exists quite often), it should be used in

a mandatory manner. But first, that mandatory nature of e-mail use cannot be regulated by a coursebook or even a curriculum/syllabus. It is for the teacher to decide where and how to utilize it depending on the particular conditions in which s/he and his/her students are working in every particular academic environment. Second, ESP courses are not designed for teaching students emailing in English. Being one of the fundamental survival skills nowadays, emailing should be taught in preceding courses of General English. Therefore, in our case, emailing is included in the list of optional learning activities for an ESP course.

Finally, the last form of using the Internet in EFL/ESP teaching mentioned in section 1 of this chapter was publishing students' written works on the Web. This activity, just like emailing, is also practically mandatory if the university has its own website and different web-pages on it (which is unavoidably so now). Besides, there is always an alternative of students' creating their own website or a web-page for publishing their works. But from the point of view of designing an ESP curriculum, syllabus, course, or of writing an ESP coursebook, this activity can only be optional, though strongly recommended to the teacher, because it is only on the decisions of the latter that the time, place, and choice of students' works to be placed on the Web can depend.

It should also be noted that if students have access to computers (and this is practically a universal situation now), they should be requested to do all their written works on computers only and not hand them in handwritten. That must be done to inure learners to using all the advantages of the text processor discussed in section 1 of this chapter.

Everything said in this section about the organizational structure of using the Internet for teaching ESP at tertiary schools can lead to the conclusion that *such a structure should presuppose the inclusion of students' Internet research as an absolutely mandatory learning activity into an ESP coursebook and ESP course as a whole, the relevant activities being done both on-line and off-line. All the other ways of using computer/Internet technologies can be regarded only as optional, though as highly desirable ones, and their use should depend on local conditions and the teacher's judgment.*

Having decided that, it is important to explain how Internet research can help in implementing the constructivist approach, namely, its two principal constituents: the experiential interactive teaching/learning and the content-based instruction. This is the subject matter of the two following sections in this chapter.

3. Internet research as a means of implementing experiential interactive teaching/learning

Beginning the discussion of this issue, it should be noted that conducting Internet research on Internet sites in English by itself ensures the intensification of development of learners' English reading skills. If such sites include audio and video materials (which is a very frequent case now), the intensification involves the development of listening skills as well. This is quite understandable and does not require additional explanations since intensification happens simply because of expanding learners' communication practice in those two kinds of receptive communication activities. Due to the same cause, students' lexical and grammatical language skills will also develop in a more intensified manner. That especially concerns receptive lexical and grammatical skills for reading and listening but those skills can easily become more productive and start serving speaking and writing if vocabulary and grammar initially acquired through reading and listening begin to be actively used in speech production when learning tasks require such using.

It should also be noted that in students' Internet research, the information search activities characteristic of a future specialist's (in whatever field) professional work are faithfully modeled. As a result, when students' Internet research is being done in the process of ESP learning, the principal advantage of experiential teaching/learning is ensured: subconscious acquisition of target language communication and language skills in an extra-linguistic activity modeling professional activities and aimed at solving professionally oriented learning tasks. *This is the reason why in Chapter 1 Internet research was included into the list of experiential learning activities.*

The same applies to using Internet research for acquiring target language writing skills. For instance, if such research is done with the purpose of obtaining certain data required for writing an academic essay or with the purpose of obtaining some materials required for reporting in writing on the learning project's intermediate results, that research does not just supply information or provide ideas for the essay or report in question. It also supplies samples of written professional communication in the target language – the samples illustrating the peculiarities of style and formatting, lexical and grammatical peculiarities, ways of expressing one's ideas when writing on professional issues in the target language, etc. Such samples are meant to be attentively studied and followed when students are writing their own works.

Internet research also plays a significant role in developing students' speaking skills. But discussing that requires special analysis of Internet research's impact on all those experiential learning activities that were under consideration in *Chapter 1*. Such an analysis is also required to understand in greater detail Internet's influence on the development of all the other communication and language skills.

3.1. Internet research in organizing role plays and simulations

In this case, like in all the others, Internet research plays its principal role – that of supplying information and samples for students' speaking.

For instance, if students of Economics and Business are expected to simulate some kind of business negotiations, they may be requested to find on the Internet several samples of business talks in English, represented both as graphic texts and as recorded ones (e.g., *YouTube*) to provide them with the examples to follow in their own speaking. If students of Psychology are given the task of role playing a certain type of psychological session, finding recorded samples of several such sessions on the Internet would be a rational first step so that students have better ideas how it is done, what lexical, grammatical, stylistic and other peculiarities of oral communication are characteristic of such sessions, etc. Using samples like those ones allows learners to make their own role plays and simulations more creative and complicated. For instance, in the first of them, staged immediately after studying the samples, students may only model those samples, more or less faithfully imitating what they have heard and/or read on the Internet with just minor changes in the situations, characters involved, etc. But gradually those changes may become greater with increasing distancing of students' speech production from the original samples, so that, finally, the original samples become barely recognizable in learners' communication.

Another alternative that may be suggested is similar as to organization but more difficult for students (therefore, meant for somewhat more advanced stages in the ESP course). Learners are requested to find on the Internet not a sample of business talks or a psychological session but their *descriptions* in full-size texts, for instance, a description of a particular case of business negotiations or particular cases of psychological sessions (like the description of a particular client's case with indicating the ways of treating the psychological problem that were recommended in the course of some psychological sessions). Students are required to stage a role play or a simulation on the basis of the descriptive materials that they have obtained. It means, for example, staging a session where the particular case was discussed and particular recommendations arrived at or staging business talks with particular data concerning their progress and decisions taken from the description read on the Internet, etc. An example of this alternative was given above in section 2 of this chapter in the task where students were required to do Internet search for organizing "*a seminar of psychotherapists*" (see the second example among three examples of *Internet search 1* assignments).

The third alternative is even more difficult for students requiring greater efforts and greater involvement of their creativity and imagination for staging a role play or a simulation (still more advanced learning stage). The tasks of this kind abound in the coursebook *Psychological Matters* (Tarnopolsky, Kozhushko, et al., 2011a).

The essence of every such task is to make students find on the Internet a case representing a certain psychological problem – for instance, a typical case of a job burnout. On the basis of the symptoms of the case, the learners are requested to stage a role play simulating a psychological session with a client suffering from job burnout with the symptoms like those found on the Internet site. As a result of the session, psychological recommendations are arrived at.

The most sophisticated, creative, and difficult for students is the fourth alternative when learners find on the Internet only the generalized information. On the basis of it, they have to invent and stage on their own a role play or a simulation. For instance, it may be a generalizing text on how to conduct business talks or a psychoanalytic session. Using that general information, students themselves invent a particular case requiring business negotiations or a particular client's case with a particular psychological problem to be solved that requires a specific session of psychoanalysis. Then, the business talks on the invented issue or a psychoanalytic session on the invented case are simulated/role played following the generalized guidelines found during the Internet research. Naturally, this alternative is for later, maybe even final, stages of an ESP course. Actually, this is the case of learners' creating their own role plays – an approach becoming popular in today's EFL teaching (Schaefer, 2012).

In all the four alternatives, the Internet research creates the informational and linguistic basis for students' speaking while they are role playing or doing their simulations. Besides, by its very nature that research contributes to developing learners' reading and listening skills. It also contributes to developing their writing skills, first, due to learners having a need of taking written notes in the process of Internet research for further organizing their role plays/simulations and, second, because such role plays/simulations can have specific writing assignments as their end-pieces (c.f. *Chapter 1*, 2.1.1, 2.2.1). In this way, the favorable effect of Internet research spreads to the development of skills in all kinds of communicative activities (reading, listening, speaking, and writing) when students are engaged in such experiential learning activities as role plays and simulations. This favorable effect also embraces the development of language skills because it is from their Internet-researched materials that students gain a considerable part of the vocabulary and grammar to be used by them in role plays and simulations.

What was said in the paragraph above concerns all the other experiential learning activities mostly focused on speaking and discussed below, so it will not be mentioned again.

3.2. Internet research in organizing project work

As already said in *Chapter 1*, project work is one of the most important experiential learning activities required for adequate implementation of the

constructivist approach to ESP teaching and learning. This is because no other experiential learning activity can unite so organically all the four basic types of communication activities: speaking, reading, listening, and writing, creating the best conditions for joint development of all relevant skills (c.f. *Chapter 1*, 2.3). What is no less important is the fact that no other experiential learning activity can ensure such a high level of learning autonomy and learners' creativity by way of most faithfully modeling future professional search and research activities (c.f. *Chapter 1*, 2.2.3, 2.3). But it should be emphasized that in ESP courses efficient project work is very difficult, to say the least, if it is not based on Internet research done on professional sites in English.

To illustrate this, it is worth giving an example of one Internet search task (*Internet search 2* – c.f. section 2 in this chapter) connected with the project work aimed at creating students *Short Psychological Encyclopedia* (c.f. 2.3 in *Chapter 1*) in the ESP course for students majoring in practical psychology. The example is taken from *Unit 2 – History of Psychology* – of the coursebook *Psychological Matters* (Tarnopolsky, Kozhushko, et al., 2011a).

Internet search 2. Project work. *Here is the second task for preparing one more chapter for your **SHORT PSYCHOLOGICAL ENCYCLOPEDIA**. This second chapter planned for the Encyclopedia is to be devoted to **The History of Psychology in the 20th-21st Centuries**.*

Now you are going to do your second Internet search in this class period. Use the web sites that your teacher recommends and some other sites that you will be able to find.

You should search for any information on the history of psychology in the 20th-early 21st centuries that you can find and that can be considered as generalizing all the most important psychological theories and approaches developed in those centuries. You are required to inform your teacher what information you are going to work on so that different students have different information sources and collect different information.

After your source (sources) is chosen, start collecting information from the Internet. Your goal is to prepare a 5-minute generalizing oral presentation on the history of psychology in the 20th-early 21st centuries and on all the most important psychological theories and approaches developed in those centuries. You will also have to prepare a short article on that issue for the Encyclopedia. All this will have to be delivered in the next class. Your short article is supposed to be of about 150 words. Keep in mind that you will be requested to hand in your article for the Encyclopedia in the electronic format.

You have time until the end of the class to do the assignment.

To do this project task is practically impossible without an Internet search. In most cases, students will simply not be able to find enough printed sources to collect all the required information. Similarly, the teacher will not be able to provide them with sufficient variety of printed sources so that every student in the

group can find information differing in some respects from the information found by all the other students so that every one of them can include in their presentation some data unknown to other learners. But these tasks can be solved without great problems if the Internet is chosen as the source of information.

Therefore, the principal form of using Internet research in project work is students' selection from the Internet of all the subject matter materials required for completing their project tasks. It should also be mentioned that if for preparing every particular role play and simulation students mostly need to do their Internet search only once (c.f. section 3.1 above), for every particular project task the Internet search needs to be done a number of times – at least once for every stage of the project. It may be said that project work always requires doing *multiple* Internet research.

It should be noted as well that such a form as publishing learners' written works on the Web is most suitable for using in the framework of students' project work. It has already been said in *Chapter 1* that there must be some *material product* as the outcome of that work. That product is most frequently something written by the students – like, for instance, a written or, better, printed review of the principal trends and theories in the development of Psychology as a science during the 20th-early 21st centuries (see above). If the material product has the features of a genuine publication (and every *publication on the website is a genuine publication*), students' learning motivation when doing project work is greatly enhanced since they perceive that work as real research activities in their future professional field with the results of those activities accessible to and subject to evaluation by other people – first of all, the specialists from that professional field. This increases the sense of competence, and with that learners' self-esteem (Arnold, 2012). The motivation enhancement is inevitable in such a case, as well as the enhancement of responsibility for the results of one's own work that may be evaluated by specialists. It raises students' efficiency in what they are doing, therefore, positively influencing the development of their target communication and language skills.

3.3. Internet research in organizing brainstorming, case studies, and discussions

Just like in *Chapter 1*, these three kinds of experiential learning activities are best analyzed together due to their similarities and their trend to continue each other in the teaching/learning process: case studies following brainstorming and discussions following case studies (c.f. 2.4.1-2.4.3 in *Chapter 1*).

It should be remarked that for all the kinds of learning activities under consideration the main purpose of Internet research is to find issues to be talked over and the outlines of solutions for such issues.

For instance, students may receive an Internet research assignment from their teacher requesting them to find some issues in their field of knowledge that are topical for all specialists in that field at the moment but have not yet been finally and adequately solved. The issues found and suggested for discussing by different students are talked over in class with the aim of deciding which of them may be chosen for further analysis (or with the aim of deciding on the sequence of analyzing all the selected issues). When the issue for analysis has been chosen, students are divided into small groups of three-four learners in each of them to brainstorm it. Having collected "a bank of ideas", the students get the task of finding specific cases on the Internet illustrating the problem under discussion, so that such cases could be used for case studying. The cases are discussed in the same small groups, and finally, a whole-class discussion is organized when all small groups make their conclusions known to the other students in class. The class is expected to discuss the conclusions of every small group, so as to come to a consensus in what concerns the best solution of the issue/problem under consideration. At this stage, returning to Internet research is quite reasonable. It may be for either finding confirmation of the ideas formulated in the whole-class discussion or, vice versa, for understanding why those ideas were wrong and what better solutions are possible.

With such an approach as suggested above the sequence of brainstorming → case studies → discussions recommended in *Chapter 1* (2.4.3) is brought to life. But Internet research can be used in an identical manner to organize each of those three learning activities separately from the two others without passing from one of them to any other one as a follow-up.

For instance, students can get the task of finding on the Web cases of some professional problems where certain solutions are recommended. After that, the class is divided into small groups and every student presents in the small group the case found by him/her without telling the other students about the solution recommended on the Internet site. The case is analyzed by the small group until some solution is arrived at (the student who presented the case does not participate in the analysis). After the solution has been reached, the presenter of the case lets other students know what the solution suggested on the website was and the small group discusses the relative merits and demerits of both solutions – theirs and the one suggested on the website. After that, another case found by some other student in the small group is discussed and so on until all the selected cases have been analyzed. It may be remarked that such kinds of tasks and a number of others similar to them in essence (c.f., for instance, Chazal de, 2012) are very good for developing students' critical thinking through the medium of the target language.

A similar approach may be followed when organizing brainstorming or discussions separately from the two other kindred types of learning activities.

Certainly, some other, alternative, ways of introducing Internet research into the process of organizing such experiential learning activities as brainstorming, case studies, and discussions can be found.

3.4. Internet research in organizing students' presentations

In what concerns Internet research for organizing students' presentations, practically the same may be said on this issue as when discussing its use for organizing project work. It would be practically impossible for students to collect enough authentic professional materials for an adequate presentation on some professional issue if Internet is not made recourse to as the source of information. In a university outside English-speaking countries in many cases it will be well-nigh impossible to find enough printed materials in English that would suit all the requirements as to professional authenticity, variety, up-to-datedness, and sufficiency. Thus, in this case, the same arguments are valid as were given when discussing the importance of Internet research for project work activities. The principal difference is the already mentioned fact that in project work the Internet research is multiple whereas, when preparing every particular presentation, it is mostly done only once (though there are cases when there emerges a necessity to repeat the Internet search and find some additional materials for the presentation when the bulk of such materials for it has already been collected).

One more aspect should be taken into account. Nowadays, a presentation is not considered to be adequate if it is not accompanied by illustrations in PowerPoint. Therefore, when teaching students presentations in English, they have to be requested to prepare PowerPoint illustrations for every presentation of theirs. A greater part of such visual illustrations needs to be prepared by students themselves: tables, schemes, summaries of the main points made in the presentation, etc. But some of them can and should be taken from the Internet and students may be instructed to do so as it is done in one of the assignments taken from *Unit 1 – Psychology and Its Branches* from the coursebook *Psychological Matters* by Tarnopolsky, Kozhushko, et al. (2011a):

Internet search 1. *Working in the Internet class, do some Internet search using the web sites that your teacher recommends and some other sites that you will be able to find.*

The class is divided into pairs. Every pair searches for information on one of the branches of Psychology that were mentioned in the text for listening in this Unit but were not analyzed in details as the four branches that you were reading about in the preceding class had been. Every pair is supposed to choose one of the following branches for collecting some information about it: Biopsychology, Forensic Psychology, Social Psychology, Personality Psychology, Developmental Psychology, or School Psychology. You are required to choose only one branch and inform your teacher which one it is going to be, so that all pairs have different branches to work on.

After your branch is chosen, start collecting information about it from the Internet. Your goal is to prepare a 5-minute presentation on that branch for the next class.

In your presentation you should speak about the field of research and practical activities of psychologists working in the branch that you have chosen, the history of its development, the famous psychologists working in that field, the significance of the field for modern psychology. Find illustrative material on the Internet to be used during your presentation: practical examples, pictures illustrating the work of specialists, portraits of famous psychologists representing the field, etc. Discussing in you pair the materials found during the search, decide what each partner from the pair will present. You have 40 minutes to do the assignment.

It should also be remarked that the presentation results, just like project work results, can be placed on web-sites. The quality of presentations delivered by students reflects the development of their ESP language and communication skills to no lesser degree than the quality of their project tasks results. Just like in the latter case, the development of skills in target language reading, speaking, listening, and writing is demonstrated in the unity of all those skills. This is because preparing a presentation requires reading of relevant materials and, in many cases, listening as well, if the materials are collected on the Internet. After that, preparing a presentation passes through the stage of writing (writing notes or the full text of the presentation which can later be placed on the web-site). Finally, presenting itself is totally based on oral communication. In this way, every student's presentation accurately reflects on what level that particular learner is able to communicate in the target language. Therefore, placing the texts of the best students' presentations on web-sites can have a considerable motivating impact. First, students can regard that as the recognition of their sufficiently high level of target language command. Since, in principle, everyone, including native speakers, can read learners' works on the Web, if they are placed there, it implicitly means that the language in them is quite adequate. Second, students can also regard that as the recognition of high quality content level in their presentations because, being accessible to everybody, including specialists, their placement on the Web implicitly means that the text of such presentations may be of some interest to specialists. This means the recognition of learners' professional competence, such recognition naturally enhancing their self-esteem (Arnold, 2012).

3.5. Internet research as a means of ensuring interactivity in experiential interactive teaching/learning

Having discussed the means of using Internet research for optimizing the experiential learning activities, it is also worthwhile to analyze how such research can help in providing for the interactive nature of experiential ESP teaching/learning process.

It has already been indicated that, according to Barrett and Sharma (2003: 35), working on the Internet is always interactive by its very nature. But only this feature does not limit the significance of Internet in ensuring the interactivity in a constructivist ESP course. Of no lesser significance is the fact that a number of authors, including many times quoted Barrett and Sharma (2003), recommend that Internet research is organized in pairs or even small groups of three or four students. This is characteristic of Internet research assignments used in the approach advocated in this monograph, as can be seen from the examples given earlier. One of the important benefits, among others (c.f. section 2 in this chapter), is making students speak English among themselves when doing Internet research together.

Finally, probably the most important feature of the Internet that makes it an irreplaceable tool for ensuring the interactivity in ESP teaching/learning is the fact that *hardly anything else can provide the same level of interaction with outside professional target language environment/outside professional target language sources of information* (c.f. section 4 in Chapter 1). It is practically only via the Internet that students studying ESP at a university outside an English-speaking country can get access to that environment by way of using e-mailing, forums, etc. As to the sources of professional information in English, it has already been remarked a number of times that at a university outside an English-speaking country authentic professional literature in English quite often is not abundant enough to satisfy all the requirements of a constructivist ESP course in authentic professional sources of information in English. Nothing but the Internet remains to provide students with the necessary abundance and variety of such sources.

Therefore, it may be said in conclusion that the Internet indeed creates the best support for successfully implementing experiential interactive teaching/learning. It remains to discuss the impact of using Internet-based learning activities on implementing content-based instruction.

4. Internet research as a means of implementing content-based instruction

This issue does not need a detailed discussion because indirectly it has already been discussed in preceding section 3. *Internet research helps in the implementation of content-based instruction simply because it provides the richest variety of content (professional) sources in English. Sometimes the Internet is practically the only place where the teachers and the students can get the professional content information that they need.* But, on the other hand, the Internet research in the framework of a university ESP course has to meet four

basic requirements to be able to provide for the implementation of content-based (theme-based) instruction:

1. The sites chosen for students' Internet research need to be not only professional and target language ones but also *authentic* where the materials are prepared by native speakers for native speakers (see *Chapter 4* for details concerning the notion of *authenticity*). Other materials, which are not authentic, cannot represent genuine communication samples characterizing the intercourse and interaction of specialists in a certain field. On the other hand, if such materials are authentic, they can be selected from those belonging to the genre of popular science too, and not only from the genre of academic science or from purely professional materials in the strictest sense of the word. As already said in *Chapter 2*, ESP courses are taught when students do not know much about their future specialty as yet. So, it is better to use the materials that are certain to be within the range of their comprehension, and popular science materials without a shadow of a doubt belong to that category. They are also close enough to strictly professional materials to teach the future profession via the medium of the target language. Besides, on professional Internet sites in English popular science materials are often in greater abundance than strictly professional ones – which facilitates selection.
2. The sites chosen for students' Internet research need to be *theme-based*, i.e., they are supposed to cover the professional themes that are selected for the ESP course. Students' Internet research should always be done in connection with such themes/topics because, if they start finding on the Internet and using in their ESP classes whatever disconnected professional materials in English, the structure of the course as a whole will be damaged, it will become unbalanced, and the distance between the pre-selected learning content and what is actually being learned will be gradually increasing – leading to moving far away from the pre-set goals of the course.
3. The sites chosen for students' Internet research need to be *in great numbers and of great variety*, so that different students have opportunities of working with different sites when researching materials on one and the same theme/topic, so as to be able to find different materials on that theme/topic. Otherwise (if students work with identical materials on the Internet), as already mentioned before, project work, work on preparing presentations, and other kinds of experiential learning activities are certain to become senseless. Students, when communicating on professional issues, will not be able to say anything new to each other after having obtained absolutely identical information from the Internet.
4. Everything said above in 1-3 emphasizes again the importance of the requirement to ESP teachers to collect their own *Libraries of Internet sites*

which have already been discussed before. Without such a personal *Library* at every teacher's disposal from where they can always recommend as many sites as needed to their students, the Internet search done by those students may inevitably become chaotic. It will also greatly increase the time that they may need for finding the required information on the Internet – which is hardly acceptable for an ESP course with its time restraints, especially in the conditions when the substantial part of students' Internet research is done in class (c.f. above in this chapter). What has just been said does not mean that students should not find their own web-sites to do the Internet research and should use only the sites recommended by their teacher. On the contrary, finding some sites by learners themselves must always be a part of their Internet-based activities because it greatly motivates students by making their learning more creative. However, the realities of the teaching/learning process, especially the time restrictions in it, make independent search for web-sites only a part of Internet activities. They are to a considerable extent based on learners' work on the sites recommended by their teacher.

Following the requirements listed above can really provide for ensuring the content-based (theme-based) constituent of ESP teaching/learning process designed on the basis of the constructivist approach. This provision is guaranteed by introducing into such a process a great number and variety of authentic target language professional materials on the themes (topics) that have been selected for every particular ESP course. However, it is also clear from those requirements that as soon as the suggested approach has been brought to life, the Internet research done by the teacher will inevitably always be greater in volume than such research done by his or her students. The teacher's research is needed not only for creating his or her *Library of Internet sites* that has already been discussed a number of times. It is also needed for finding additional materials for students' reading and listening which can be copied and brought to class. Such a kind of research should be done by the teacher not just regularly but *permanently* – practically before every class period of his or hers.

This requirement is due not only to the fact of frequent changes and renewals on Internet sites that have already been spoken about. It is even more due to the fact that it is on strictly professional and popular science Internet sites that the most recent information on the cutting edge developments in every particular field of knowledge is placed before that information appears anywhere else. Though sometimes such a kind of information found on the Internet is not sufficiently checked as yet and may later be discarded or refuted, however, for an ESP course it is often invaluable as a source for generating students' discussions, organizing their presentations, etc. This is because the cutting edge developments, which may still be little known to a lot of professionals, can interest and attract students much more than the universally known facts and ideas concerning their

future specialty. So, the teacher simply has no right not to use such information in his or her experiential interactive theme-based classroom because it can raise the level of students' creativity in doing their learning assignments thanks to the enhancement of their learning motivation.

It should be noted that finding relevant professional and popular science Internet sites in English in whatever field cannot make any problems both for the teacher and the students if they have even beginners' skills in using such search engines as *Google*, *Yahoo*, or *Yandex*. Having found at least one professional or popular science site, the user is going to access a great number of links to other similar site and web-pages, thereby obtaining access to almost limitless sources of information on professional matters.

In general, in this and the preceding sections of this chapter the impact of Internet technologies on different constituents of the constructivist approach to ESP course design has been demonstrated. Such impact cannot but cause some modifications in the approach as a whole. The nature of those modifications is analyzed in the last section of the chapter.

5. Internet technologies' impact on the constructivist approach to ESP course design

If the approach to using Internet technologies discussed in the preceding sections of this chapter is followed, a qualitatively new teaching/learning process is obtained because students' work on the Internet permeates practically all its parts. This is why the constructivist approach, as described in *Chapters 1* and *2*, needs to be specified in view of the changes introduced into it by Internet-based learning activities described above.

In modern language teaching there are two fundamental approaches to broadly, systemically, and regularly (not episodically and unsystematically) using Internet technologies for ensuring students' better acquisition of the target language and communication in it: *distance learning* and *blended learning*.

Distance learning in foreign language teaching is not going to be analyzed at all in this monograph though a number of attempts have been made to introduce it into such teaching (Kerka, 1996; Murphy, 2007; NCSSFL Position Statement ..., 2011; Symposium on distance language learning, 2012; Trajanovic, Domazet, & Mistic-Ilic, 2007, and others). Distance learning in ESL/EFL is based on students' almost exclusively online out-of-class work with only episodic face-to-face meetings with the teacher and other students. Leaving aside the issue of how successful and adequate such learning is and can be, it may be said that it has no relation to the subject matter of our monograph because we are considering only those ESP courses at tertiary schools where the greater part of learning is

done in class when students are in the company of their teacher and their peers.

As distinct from distance learning, blended learning, whose basics have already been discussed in the *Introduction* (2.2), is, according to Barrett and Sharma (2003: 39), a blend of different information sources that can be used in language teaching, so that traditional in-class learning and in-class and out-of-class learning with using innovative computer technologies can be united in a more or less balanced proportion. In their other work, totally devoted to blended learning, the same authors (Sharma, & Barrett, 2007: 7) specify their understanding of such learning defining it as a language course uniting usual work in the classroom with the broadest use of the Internet, CD-ROMs, and other computer-based facilities in the language acquisition process. According to those authors, blended learning also presupposes the use of computers for communication via chat rooms, forums, and e-mails, thus creating virtual learning environments.

Blended learning has become very popular in some kinds of ESP teaching, especially in Business English studies (Sharma & Barrett, 2007). It is radically different from a more traditional approach where information technologies are used as something supplementary but not as an integral and indispensable part in the course design. In fact, such technologies are something that may be used in the course for improving it but without which that course may exist and not suffer disintegration. Unlike this, in blended learning information technologies, and, first of all, the Internet, are organically built into the course design. *We may speak about blended learning when students' work on the Internet is the source of numerous other learning assignments that can and are done without using computers but which cannot be done at all if the work on the Internet does not precede them.* Since the assignments of that kind abound in the ESP course design analyzed in this monograph, we may call the approach advocated in it a blended learning one.

If speaking about the differences between blended learning and distance learning in greater detail, it should be noted that in blended learning computer-based work is not the focal one in the teaching/learning process. It is absolutely indispensable but it serves the others, non-computerized, kinds of learning activities, not dominating and prevailing over them as in distance learning. For instance, if the learning assignment is preparing a presentation, students collect the materials for that presentation on the Internet in and/or out of class (a computer-based activity), write the notes or the full text of the presentation (a computer-based activity if writing is done on a computer or a non-computerized activity if it is hand-written), and get ready for delivering it (a non-computerized activity). They also prepare illustrations for their presentation in PowerPoint (a computer-based activity). On this basis, they later orally deliver the presentation in class, answer the questions of other students, and have their presentation discussed by them (a non-computerized and focal activity). In the process of delivering the presentation, the students are using the illustrations in PowerPoint, etc. (a computer-based activity). It can be seen from this example

how intertwined, interknit, or *blended*, computer-based and non-computerized learning activities are in blended learning.

Therefore, in blended learning, unlike distance learning, computer-based activities and the activities in face-to-face contacts of students and teachers are balanced with the view of better learners' target language communication and their improved language skills acquisition. This balancing means that all, computerized and non-computerized, kinds of learning activities are of equal importance and cannot exist without one another. From this point of view and from the examples of learning assignments that have been given in this chapter, it becomes clear that the approach advocated in the monograph is that of blended learning and in no way the one of distance learning.

The above mentioned balancing is the principal advantage of blended learning over both traditional learning and distance learning. Unlike traditional learning, that balancing allows using the full potential of computer/Internet technologies for improving the process of communication and language skills acquisition by learners. Unlike distance learning, it does not create 'the vacuum' of live target language communication between the teacher and the students and between the students themselves. Face-to-face contacts of the participants in the teaching and learning process remain intact with the consequent beneficial effect for the development of communication skills.

From the description of the blended learning given above and from what has been demonstrated in the preceding sections of this chapter, it can be seen how easily and organically blended learning combines itself with the constructivist approach embodied in experiential interactive teaching/learning and in content-based instruction. Students' continuously and autonomously work with computers, i.e., they use information technologies for researching professional issues (Internet research, preparing presentations, reports, doing project assignments on the basis of what has been found on the Internet, establishing virtual contacts with other people for doing project tasks, etc.). Subsequently, the obtained results are discussed in the classroom. That ensures profession-oriented content-based instruction in such activities as those above which closely resemble professional activities. Thanks to the latter feature (modeling professional activities) experiential learning is implemented – in the sense it is understood in this monograph and in the works by other authors (Cerdà, & Williams, 2012; Freeman, & Freeman, 1994). Finally, blended learning, organized as described, is going to be interactive in its very essence due to the interactive nature of students' work on the Internet (c.f. the examples above of pair and small group work when doing Internet-based assignments), thanks to the interaction with outside professional target language environment/outside professional target language sources of information when working there, and owing to learners' broad interaction when they are discussing what has been found during their Internet research.

Everything said above allows two conclusions to be drawn:

1. Blended learning is organically combined with the constructivist approach making *a unified constructivist blended learning approach* out of two different approaches (the constructivist approach and the blended learning approach).
2. The method of using the Internet in an ESP course described in this chapter makes such a course a characteristic example of a *blended learning ESP course design*. The cause why blended learning is organically integrated into an ESP course design is due to the fact of students' work on the Internet becoming an integral and inalienable part of the process of their teaching and learning, so that the quality of that process is going to considerably deteriorate if Internet-based work is canceled. Internet-based activities are not something supplementary, as in a traditional ESP teaching/learning process. They become an indispensable and organically built-in component.

It should also be noted again that, as it can be seen from what has been said in *Chapters 1* and *2*, the constructivist approach can be implemented without blended learning. For instance, the approach followed when creating the coursebook *Business Project* (Tarnopolsky, Kozhushko, et al., 2002) was undoubtedly the constructivist one, fully corresponding to everything said about the practical implementation of that approach in *Chapters 1* and *2*. But that first version of the constructivist approach developed by us bore no traces of blended learning because in the years when the coursebook *Business Projects* was being created such learning was on the verge of emergence only but still remaining something not really developed or universally recognized. Therefore, the more traditional approach to involving the Internet in language studies was followed: using students' Internet research as a supplementary and optional activity without which the ESP/Business English course could function with no harm done or any serious problems caused.

In contrast, the second version of our constructivist approach embodied in the coursebook *Psychological Matters* (Tarnopolsky, Kozhushko, et al., 2011a) was already the one in which constructivism and blended learning were linked together so closely that they formed a single and inseparable unity where taking out one constituent, like students' Internet research (blended learning), would practically ruin the whole system. That can be seen from the practical examples of learning assignments and the system description given in this chapter. Just such absolute interdependence of constructivism and blended learning represents *the fundamental modification, or change*, that the introduction of blended learning generates in the constructivist approach. So, only this second version

of the approach discussed in *Chapter 3* of the monograph can be regarded as a *constructivist blended learning ESP course*, while the earlier first version embodied in *Business Projects* coursebook is simply a *constructivist ESP course*. As such, these two kinds of ESP courses will be positioned in the following chapters.

Having discussed in the first three chapters of the monograph the basics (both theoretical and practical) of the constructivist blended learning approach to teaching English for Specific Purposes at tertiary schools, some peculiarities of implementing the approach in teaching practice need to be analyzed. The first of such peculiarities is a set of totally practical principles that govern the implementation of the approach when practically designing an ESP course. Those principles are considered in the next chapter.

6. Conclusion to Chapter 3

In this chapter the notion of blended learning in ESP teaching and learning has been discussed. Blended learning is shown as the third fundamental constituent in the constructivist ESP course design – the constituent that is subordinated to the first two (experiential interactive teaching/learning and content-based instruction) and serves them with the purpose of improving their functioning.

Using computer technologies in general and Internet-technologies in particular as the basis of blended learning in ESL/EFL teaching/learning, especially in ESP teaching/learning, are analyzed. The range of various functions and roles that the Internet can play in improving ESP acquisition is also discussed. It has been demonstrated that students' Internet research on professional and popular science Internet sites in English is the principal, the most useful, and the most widely used of those functions. However, it is emphasized that other Internet functions, such as being a medium of virtual target language communication, being a place for publishing students' works in the target language, etc., should also be addressed in ESP courses, though, unlike Internet research, as optional and not mandatory ones.

The organizational structure of introducing Internet technologies into ESP courses is considered, and the conclusion is made that Internet research should be done by students both in and out of class with the in-class Internet research prevailing, especially at early stages of an ESP course. The general conclusion is drawn that the organizational structure of introducing Internet technologies presupposes the inclusion of students' Internet research as an absolutely mandatory learning activity into an ESP coursebook and ESP course as a whole.

The use of Internet research and other Internet-based learning activities for improving the process and results of experiential learning are analyzed, and the benefits of Internet for enhancing interactivity in the framework of experiential

interactive ESP courses are manifested. The advantages of using Internet-based learning activities for improving the content-based instruction characteristic of a constructivist ESP course are also demonstrated.

The approach to involving Internet technologies in teaching ESP courses at tertiary schools suggested in the chapter has been shown as being a typical representative of blended learning approaches. That approach is demonstrated as ideal to be combined with the constructivist approach to an ESP course design forming a single constructivist blended learning approach. However, it is indicated that, though the constructivist blended learning approach is more advanced as compared with the *per se* constructivist approach to ESP teaching/learning, the latter can exist and function successfully even without the blended learning component.

Chapter 4.

Principles of practical implementation of the constructivist blended learning approach to teaching English for Specific Purposes at tertiary schools

The principles in questions are required for setting clear and accurate reference points that are needed for practical implementation of the constructivist blended learning approach. They are kinds of teaching practice-oriented guidelines as to what and how should be done in the practical process of teaching and learning to provide for the successful learning outcomes of that entire process. The principles: 1) practically regulate teaching/learning content selection in order to make the instruction genuinely professional content based (theme-based); 2) practically regulate the use of experiential interactive learning activities in the ESP course; 3) practically prepare students for working on the Internet, and 4) therefore, form a firm foundation for developing the organizational model of every particular ESP course which finalizes the practical development of such a course as a whole.

It has already been said in the *Introduction* that five of such practical principles have been postulated by us. They include:

1. *the principle of systematizing professional information in the coursebook and course of English for Specific Purposes;*
2. *the principle of authenticity of students' learning activities and learning communication;*
3. *the principle of authenticity of learning materials;*
4. *the principle of integrating English speaking, listening, reading, and writing in the learning process;*
5. *the principle of developing students' informative competence in English.*

The first and the third of these principles serve for ensuring the practical implementation of such a basic feature of the constructivist blended learning approach as content-based (theme-based) instruction. The second principle is also partly used for achieving the same goal. However, together with the fourth principle, it provides practical conditions for implementing experiential interactive teaching/learning as well. Finally, the fifth principle is directed at creating the best prerequisites for Internet technologies' use in the teaching/learning process.

Each of the five principles is separately discussed below.

1. The principle of systematizing professional information in the coursebook and course of English for Specific Purposes

This principle means that an ESP coursebook and an ESP course organized on the basis of that coursebook must be designed in such a way as not to be just a collection of professionally oriented themes, materials, and activities for learning. It is supposed to be a more or less *complete summary in English of the fundamental and systematized notions from the students' future profession/specialty embracing all the basic issues of future specialist's professional activities*.

The requirement of introducing this principle is due to the specificity of such a feature of the constructivist approach as content-based, and particularly theme-based, instruction. That instruction, as shown in *Chapter 2*, is called upon to provide students with a more or less complete and generalized 'picture', or *synopsis*, of their future profession through the medium of the target language. The complete and generalized picture cannot be created if the ESP coursebook (and, consequently, the ESP course) is 'a heap' of fragmentary facts and fragmentary unsystematically selected information concerning the learners' future profession – as it often happens in practice. The required '*big picture*' of future profession 'painted' by means of the target language can be obtained by students only if their ESP course provides them with a *systemic* knowledge of their specialty, even if that knowledge is somewhat simplified and adapted to the level of what can be accessible and fully comprehensible to students in the early years of their university studies.

The word *systemic*, or *systematized*, is the key in this case because otherwise (if the professional knowledge that students obtain in the target language is fragmentary and disconnected – as it is in many ESP courses now) only disparate fragments may be associated in learners' consciousness with professional communication in that language. The absence in their consciousness of harmonious, professionally systematized 'picture' of target language professional communication cannot but stand in the way of effective and efficient development of professional target language communication skills. This is one of the reasons why developing skills of fluent professional communication in English often takes longer and is more difficult in university ESP courses than it could be if such skills were initially developed on the basis of sound and systematized professional knowledge that itself was acquired through the medium of the target language.

What has been said means that an ESP course for future economists and businesspeople must be designed as a simplified course of Economics and/or Business taught in English; an ESP course for future practical psychologists – as a simplified course of Practical Psychology in English; an ESP course for future architects – as a simplified course of architecture in English, etc.

Writing a coursebook of English for professional purposes for such a course presupposes first of all the selection of its professionally systematized content parts, and attaching to each of those parts relevantly selected professional themes/topics (the theme-based instruction).

For instance, the ten themes/topics selected for the ESP course for future psychologists and listed in *Chapter 2* of this monograph (c.f. section 5.2.1 in that chapter) were attached to four principal parts of the course, each part embracing two or three themes/topics. In the final version of the course and the coursebook *Psychological Matters* for the course those parts were presented as four separate modules:

MODULE 1. PSYCHOLOGY, ITS BRANCHES, AND HISTORY

THEME 1. *Psychology and its Branches*

THEME 2. *History of Psychology*

MODULE 2. PSYCHOLOGICAL CHALLENGES AT WORKPLACE

THEME 3. *Job Burnout*

THEME 4. *Balancing Work and Family*

THEME 5. *Psychology of Employment and Working Place Conflicts*

MODULE 3. THE PSYCHOLOGY OF INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

THEME 6. *Managing Emotions and Feelings*

THEME 7. *Personality and Individual Differences*

MODULE 4. PSYCHOTHERAPY AND PSYCHOLOGICAL COUNSELLING

THEME 8. *Psychotherapy*

THEME 9. *Gestalt Therapy*

THEME 10. *Psychological Counseling*.

Naturally, such systematized content parts, just like the themes (c.f. *Chapter 2*), could not be selected by specialists in foreign language teaching (the authors of the coursebook) by themselves. Specialists in Psychology had to be addressed and, for that purpose, practical psychologists participating in our questioning described in *Chapter 2* (c.f. 5.2.1) as well as the professors and teachers from the Department of Practical Psychology at Alfred Nobel University in Dnipropetrovsk were consulted.

It was those professors and teachers who recommended making the first part (module) in the coursebook and the course an introductory one dealing with the general definition of what Psychology is, what its branches are, and the history of its development in the last one hundred years. All our consultants were confident that such a module is required for letting students develop a general idea about their future profession, though the content materials in that part are only indirectly connected with the professional activities of a *practical psychologist*.

On the contrary, the other three parts (modules) are devoted only to practical professional activities and embrace them quite fully and in quite a systematized

manner. The second and third parts (modules) are devoted to the most frequent psychological problems that practical psychologists have to deal with in their work: workplace problems and emotional problems, both kinds of problems being inextricably intertwined with human personalities and people's individual differences. Finally, the last part (module) familiarizes students with those psychological tools that practical psychologists have at their disposal for treating those psychological problems that they were studying while working on parts (modules) 2 and 3.

It seems self-evident but should, however, be mentioned that only after the content parts (modules) for the ESP coursebook and the ESP course are selected can the selection of themes for every part following the methodology analyzed in *Chapter 2* (section 5.2.1) start.

In quite an identical manner to the one discussed above, when preparing the coursebook *Business Projects*, six principal content parts of the course presented as its six modules were first selected, and later twelve selected themes/topics were attached to them:

MODULE 1. STARTING A BUSINESS

THEME 1. *Forms of Businesses*

THEME 2. *Company Structure*

MODULE 2. JOB HUNTING

THEME 3. *Making an Appointment and Applying for a Job*

THEME 4. *Career Profiles. Job Interviews*

MODULE 3. BUSINESS ENVIRONMENT

THEME 5. *Domestic and World Economy*

THEME 6. *Business Objectives, Strategy, and Competition*

MODULE 4. MARKETING AND PRODUCTION

THEME 7. *Marketing*

THEME 8. *Production*

MODULE 5. Banking and Finance

THEME 9. *Banking*

THEME 10. *Financing*

MODULE 6. FAIRS, EXHIBITIONS, CONTRACTS

THEME 11. *Participation in Fairs and Exhibitions*

THEME 12. *Contracts*

In this case, all the parts (modules) and themes are connected with Business Studies and practices in business: founding a business, seeking employment in some business, defining business objectives and strategies, competition in business and ways of dealing with it, the financial issues of conducting a business, business contracts, marketing, promoting, and advertising, etc. Although the ESP coursebook in question (*Business Projects*) and the ESP course were aimed at stu-

dents of Economics and Business (which is one and the same major at Ukrainian universities), the focus was mostly placed on business and not on economics. Only one of the themes in part 3 *Domestic and World Economy* is directly connected with the issues of Economics, all the other parts are Business Studies only. That was done on the advice of specialists in the field. They believed in the rationality of just such an approach because most graduates in Economics and Business from Ukrainian universities pursue careers in business. This is why the aim was to provide students with 'a big target language picture' of Business Studies much more than with that of Economics. And it may be safely asserted that in what concerns the representation of Business Studies and professional business activities in the above list of selected parts (modules) and themes, they were represented in a sufficiently complete and systematized manner. All the basic aspects of conducting a business – beginning from its establishment and including all the fundamental aspects of its functioning – were covered in quite a full and logical sequence.

The above examples of practical functioning of the principle of systematizing the professional information in ESP coursebooks and ESP courses demonstrate that the principle under discussion practically regulates the selection of the informational aspect of learning content by way of governing the selection of learning modules and themes for organizing content-based instruction. Such regulation allows making the selection professionally relevant and quite logical from the professional point of view – thus creating a sound, professionally justifiable foundation for the following stages of learning content selection.

The next principle to be considered in the second section of this chapter is the principle of authenticity of students' learning activities and learning communication. This is to be the next one because it regulates, among other things, the choice of communicative situations which is the next step in learning content selection after choosing professional themes for learning (the choice of which is governed by the principle that has just been analyzed).

2. The principle of authenticity of students' learning activities and learning communication

This principle is fully based on and serves the practical implementation of such a fundamental constituent of the constructivist approach as experiential interactive teaching/learning. *The principle means that the entire teaching/learning process is supposed to be designed as students' communication in English on professional issues, this communication to be organized in the framework of learning activities that accurately model authentic professional activities and authentic professional communication of a future specialist. The professional communica-*

tion in such a case is called upon to reflect the professional situations in which a future specialist may with the greatest probability need communicating in English for solving professional tasks. In addition, following the principle discussed before (that of systematizing the professional information in ESP coursebooks and ESP courses), such situations are supposed to ensure professional communication on the professional topics (themes) selected for the ESP course.

In accordance with the above definition, the practical implementation of the principle of authenticity of students' learning activities and learning communication is totally dependent on communicative situations selected for the teaching/learning process because it is on the basis of such situations that different learning activities are organized. On the one hand, those situations are most certainly selected taking full account of the themes (topics) of professional communication chosen for teaching and learning in a definite ESP course (c.f. *Chapter 2, 5.2.1*). But on the other hand, for adequately selecting such situations, besides the themes (topics), it is also necessary to take into consideration the *probability* for a specialist (university graduate) in a certain field of having the need in professional *target language* communication in this or that professional communicative situation. Such a probability can be taken account of in the situation selection process only on the basis of consultations with specialists in a certain professional field who have a good command of the target language and frequently use it in their professional activities. Only they can competently decide which professional communication situation is quite probable to require target language communication in it, and should, therefore, be included into the list of professional communicative situations (and which situation is much less probable and may be omitted from that list).

In *Chapter 2 (5.2.1)* the procedure of communicative situations selection on the basis of consultations with specialists has already been discussed. There, the list of selected communicative situations for an ESP course designed for future economists and businesspeople was also demonstrated as the one exemplifying the results of using the suggested selection procedure. Not to return to that list again, in this section the list of communicative situations selected for an ESP course for future psychologists is given below. But such a list, unlike the previous one, is quoted in its full version, i.e., with indications of the type of communicative activities (reading, speaking, listening, or writing) for developing skills in which this or that situation has been selected, and with identifying the kinds of experiential learning activities that are designed to develop such skills. Thus, the list below is also meant to show which kinds of learning activities are considered as authentic for developing target language professional communication skills.

The list in question (of professional communicative situations in connection with communicative activities to be taught and learning activities used for teaching skills in those activities) includes a number of components. The components are subdivided into five parts: four parts in accordance with four principal types

of target language communicative activities (reading, speaking, listening, and writing) to be taught and one part for integrated teaching of reading, speaking, listening, and writing. These communicative activities to be taught form something like headings for five separate lists of communicative situations and learning activities. Every entry under such a kind of heading contains a description of the situation which, at the same time, represents the learning activity planned for using in such a situation.

I. For teaching reading:

1. Information search (library search – optional, if the university's library possesses sufficient number of authentic sources in English from the fields of students' majors; Internet search – obligatory) as a foundation for students' completing different profession-related speaking and writing learning tasks in English.
2. Reading various authentic *printed* profession-related English texts (in the ESP coursebook and from other printed sources) on theoretical and practical issues of students' majoring discipline(s) for doing on the basis of the information obtained different tasks connected with the analysis of that information, completing various creative tasks such as presentations, projects, development of cases, etc.
3. Reading various authentic *electronic* profession-related English texts (found on the Internet) on theoretical and practical issues of students' majoring discipline(s) for doing on the basis of the information obtained different tasks connected with the analysis of that information and for completing various creative tasks.

II. For teaching speaking:

1. Students' preparing and delivering in English different kinds of presentations, talks, and reports on the issues of their future professional activities.
2. Discussing cases when students are requested to give professional recommendations on the basis of initial information supplied to them.
3. Brainstorming and professional discussions on theoretical and practical profession-related issues.
4. Simulating (role-playing) different situations of professional communication in English – that communication being the means for completing various kinds of modeled profession-related activities.

III. For teaching listening:

1. Listening to authentic short professional lectures, presentations, talks, reports in English on different profession-related theoretical and practical issues; completing on the basis of the information obtained different profession-related tasks connected with the analysis of that information.

2. Listening to fragments and passages from authentic professional communication in English (discussions, consultations, etc.) where different professional issues are negotiated. Listening is done for obtaining information with the purpose of completing on the basis of that information various information analysis tasks as well as other creative tasks in speaking and writing.
3. Listening (with the same purpose as above) to authentic professional information in English found in the process of Internet-search (e.g., using *YouTube* video materials on professional Internet sites in English).

IV. *For teaching writing:*

1. Writing abstracts and essays on theoretical and practical issues of students' future professional activities.
2. Writing summaries of professional texts/materials in English that students have read or listened to.
3. Writing short articles on professional issues, especially in the framework of students' project work.
4. Writing professional cases by students themselves – those cases to be discussed in the process of class work.
5. Writing the texts and notes for students' own oral presentations, talks and reports to be delivered in the framework of doing different learning tasks.

V. *For integrated teaching of reading, speaking, listening, and writing*

1. The situations of doing different kinds of profession-oriented learning projects. In this case, reading or listening done when collecting materials for the project are necessarily followed by speaking (and listening) with the aim of discussing the materials found and their usefulness for the project. This is followed by equally unavoidable and obligatory writing (preparing the project's intermediate or final products) which is again followed by speaking and listening (discussion of the product). Such discussions may, in their turn, entail further reading (for improving the product), etc.

Analyzing the kinds of learning activities enumerated in the list above, several conclusions, which, in fact, lie on the surface, can immediately be drawn:

1. All the selected communicative situations genuinely model the authentic professional communicative situations in which a practical psychologist may really need to communicate in the target language. For instance, the most frequent of such situations is the search for information, especially searching for professional information on Internet sites in English. Another frequent situation is the discussion of some professional issues with foreign colleagues when English is the only possible common language for communicating. The third situation of quite a common occurrence

is listening to talks, reports, or lectures when attending professional conferences abroad, etc. All such situations of professional communication in the target language are indeed quite typical for the career of a practical psychologist, i.e., they reflect the need in communicating in English for professional purposes with a high degree of probability and are authentic from the professional point of view.

2. The learning activities that are used in the framework of such situations practically coincide with the situations themselves. For instance, writing the texts and notes for students' own oral presentations, talks and reports to be delivered is both a situation and a learning activity. On the one hand, a situation in which a future professional may find himself/herself in the course of his/her professional career (the necessity of getting prepared for giving a talk in English at a professional conference abroad) is faithfully modeled. On the other hand, the kind of professional activity that s/he will have to be engaged in when finding himself/herself in such a situation (writing notes or the full text of the talk to be delivered as a means of getting adequately prepared for such a talk) is no less faithfully modeled as well. In this way, not only the situations, but also learning activities and learners' professional communication in English when doing such activities are professionally authentic – which is what, in fact, the principle under consideration means.
3. All the learning activities enumerated in the lists above belong to the experiential interactive ones discussed in *Chapter 1* and those lists in their entirety actually embrace all of them. This shows that the implementation of the principle of authenticity of students' learning activities and learning communication is indeed aimed at practically supporting the experiential interactive teaching/learning constituent of the constructivist approach to designing an ESP course.
4. All the learning activities involved are oriented at learners' involuntary acquisition and reinforcement of target language vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation. Most certainly, it does not mean that special exercises specifically aimed at students' learning vocabulary and grammar and developing appropriate language skills are totally excluded from the course. They are included in the *Workbook* to students' coursebook (c.f. examples from *Chapter 1*, section 3.2) for doing them in learners' out-of-class work. But students are never engaged in such activities in class where only experiential and totally communicative learning activities are used in accordance with the requirements of the constructivist approach.
5. The suggested situations have been selected with the view of designing an ESP course for future practical psychologists. They may and, most probably, will be different when selecting them for students having different majors in their university studies. It means that there can be

no universality in the process of selecting communicative situations for tertiary students of different majors. In each particular case, the selection process should be done separately.

Having discussed the implementation and meaning of the principle of authenticity in organizing students' learning activities and learning communication, the next principle for consideration that seems to be the closest to the two principles already discussed is the principle of authenticity of learning materials. Its closeness to the principles of systematizing professional information in the coursebook and course of English for Specific Purposes and of authenticity of students' learning activities and learning communication is due to the fact that all the three principles are responsible for the practical implementation of content-based instruction. As already said, the principle of systematizing professional information in the coursebook and course of English for Specific Purposes is responsible for adequate selection of professional informational content parts and professional themes for an ESP course while the principle of authenticity in organizing students' learning activities and learning communication is responsible for selecting professional communicative situations (though not only for that – see above). The principle of authenticity of learning materials is responsible for continuing such content selection – it is charged with the proper selection of speech materials and samples and all the other learning materials for an ESP course. Besides, the principle in question is most closely connected to the principle that has just been discussed – that of authenticity of learning activities and learning communication. This is because authentic learning activities naturally require authentic learning materials for their organization. Otherwise, they cannot be genuinely authentic. This is why the principle of authenticity of learning materials is the one next in line for analysis.

3. The principle of authenticity of learning materials

This principle is the practical continuation of the theme-based approach to learning content selection and ESP course design. As already mentioned, the principle is responsible for the adequate selection of all learning content (except the themes and communicative situations) beginning from speech materials and samples to be used in the teaching/learning process. As it is clear from the principle's name, it means that *all learning materials, and primarily the speech materials and samples, are supposed to be authentic. The authenticity of materials is considered as an absolutely indispensable prerequisite of successful ESP teaching and learning because otherwise (and that has also been reiterated in the preceding pages) students will miss the opportunity of learning from*

authentic professional target language communication samples. But such a definition of the principle requires the explanation of how *authenticity* is understood in this case.

Speech/communication materials (first of all, texts for reading and listening) in language studies are usually termed *authentic* if they are prepared (written or recorded) by native speakers for native speakers and originally were not meant at all for teaching and learning purposes in the process of second/foreign language studies (Nuttal, 1996). In accordance with this definition of authenticity, professional English texts for ESP students' reading can be said to be authentic if they were originally prepared by native speakers, specialists in the given field, for other native speakers, also specialists in that field. In the same way, an audio recording of a psychological session in English is an authentic material for ESP students majoring in Psychology if the session was conducted by a native speaker psychologist and recorded for information or use by other specialists in psychology who are also native speakers. If this condition of authenticity is not fulfilled, i.e., if texts for reading and/or listening are artificial – specially prepared by the author of a coursebook or some other compiler of teaching/learning materials, – they cannot be considered as reliable samples and reliable sources of speech materials for teaching students.

Naturally all materials, even authentic, at once become learning materials if they are selected for teaching ESP students. But that in no way influences their authenticity. Fortunately, nowadays there is no problem in selecting authentic learning materials thanks to the Internet which is an inexhaustible source of them. One more, and very important, source of authentic learning materials are textbooks on students' majoring subjects published in English-speaking countries for native speaking students who study those subjects at universities in such countries in the framework of their professional training.

However, whatever the sources and origins of such authentic materials are, they should be classified according to their type in the ESP teaching/learning process. Following that classification, the learning materials can be divided into *genuine*, *adapted*, and *synthesized* (Trimble, 1992).

Genuine learning materials, according to Trimble (1992), are those taken from authentic contexts without any changes.

Adapted materials are those that are based on authentic ones but that have certain changes made in them – as a rule, those changes having been made with the purpose of simplifying the materials. In this way, adapted materials do not in fact adequately reflect genuine native speakers' communication samples. The same, by the way, concerns the materials that may be called *created*, or *modeled* (Barabanova, 2003: 13). They are texts specially written for ESP teaching purposes without direct support from original authentic professional texts.

Finally, the last category of texts used for ESP learning purposes may be called *synthesized* ones. They are completely authentic and directly borrowed from au-

thentic sources. But their distinctive feature is due to the fact that the compiler of learning materials synthesizes one text out of several ones – two, three, or even more. One coherent and cohesive text is structured out of several authentic ones by using certain procedures discussed below. The procedures are such that they help to preserve the authenticity of the compiled text for reading or listening created thanks to using them. At the same time, the material is made more suitable to teaching/learning conditions and purposes (for instance, the text is made not *adapted* but *adjusted* – see the explanation below – to the students' level of target language proficiency or to the learning content, such as themes, being learned, or to the goals at this or that stage of learning, etc.).

The transformation of some original authentic professional target language materials (texts) into a synthesized material (text) to be used for ESP teaching/learning purposes can be achieved using several methods:

1. *merging* – combining several authentic professional texts into one so that the text obtained as a result of such synthesis better covers some learning theme (topic) or communicative situation(s) and, thanks to that, becomes better suited to the teaching/learning goals at a definite stage of learning;
2. *abridging* (which practically always follows merging) – cutting out a number of less important parts (paragraphs, fragments, etc.) of the original texts so that the obtained synthesized text is not too large for using it in the teaching/learning process;
3. *adjusting as to content and language* – cutting out a number of parts (paragraphs, fragments, even separate sentences and words) that may be too difficult for students to understand either due to their content or due to their language characteristics; such cutting out can be done only if the basic content and meaning of the original texts being synthesized remain intact;
4. *linking* – using special language means to join together the texts being synthesized and/or the parts of those texts from within which some fragments have been cut out (a paragraph in the middle of which a sentence has been cut out, two paragraphs out of original three when the middle paragraph has been cut out, etc.). Such linking means inserting some linking words, sentences, or even short paragraphs written specially for that purpose by the compiler of teaching/learning materials. Linking is required for restoring or renewing the internal structure of the synthesized text so as ensure the unity, coherence, and cohesion of the obtained final text planned for using in the teaching/learning process.

An example of such a synthesized text is given below. It is one of the texts for reading used in the ESP course for future psychologists. The text serves as a starting point for students to do several kinds of reading and writing learning tasks. It is placed in the coursebook *Psychological Matters* by Tarnopolsky, Kozhushko, et al. (2011a) in the *Workbook to Unit 2. History of Psychology*.

What Is Social Psychology?

According to psychologist Gordon Allport, social psychology is a discipline that uses scientific methods «to understand and explain how the thought, feeling and behavior of individuals are influenced by the actual, imagined, or implied presence of other human beings» (1985).

Social psychology looks at a wide range of social topics, including group behavior, social perception, leadership, nonverbal behavior, conformity, aggression, and prejudice. It is important to note that social psychology is not just about looking at social influences. Social perception and social interaction are also vital to understanding social behavior.

The U.S. government became interested in applying social psychological concepts to influencing citizens. Social psychology has continued to grow throughout the twentieth century, inspiring research that has contributed to our understanding of social experience and behavior.

It is important to understand how social psychology differs from other disciplines. Social psychology is often confused with personality psychology and sociology. What makes social psychology different?

While personality psychology focuses on individual characteristics and thoughts, social psychology is focused on situations. Social psychologists are interested in the impact that social environment and interaction has on attitudes and behaviors.

It is also important to distinguish between social psychology and sociology. While there are many similarities between the two, sociology tends to look at social behavior and influences at a very broad-based level. Sociologists are interested in the institutions and culture that influence social psychology. Psychologists instead focus on situational variables that affect social behavior. While psychology and sociology both study similar topics, they are looking at these topics from different perspectives.

The ideas of Lev Vygotsky have greatly influenced both cognitive and social psychology. The work of Lev Vygotsky (1896-1934) has become the foundation of much research and theory in cognitive development over the past several decades, particularly of what has become known as **Social Development Theory**. Vygotsky's theories stress the fundamental role of social interaction in the development of cognition, as he believed strongly that community plays a central role in the process of "making meaning".

(Based on the texts: **What Is Social Psychology?** by Kendra Cherry and **Vygotsky** by Saul Mcleod retrieved from <http://psychology.about.com/od/socialpsychology/f/socialpsych.htm> and <http://www.simplypsychology.pwp.blueyonder.co.uk/vygotsky.html> as of December 3, 2008)

The text above was synthesized from two texts retrieved from two different Internet sites – both devoted to psychological issues (at the time of writing this monograph those texts were still available on the sites indicated above and below). The original authentic texts that were used for synthesizing are given in full as an illustration:

What Is Social Psychology?

By Kendra Cherry, About.com Guide

According to psychologist Gordon Allport, social psychology is a discipline that uses scientific methods «to understand and explain how the thought, feeling and behavior of individuals are influenced by the actual, imagined, or implied presence of other human beings» (1985).

Social psychology looks at a wide range of social topics, including group behavior, social perception, leadership, nonverbal behavior, conformity, aggression, and prejudice. It is important to note that social psychology is not just about looking at social influences. Social perception and social interaction are also vital to understanding social behavior.

Brief History of Social Psychology

While Plato referred to the idea of the «crowd mind» and concepts such as social loafing and social facilitation were introduced in the late-1800s, it wasn't until after World War II that research on social psychology would begin in earnest. The horrors of the Holocaust led researchers to study the effects of social influence, conformity, and obedience.

The U.S. government also became interested in applying social psychological concepts to influencing citizens. Social psychology has continued to grow throughout the twentieth century, inspiring research that has contributed to our understanding of social experience and behavior.

How Is Social Psychology Different From Other Disciplines?

It is important to understand how social psychology differs from other disciplines. Social psychology is often confused with folk wisdom, personality psychology, and sociology. What makes social psychology different? Unlike folk wisdom, which relies on anecdotal observations and subjective interpretation, social psychology employs scientific methods and empirical study of social phenomena.

While personality psychology focuses on individual traits, characteristics, and thoughts, social psychology is focused on situations. Social psychologists are interested in the impact that social environment and interaction has on attitudes and behaviors.

Finally, it is important to distinguish between social psychology and sociology. While there are many similarities between the two, sociology tends to look at social behavior and influences at a very broad-based level. Sociologists are interested in the institutions and culture that influence social psychology. Psychologists instead focus on situational variables that affect social behavior. While psychology and sociology both study similar topics, they are looking at these topics from different perspectives.

(retrieved at <http://psychology.about.com/od/socialpsychology/f/socialpsych.htm> as of December 3, 2008)

Vygotsky

by Saul Mcleod, published 2007

The work of Lev Vygotsky (1896-1934) has become the foundation of much research and theory in cognitive development over the past several decades, particularly of what has become known as **Social Development Theory**.

Vygotsky's theories stress the fundamental role of social interaction in the development of cognition (Vygotsky, 1978; Wertsch, 1985), as he believed strongly that community plays a central role in the process of «making meaning.»

Unlike Piaget's notion that children's development must necessarily precede their learning, Vygotsky argued, «learning is a necessary and universal aspect of the process of developing culturally organized, specifically human psychological function» (1978, p. 90). In other words, social learning tends to precede (i.e. come before) development.

Vygotsky has developed a socio-cultural approach to cognitive development. He developed his theories at around the same time as Piaget was starting to develop his theories (1920's and 30's), but he died at the age of 38 and so his theories are incomplete – although some of his writings are still being translated from Russian.

No single principle (such as Piaget's equilibration) can account for development. Individual development cannot be understood without reference to the social and cultural context within which it is embedded. Higher mental processes in the individual have their origin in social processes.

Vygotsky's theory differs from that of Piaget in a number of important ways:

1: Vygotsky places **more emphasis on culture** affecting/shaping cognitive development – this contradicts Piaget's view of universal stages and content of development. (Vygotsky does not refer to stages in the way that Piaget does).

2: Vygotsky places considerably **more emphasis on social factors** contributing to cognitive development (Piaget is criticized for underestimating this).

3: Vygotsky places **more (and different) emphasis on the role of language** in cognitive development (again Piaget is criticized for lack of emphasis on this).

(retrieved at <http://www.simplypsychology.pwp.blueyonder.co.uk/vygotsky.html> as of December 3, 2008)

If the two quoted original texts are compared with the text preceding them which was synthesized for teaching/learning purposes, it can be seen that all the four methods of synthesizing were used in that case:

1. *Merging* – two absolutely different and separate texts (even from different web-sites) were combined to form a single new text that best corresponds as to content matter to what is to be studied in the ESP course on the sub-topic "Social Psychology" in the framework of the theme "History of Psychology".

2. *Abridging* – entire paragraphs were cut out from both original texts (from the second text only two first paragraphs were left) to make the size of the final synthesized text suitable for learning purposes.
3. *Adjusting* – some word combinations and even sentences that presented unnecessary vocabulary for students were cut out (e.g., the word combination *folk wisdom* in the second sentence of the fifth paragraph in the first original text). In the same way, entire paragraphs were cut out if they presented unnecessary content matter from the point of view of what subject matter had been selected for that particular ESP course (e.g., the following paragraph from the first original text: “While Plato referred to the idea of the “crowd mind” and concepts such as social loafing and social facilitation were introduced in the late-1800s, it wasn’t until after World War II that research on social psychology would begin in earnest. The horrors of the Holocaust led researchers to study the effects of social influence, conformity, and obedience”).
4. *Linking* – adding words or sentences to link the parts of the new synthesized text in a logical, coherent, and cohesive manner (e.g., the sentence “The ideas of Lev Vygotsky have greatly influenced both cognitive and social psychology” had not been in the original text but was inserted later into the synthesized text for logical connection’s sake).

In this way, the synthesized text “**What Is Social Psychology?**” loses nothing of the authenticity of the original ones but has become quite suitable for learning purposes. Thus, synthesizing allows for the creation of new materials in what concerns a number of their features as compared with the existing ones from which they were synthesized. Those new features are such that make the materials obtained in the process of synthesizing better suited for the conditions and requirements of learning, at the same time leaving intact the authenticity of those materials. (It should be remarked in brackets that if the original texts are copyrighted, synthesizing them in the way shown above certainly requires the permission of the copyright holder. If there are no copyright indications – as it is often the case with the materials from the Internet, like the ones above, – when using them for learning purposes by way of synthesizing, it is absolutely required to clearly quote the sources where the original materials to be subjected to synthesizing had been found – see the examples above.)

From everything said above it becomes clear that, if the requirement of employing authentic materials in ESP courses is accepted, *adapted and created/ modeled materials (texts) cannot be used in the constructivist teaching/learning process*. Their lack of authenticity cannot provide ESP students with a reliable model and reliable samples of professional target language communication. *Only genuine and synthesized materials, having authenticity as their distinctive feature, are acceptable for creating such a model and samples*. Of these two, the latter types of teaching/learning materials, the synthesized ones, are more suitable for

students' learning needs and possibilities, so they may be used in considerably greater numbers than the genuine ones. It is because of that reason that both our coursebooks discussed in this monograph (*Business Projects* and *Psychological Matters*) were mostly designed on the basis of synthesized materials. But of course, when students are selecting their own materials in English, for instance in the process of Internet research, they are dealing with genuine materials only, so that there is always a balance between genuine and synthesized authentic professional materials in the ESP teaching/learning process.

Actually, when authentic speech materials and samples (genuine and/or synthesized) have been selected, the principle of authenticity of learning materials, which is under consideration in this section, starts governing the selection of all the other parts of learning content only indirectly. This is because those other parts (vocabulary, grammar, sociolinguistic and pragmatic information, communication and language skills) are selected from and/or on the basis of speech/communication materials and samples – taking into account the previously selected themes and situations of professional communication. That was discussed in details in *Chapter 2* where the procedure of such selection was described.

With this remark, the analysis of the principle of authenticity of learning materials may be finished while the principle of integrating English speaking, listening, reading, and writing in the learning process comes up next for consideration.

4. The principle of integrating English speaking, listening, reading, and writing in the learning process

This principle, together with the principle of authenticity of students' learning activities and learning communication, serves to ensure adequate practical implementation of experiential interactive learning as the fundamental feature of the constructivist approach.

For ESP courses the importance of this principle is much greater than for courses of General English. This is because in professional activities of a specialist the four basic types of communicative activities are naturally integrated due to professional requirements. For instance, a person engaged in business in the course of business talks (listening and speaking) has to read some documents and his/her notes (reading), write some other notes on the basis of which, after the talks, the text of an agreement may be drawn (writing). Drawing the agreement (writing) may require getting familiarized with relevant documentation (reading), additional consultations with partners over the telephone (listening and speaking) or via e-mail (writing), etc. In a similar manner, a practical psychologist, after hav-

ing finished a consultation or a session with a client (listening and speaking), usually writes notes of that session for further reference and/or for sharing with colleagues (writing). S/he may need looking up similar cases in professional literature (reading) and then discuss the particular case of his/hers at a seminar with colleagues (speaking and listening), etc.

Such integration of speaking, listening, reading, and writing in professional activities (the integration being manifested through organic and obligatory links and transitions from one kind of communicative activity to all the others) has to find its reflection in the process of ESP teaching and learning if that teaching and learning is planned to be designed on the basis of the constructivist approach. This is because the constructivist approach requires professional activities to be modeled as accurately as possible in every ESP course. The principle of integrating English speaking, listening, reading, and writing in the learning process is designed to guarantee such modeling of that important aspect of professional communication.

In fact, within the framework of the constructivist approach, it is experiential interactive teaching/learning in particular that requires modeling professional activities in an ESP course to be as accurate as possible. Therefore, *the principle of integrating English speaking, listening, reading, and writing in the learning process, by giving an opportunity of more accurate and complete modeling of professional activities in an ESP course, fulfills one of the basic requirements of experiential interactive teaching/learning process organization. It also helps to fulfill a general requirement that has long been admitted as quite important for teaching English as a second/foreign language – that of integrating communicative activities in such teaching* (Byrne, 1987; Oxford, 2001; Weissberg, 2009).

The implementation of the principle under discussion in teaching practice can be illustrated by presenting a scheme of consecutive order of learning tasks given to students in a typical unit from the coursebook *Psychological Matters* (Tarnopolsky, Kozhushko, et al., 2011a).

In that coursebook, the work on every unit begins with students discussing the issues (speaking and listening) which are connected with the theme (topic) of the unit. That allows revealing learners' background knowledge. On the basis of their discussion, the students proceed to reading one or several texts with professional content of the text(s) related to the issues that have just been discussed, so that the materials being read might help learners to clarify their own ideas on the topic under analysis (reading). A new discussion follows reading – to compare and contrast the ideas formulated by students themselves and the ideas in the text(s) read (speaking and listening). After that, the information obtained is replenished by way of giving learners opportunities of listening to audio materials where the same professional issues are debated in various practical manners – listening to recordings of psychological sessions, descriptions of cases, short lectures, etc. (listening). What has been heard is also discussed (speaking and listening), and the students proceed to generating/producing their own infor-

mation – for instance, developing their own cases, preparing presentations on the issues under consideration, etc. (reading and/or listening when searching for information, speaking/listening when discussing what has been found or what has been developed with the other students and the teacher). Finally, the end-product of students' efforts is always presented in the written form: an essay or a summary, a project report or an article, etc. (writing).

From the above scheme of teaching/learning process organization it can be seen how organic and natural the transitions from one type of communicative activity to the others are: the transitions from speaking/listening to reading, from reading again to speaking/listening, from there to listening to recordings of audio materials, thence to reading, listening and speaking again, and finally, to writing (see above). The organic character and naturalness of the transitions are conditioned by the nature of learning tasks received by students.

To emphasize the point made in the preceding paragraph, it is also worth demonstrating an actual series of learning activities from the coursebook *Business Projects* (Tarnopolsky, Kozhushko, et al., 2002). Those learning tasks/activities are in most respects similar to the one indicated in the scheme above and they, by themselves, integrate all the four communicative activities in such a manner that each of them is a logical and necessary continuation of the preceding one and a foundation for the following one.

The series of tasks to be demonstrated as an example consists of five learning activities that are taken from *Unit 9. Banking and Finance* in the coursebook *Business Projects (Student's Book)*:

1. As you know, banks focus their work on money and financial services. What do you think banks do with their money? Discussing the matter in pairs, list those activities and then report your opinions to the class.

2. Read the text and check your answers in activity 2 (above) (8 min.).

There are two types of banks: commercial banks and investment banks – or merchant banks as they are called in Great Britain. Commercial banks deal mainly with individual customers, for instance, private citizens, small businesses, and such like. They receive and hold deposits, lend money, exchange foreign currencies, advise their customers how to invest their money, and manage the customers' accounts (for instance, pay or invest money according to the customer's wishes). Commercial banks make their profit from the difference between the interest that they pay to people who deposit money and the interest they charge to people who borrow money. This difference is called a margin.

Investment banks deal mainly with rich corporate clients (companies or large firms) or rich individual clients. They aim not so much at lending money but at raising funds for industry (their corporate clients) in different financial markets. Therefore, investment banks act mainly as intermediaries for their customers. They do

not themselves make loans, but make their profits from fees paid for their services. Merchant banks in Britain do the same, but they have greater authority because they also offer loans themselves. They finance international trade, deal with mergers, and issue government bonds.

In recent times, the difference between commercial and investment banks has been slowly disappearing as the so-called "financial supermarkets" replace them. These are a combination of a commercial bank, an investment bank, and an insurance company, offering the full range of financial services.

Whether depositing or borrowing money, a customer is most interested in the bank's interest rate. The minimum interest rate within a certain country is usually determined by the central bank, and the interest rates offered by other banks sometimes fluctuate slightly from time to time, and are publicly advertised by any bank. They are always either higher than or equal to the minimum interest rate fixed for that country.

3. Role-play (in pairs). The text above described the banking system in English speaking countries. You are having an exam at a Business School now.

Student A	Student B
You are a professor at a Business School. Ask your student questions about the banking system in the USA and Great Britain.	You are a student taking an exam at a Business School. Answer your professor's questions on the banking system in the USA and Great Britain.

4. Continuous simulation. Divide the class into two equal groups. One group discusses the possibility of your company's founding its own bank. This group should find arguments both in favor of opening the bank and for selecting a certain type of bank (commercial, investment, or a financial supermarket). The other group should also discuss the same possibility, but it should find arguments against opening any kind of bank by your company. You have 20-25 minutes for discussion and may ask for your teacher's help in case of difficulties.

5. Project work. Each group should summarize in writing the results of their discussion and their arguments (100 words). This summary will serve as the basis for a presentation in the last class on this unit, and so should be written before then.

It can be seen from the examples of five learning tasks/activities above that speaking and listening in the first one (discussion) naturally lead to reading in the second task, which is absolutely necessary because students need to check the correctness of their ideas formulated in the discussion. Likewise, reading naturally

leads to speaking and listening again – first, in role playing where students summarize their understanding of the banking system and, later, in continuous simulation where that understanding is used for taking certain practical decisions and finding logical reasons for such decisions. Finally, those decisions and the reasons for taking them are most fully substantiated in writing (project work) that opens up prospects of further speaking and listening in students' presentations.

The given examples demonstrate not only the naturalness of transitions from one learning task to the others tasks connected with developing skills in different target language communicative activities (reading, speaking, listening, and writing). Such naturalness by itself would show only the *interconnections* and *interdependences* of reading, speaking, listening, and writing in the learning tasks that students do. But the examples also manifest the *ultimate integration* of such communicative activities in the teaching/learning process because each of the learning tasks above would become illogical if not preceded or followed by all the other tasks/activities.

So, the examples given are, in fact, an illustration of what was said in section 3.1 of *Chapter 1* when discussing how different experiential learning activities contribute to joint (*integrated*) development of the four basic communicative activities: speaking, listening, reading, and writing. There it was shown how in a constructivist ESP course role plays/simulations, brainstorming, case studies, discussions, students' presentations and project work could never be limited to just one communicative activity but necessarily required engaging students in practically all the others. This is exactly what was exemplified in the series of five learning tasks/activities demonstrated above.

In this way, *the analyzed principle of integrating English speaking, listening, reading, and writing in the learning process, on the one hand, ensures full interconnections and interdependences of all the four basic communicative activities and organic natural transitions of one communicative activity into the following ones in the framework of a series of learning assignments/tasks given to students. Thanks to that, the skills in all the four communicative activities develop in a balanced, interconnected, interdependent, and mutually supportive manner. On the other hand, in each one of experiential learning tasks/activities, such as role plays/simulations, brainstorming, case studies, discussions, students' presentations and project work, the four communicative activities are mostly integrated so that one of them naturally requires using the others within one and the same organizational framework. This enhances the interconnected, interdependent, and mutually supportive development of skills in all the four types of professional target language communication.*

The completion of discussion of how English speaking, listening, reading, and writing are supposed to be integrated in a constructivist ESP course for tertiary students leaves only the last principle out of five to be analyzed – that of developing learners' informative competence in English. The following section is devoted to that principle.

5. The principle of developing students' informative competence in English

This principle, as said at the beginning of the chapter, means creating the best prerequisites for Internet technologies' use in the teaching/learning process. It certainly pre-supposes the regular and constant use of such technologies in ESP studies. But in fact, that use is not in the area of the principle's responsibilities because it is blended learning itself, as one of the basic features of the developed approach, which is in charge of the organizational aspect of practical Internet involvement in an ESP course.

*What the principle of developing students' informative competence in English is really responsible for is ensuring learners' readiness and preparedness for working on the Internet with the aim of solving the tasks connected with their ESP studies. This means developing students' competence in using the Internet, which may be called **informative competence** by analogy with the information technologies in whose structure the Internet occupies the leading position.*

It should be noted that the task of a constructivist blended learning ESP course is not developing students' informative competence in general but developing their *informative competence in English* which has to be formed in case learners regularly and constantly work on Internet sites in English. *Those are the only permissible sites to be used in ESP studies while the use of sites in other languages, and first of all in students' L1, must be strictly prohibited in an ESP course. Otherwise, the beneficial effect of using Internet technologies for language acquisition will disappear.*

The *informative competence in English* to be developed by ESP students may be defined as *abilities/skills of future professionals to find and use the required professional information through all accessible information channels in English, and first of all, through those that are made accessible thanks to the up-to-date information technologies.* Such competence is supposed to be inextricably connected with the students' target language acquisition not only because it is being developed in the framework of an ESP course. The main reason is the fact that, globally, the greater part of professional information, especially in the World Wide Web, is in English (c.f. Graddol, 2006), so that only specialists who possess informative competence in English can gain access to all the wealth of the most recent and important achievements in their respective professional fields.

It may be said that informative competence cannot be limited to using Internet resources only. Even from the definition above it is clear that it should also include abilities/skills of finding the required professional information in all kinds of sources – printed library resources, for example. But in our case, all other information sources, and students' abilities to find the required

professional resources there, may be disregarded. The task of teaching students how to do, for instance, information research (in English or in other languages) in libraries cannot be listed among the tasks of an ESP course. However, if that course is based on regular and permanent use of Internet technologies (as in the blended learning approach advocated in this monograph), the task of developing students' *informative competence in English*, at least limited to teaching them how to do Internet research on web-sites in English, cannot be avoided. Not only the learners' future professional competence (in those aspects of it that are connected with using the command of the English language for professional purposes) but also their success in the blended learning ESP course depends on the successful solution of that task. It is hard to expect that students can efficiently work in such a course based on Internet research on web-sites in English if they have not been taught relevant skills of doing such research.

There are two other reasons that necessitate this approach, i.e., including the task of developing ESP students' informative competence in English among the tasks of an ESP course.

The first reason is what was emphasized by Warschauer and Whittaker (1997: 27) whose idea concerning the issue under discussion has already been quoted in *Chapter 3* (section 1). They asserted that students not only use the Internet for gaining a better command of English. Sometimes, one of their leading motives for studying English is gaining command of the skills of working on the Internet in English.

The second reason was also identified by Warschauer and his coauthors (Warschauer, Shetzer, & Meloni, 2000) who stressed the requirement of what they called *dual immersion* in language studies – meaning that teaching the target language and teaching the use of computer technologies for learning that language should go hand-in-hand in the framework of every language course.

ESP students' informative competence in English presupposes their acquiring at least the following skills without which their Internet research on web-sites in English may hardly be possible:

1. The skill of mostly automatically using the English alphabet letters on the computer keyboard in accordance with their standard layout there.
2. The skill of using the search engines (such as *Google* and others) in English for the purposes of information search on web-sites in that language.
3. The skill of storing the addresses of web-sites in English that can be used for future studies in computer's memory.
4. The skill of storing and copying the materials found in the process of Internet research (text materials, as well as audio and video materials).
5. The skill of subscribing to mailing lists in English with the aim of receiving the latest professional information.

If in the teaching/learning process the Internet is used not only for information search but in its other functions that have been discussed in *Chapter 3*, other skills may also be required. They include (again at the very least):

1. The skills of using e-mail in English (as already said, students should mostly develop such skills even before their ESP course starts).
2. The skills of finding on the Internet and adequately using the programs for learning English autonomously. The programs of that kind are in great abundance there and should be used whenever and wherever possible.
3. The skills allowing students to participate in chat rooms and forums in English where professional issues are discussed.
4. The skills of using the "tandem" method for language learning (when on definite web-sites language learners find partners for mutual help in their learning efforts, as well as tools for such "team" learning (Schmelter, 2004).

Other skills may be listed that could be useful for students to acquire, but the principal point that should be made is that developing the enumerated skills and whatever other skills required for working on the Internet sites in English does not, as a rule, require much time and effort. This is primarily because the greatest majority of university students today (in all countries of the world) already have all the skills listed above – at least, in what concerns working on the Internet in their L1. So, the transfer of those skills for using them on the basis of the English language is mostly a matter of practice. As our experience has shown, the greatest practice, time, and efforts are required for students to get used to the English alphabet letters on the computer keyboard in accordance with their standard layout there. No less important is learning all the English words and names connected with performing the Internet search, subscribing to mailing lists, using chat rooms and forums in English, etc. But again, this is also more a matter of regular Internet practice than of special lessons for teaching such skills.

Certainly, there may always be some students who need such special lessons because of serious inadequacies in the development of their Internet skills. But there should not be many of those lessons – usually two, or even one, two-hour (sometimes one-hour) lessons are enough to give students all the required explanations and let them try out in practice how they can work on the Internet in English. Such short lessons (one or two) may be useful even for students discussed in the preceding paragraph – those who already possess the Internet skills connected with their L1. The lessons may be taught either by an ESP teacher, if s/he is qualified enough to teach them, or by a computer technology teacher – depending on local conditions. After those lessons are held, everything that remains to be done is to provide students with as much practice in using the Internet in English as possible. Therefore, the principle of developing students' informative competence in English does not require a lot of ESP teacher's efforts to be met. But the teacher should always remember about its existence and be

ready to give students technical help when they are working on the Internet sites in English.

The analysis of the last of postulated principles leaves only one more issue to be discussed in this chapter – that of principles' interconnections.

6. Interconnections and interdependences of principles underlying the practical implementation of the constructivist blended learning approach

Such interconnections are shown in Fig. 11 demonstrating all the internal links of the principles in question and their external links to the three fundamental features of the constructivist blended learning approach.

As it can be seen from the scheme in Fig. 11, each of the principles is not only subordinated to one of the fundamental constituents of the constructivist blended learning approach. There are also the relations of interdependence between every principle's own implementation in the teaching/learning process and the implementation of all the other four principles. Those interdependences and relevant interconnections of principles are explained further.

The explanations may begin with the principle discussed in the first section of this chapter – that of systematizing professional information in the coursebook and course of English for Specific Purposes.

It became clear from the analysis in that section that the principle of systematizing professional information in the coursebook and course of English for Specific Purposes is responsible for the selection of such an important part of learning content as future profession-oriented modules and themes to be studied in the teaching/learning process. It is also clear from what was said in *Chapter 2*, that the next step in the content selection is the selection of communicative situations. But the practical implementation of their selection depends on a different principle – the principle of authenticity of students' learning activities and learning communication (see section 2 in this chapter). This latter principle regulates modeling professional activities in different kinds of experiential learning activities used in the teaching/learning process. The modeling, to a great extent, depends on communicative situations selected for every such activity, while the selection of those situations themselves is interdependent with choosing the informational parts (modules) and themes for the ESP course (c.f. *Chapter 2*, section 5.2.1). This is the manifestation of the interdependence of the principle of systematizing the professional information in ESP coursebooks and ESP courses and the principle of authenticity of students' learning activities

The fundamental features of the constructivist blended learning approach

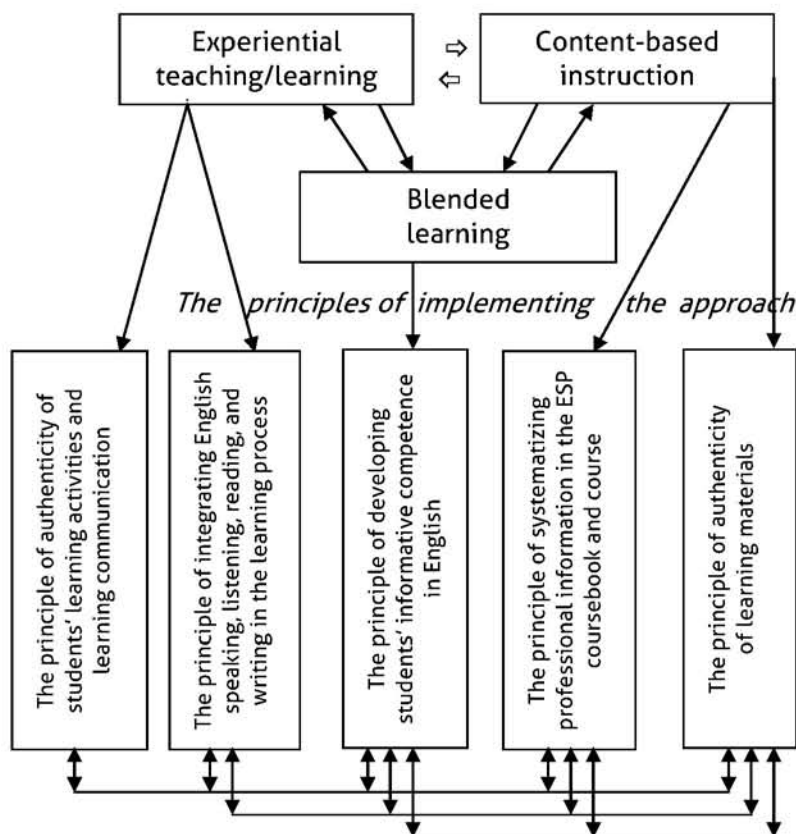


Fig. 11 Links and interconnections of the practical principles for teaching a constructivist blended learning ESP course and the three fundamental features of the constructivist blended learning approach

and learning communication. The interdependence of these two principles has been demonstrated in Fig 11 above by indicating the existing links between them.

There are similar interconnections and interdependences between the principle of systematizing the professional information in ESP coursebooks and ESP courses and all the other postulated principles. The corresponding links are also shown in Fig. 11.

For instance, the links of the principle under consideration with the principle of authenticity of learning materials are quite close. This is due to the fact that the principle regulates, as shown in section 3 of this chapter, the selection of speech/communication materials, samples, and all the other learning content

chosen from them (c.f. *Chapter 2*, section 5.2). But the selection of speech/communication materials is dependent on the selection of themes (the principle of systematizing the professional information in ESP coursebooks and ESP courses) and on the selection of communicative situations (the principle of authenticity of students' learning activities and learning communication). On the other hand, the adequate practical implementation of the latter two principles also depends on how adequately speech materials and the other learning content have been selected. This means that all the three principles discussed above are interconnected and interdependent (Fig. 11).

The principle of integrating English speaking, listening, reading, and writing in the learning process is dependent on the principle of systematizing the professional information in ESP coursebooks and ESP courses too. It is also dependent in a similar manner on the principle of authenticity of learning materials and the principle of authenticity of students' learning activities and learning communication. This is because students' acquisition of target language speaking, listening, reading, and writing skills depends to a great extent on the how adequately themes, communicative situations, speech materials, and other learning content have been selected. But in the same manner, the practical implementation of the principles of systematizing the professional information in ESP coursebooks and ESP courses, of authenticity of learning materials, and of authenticity of students' learning activities and learning communication also depends on what approach to teaching speaking, listening, reading, and writing is followed in the teaching practice. This mutual dependence demonstrates the interconnections of all the four principles in question (Fig. 11).

Finally, quite clear are the interconnections of the four principles discussed above with the last principle of developing students' informative competence in English – the principle responsible for involving the Internet technologies in the teaching/learning process. Since, as shown in *Chapter 3*, in the constructivist blended learning approach both the selection of learning content and teaching/learning that content are inextricably bound with using the Internet technologies, that selection and teaching/learning (i.e., the principles regulating them) depend on the use of those technologies and on the principle governing the ESP students' readiness and preparedness for such use. On the other hand, the use of Internet technologies by even well-prepared ESP students is also quite dependent on how learning content is selected and taught/learned, i.e., on the implementation of the principles regulating such selection and teaching/learning. This manifests the interconnections and mutual dependences of the principle of developing students' informative competence in English and the other four principles.

Therefore, everything said above proves that the suggested principles are not separate entities but form a single system where all component parts, or subsystems, are closely related to each other through a balanced structure of interconnections and interdependences.

7. Conclusion to Chapter 4

In this chapter, five postulated principles responsible for the practical implementation of the constructivist blended learning approach have been discussed and analyzed as to their application to teaching/learning practice:

1. The principle of systematizing professional information in the coursebook and course of English for Specific Purposes. It is responsible for the selection of professionally systematized content parts in an ESP course and for attaching to each of those parts relevantly selected professional themes/topics – thereby serving the practical implementation of the content-based instruction.
2. The principle of authenticity of students' learning activities and learning communication responsible for faithful modeling of their future professional activities and practices in learning activities – thereby serving the practical implementation of experiential interactive teaching/learning. The principle is also responsible for selecting authentic professionally significant communicative situations in which learning activities are organized to model professional activities most adequately. Therefore, through its responsibility for situation selection, the principle contributes to practical implementation of content-based instruction too.
3. The principle of authenticity of learning materials responsible for the practical implementation of the content-based instruction as well by way of ensuring that learning materials (and primarily speech/communication materials and samples) selected for an ESP course are authentic from the point of view of representing that professional communication in English the skills of which are being taught to students.
4. The principle of integrating English speaking, listening, reading, and writing in the learning process which is in charge of implementing experiential interactive learning by way of modeling one important aspect of professional activities of a future specialist – that of integration in those activities of all the four basic communication skills. The principles ensures full interconnections and interdependences of speaking, listening, reading, and writing and organic natural transitions of one communicative activity into the following ones in the framework of a series of learning assignments/tasks given to students. Thanks to that, the skills in all the four communicative activities develop in a balanced, interconnected, interdependent, and mutually supportive manner. Besides, in each one of experiential learning tasks/activities, such as role

plays/simulations, brainstorming, case studies, discussions, students' presentations and project work, the four communicative activities are also mostly integrated so that one of them naturally requires using the others within the same organizational framework. This gives one more chance of enhancing the interconnected, interdependent, and mutually supportive development of skills in all the four types of professional target language communication.

5. Finally, the last principle of developing students' informative competence in English which is responsible for creating the best conditions for blended learning implementation by way of ensuring students' acquisition of skills required for successful work on Internet sites in English.

All five principles are interconnected and interdependent, creating a system of basic postulates for practical organization of a constructivist blended learning ESP course. Such an organization is discussed in the last chapter of this monograph.

Chapter 5.

Practical implementation of the constructivist blended learning approach to teaching English for Specific Purposes at tertiary schools

In the preceding chapters the entire teaching/learning practice in a constructivist blended learning ESP course has been fully described in what concerns the selected learning content and the learning activities used – with the practical instances of both as exemplified in an ESP course for future psychologists and in a similar course for future economists and businesspeople.

What remains to be described in this chapter is the organizational aspect, i.e., how the course as a whole is organized. In this description, the same two ESP courses (for future psychologists and for future economists and businesspeople) that have been discussed throughout this monograph should again be used as practical examples. The best way of presenting such a description would be to demonstrate a kind of *model* of the course on the basis of one *teaching/learning unit* because every ESP course is organizationally made up of a number of teaching/learning units that are at least quite similar, if not identical, to each other as to their structure. Therefore, the model of one typical unit may completely represent the entire ESP course if that model comprises: the standard structural (organizational) parts of the unit, the objectives pursued by the teacher and the students when working on each of the parts, and the learning activities used in in-class and out-of-class work while working on those parts.

The learning content, except the content objectives pursued when working on a unit in the course, need not be elucidated in the model if it is clear what it is for the entire course (as it is clear for both ESP courses – for future economists/businesspeople and for future psychologists – used as examples in this monograph from what has been said about their learning content in the preceding chapters). But the model should clarify the number of in-class and out-of-class academic hours planned to be spent on working on one teaching/learning unit and on each of its structural parts. The other relevant organizational information should also be clarified – such as the year of university studies for which the ESP course is designed, the total number of planned academic hours for in-class and out-of-class students' work in the course, whether there are some other classes, besides those included into the standard structure of work on every teaching/learning unit, and how the end-of-the-semester, end-of-the-course testing/checking of skills acquired by students is organized.

For developing the model in question, the optimal way is using the teaching/learning units from the coursebooks analyzed in this monograph: *Business Projects* (Tarnopolsky, Kozhushko, et al., 2002) and *Psychological Matters* (Tarnopolsky, Kozhushko, et al., 2011a). This is because the basic coursebook that is used for organizing whatever ESP course, as a rule, best represents its design and structure. At any rate, this is so for the two ESP courses developed by us.

However, it should be remarked that in our case, it is not enough to develop only one such generalized model using one of the two coursebooks mentioned above or both of them together. It is because the ESP courses developed on their bases represent two different versions of the constructivist approach. It has already been said that the coursebook *Business Project* represents its earlier version elaborated without the use of blended learning. The complete version of the approach as described in this monograph is embodied in the coursebook *Psychological Matters*. There are also other differences between the two versions. For instance, the version of the ESP course for future economists and businesspeople is to a great extent based on continuous simulation (c.f. *Chapter 1*, 2.2.3 and 2.3.2) which is not used at all in the ESP course for students majoring in Psychology.

Therefore, it is necessary to present not one but two models in this chapter, each one representing one particular version of an ESP course. It is better to begin with the model of an ESP course developed for future psychologists because only that course represents the complete version of the constructivist blended learning approach to ESP teaching analyzed in the monograph (in this case, the other model of the course for economists will be good for the purposes of comparing and contrasting). This first model is discussed in the following section.

1. The model of an ESP course based on the complete version of the suggested constructivist blended learning approach

The ESP course for future psychologists was developed for the second year of their university studies and the second year of their learning English at university. (The first year, as mentioned already, is devoted to teaching General English with the aim of bringing learners to the B2 level of its command before ESP teaching/learning even starts.) The ESP course for students majoring in Psychology is designed for 144 academic hours of in-class work and the same number of hours of learners' out-of-class work (288 hours total – 9.5 credits). Classes are held two times a week, two academic hours for every class (an academic hour is considered to be 40 minutes, so there are four academic hours of in-class work

per week and four hours of learners' out-of-class work per week— eight hours total).

The course is organized on the basis of the coursebook *Psychological Matters* (Tarnopolsky, Kozhushko, et al., 2011a&b) that consists of: 1) the *Student's Book* (designed exclusively for learners' in-class work) together with 2) the *Workbook* to it (meant for out-of-class students' assignments – home tasks); 3) a CD with audio recordings to be used in the teaching/learning process; and 4) the *Teacher's Book* with the description of the course and the discussion of the methodology of working on it, as well as with some additional materials to be used by the teacher for in-class and out-of-class work, lesson plans, lesson instructions, and explanations for the teacher, sample correct answers to a number of tasks in the *Student's Book* and *Workbook*, tapescripts of all the audio materials on the CD, and the unit glossaries of the most important vocabulary in the course.

The coursebook *Psychological Matters* and, consequently, the ESP course based on it are divided into four modules and ten units. The names of the modules and the units in them have been given in preceding *Chapter 4*. The exact number of academic hours planned for working on each of the four modules is beside the point in the context under discussion, all the more so that different modules have various number of units in them (see *Chapter 4, section 1*), and that inevitably makes for the differences in time allocated for working on different modules. But the academic time planned for work on every unit is stable: it is 14 academic hours of in-class work (seven two-hour class periods) and 14 academic hours of students' autonomous out-of-class work (28 academic hours total). Therefore, 10 units require 140 academic hours of in-class work (out of planned 144 – see above) and 140 academic hours of students' autonomous out-of-class work (280 academic hours total out of 288). The remaining four hours of in-class work and four hours of out-of class work are divided between two *Recapitulation Classes* that will be discussed further.

Every unit in the coursebook and the course consists of seven parts, and two academic hours of in-class and two hours of out-of-class students' work are planned for each of the parts. That makes the above-indicated total of 28 academic hours per one learning unit. Since all the learning units are identical as to their structure, objectives pursued, and the learning activities used, the model of one typical learning unit, as already said, represents the model of the entire constructivist blended learning ESP course for future psychologists. This model is shown in Table 1.

As can be seen from the model in Table 1, every learning unit in the ESP course and coursebook for students majoring in Psychology fully reflects everything described in the preceding chapters of this monograph in what concerns the practical implementation of the constructivist blended learning approach.

However, such implementation of the approach also requires special components in the teaching/learning process aimed at checking and assessing

Table 1. Organizational model of the constructivist blended learning ESP course for future psychologists (as exemplified by one typical learning unit from the course based on the coursebook Psychological Matters).

The structural part of the typical learning unit from the course and the coursebook	The objectives of work on the structural part of the typical learning unit from the course and the coursebook	The types of communicative activities (types of communication on professional issues) involved when working on the structural part of the typical learning unit from the course and the coursebook	The kinds of learning activities involved in the in-class work on the structural part of the typical learning unit from the course and the coursebook	The kinds of learning activities involved in the out-of-class work on the structural part of the typical learning unit from the course and the coursebook
1 Lead-in (two academic hours of in-class work and two academic hours of out-of-class work)	2 <i>Content objectives:</i> activating students' background professional knowledge, acquisition of new professional knowledge by them, systematizing the new and previously acquired knowledge, expanding previously acquired knowledge by adding earlier unknown details of professional information. <i>Communication and language development objectives:</i> the development of learners' skills of speaking, reading, and listening in English in connection with professional issues in the framework of one professional communication topic; the development of language skills required for such communication. <i>Informative competence development objectives:</i> the development of students' skills in autonomous (out-of-class) Internet research on professional sites in English.	3 Speaking Reading Listening (when students are talking to each other and their teacher)	4 Brainstorming Case studies Discussions Presentations prepared and delivered in class Reading authentic professional texts (genuine or synthesized) for assignments on their basis Preparation of presentations to be delivered or of students' own cases to be discussed in the following classes Doing language skills-aimed (vocabulary and/or grammar) exercises	5 Internet search for professional information to do some creative tasks Reading authentic professional texts (genuine or synthesized) for doing creative speaking assignments on their basis Preparation of presentations to be delivered or of students' own cases to be discussed in the following classes Doing language skills-aimed (vocabulary and/or grammar) exercises

1	2	3	4	5
Step 1 (two academic hours of in-class work and two academic hours of out-of-class work)	<p><i>Content objectives:</i> further acquisition by students of new professional knowledge, systematizing the new and previously acquired knowledge.</p> <p><i>Communication and language development objectives:</i> further development of learners' skills of speaking, reading, and listening in English in connection with professional issues in the framework of one professional communication topic; developing skills of writing in English on professional issues, further development of language skills required for such communication.</p> <p><i>Informative competence development objectives:</i> optional – developing skills of emailing, using chat rooms and forums in English, using Internet programs for learning English.</p>	<p>Speaking</p> <p>Reading</p> <p>Listening (to recorded audio materials)</p> <p>Writing (out-of-class work only)</p>	<p>Delivering and discussing presentations prepared as home tasks</p> <p>Discussing cases prepared as home tasks</p> <p>Listening to recorded materials of professional content for doing creative speaking assignments on their basis</p> <p>Reading authentic professional texts (genuine or synthesized) for doing creative speaking assignments on their basis</p> <p>Role playing</p> <p>Discussions</p>	<p>Reading authentic professional texts (genuine or synthesized) for doing writing assignments on their basis</p> <p>Writing essays or summaries on the basis of texts read and/or on the basis of in-class discussions</p> <p>Doing language skills-aimed (vocabulary and/or grammar) exercises</p> <p>Optional – emailing, participating in chat rooms and forums in English, and using Internet programs for learning English.</p>

1	2	3	4	5
Step 2 (two academic hours of in-class work and two academic hours of out-of-class work)	<p><i>Content objectives:</i> further acquisition by students of new professional knowledge, systematizing the new and previously acquired knowledge.</p> <p><i>Communication and language development objectives:</i> further development of learners' skills of speaking, reading, listening, and writing in English in connection with professional issues in the framework of one professional communication topic; further development of language skills required for such communication.</p> <p><i>Informative competence development objectives:</i> the development of students' skills in autonomous (out-of-class) Internet research on professional sites in English; <i>optional</i> – developing skills of emailing, using chat rooms and forums in English, using Internet programs for learning English.</p>	<p>Speaking</p> <p>Reading</p> <p>Listening (when students are talking to each other and their teacher)</p> <p>Writing (in-class and out-of class)</p>	<p>Reading authentic professional texts (genuine or synthesized) for doing creative speaking and writing assignments on their basis</p> <p>Writing essays or summaries on the basis of texts read</p> <p>Discussions</p> <p>Presentations prepared and delivered in class</p> <p>Discussing cases presented by the teacher (as additional materials).</p>	<p>Internet search for professional information to do writing tasks</p> <p>Reading authentic professional texts (genuine or synthesized) for doing writing assignments on their basis</p> <p>Writing essays on the basis of materials read</p> <p>Doing language skills-aimed exercises</p> <p><i>Optional</i> – emailing, participating in chat rooms and forums in English, and using Internet programs for learning English.</p>

1	2	3	4	5
<p>Step 3 (two academic hours of in-class work and two academic hours of out-of-class work)</p>	<p><i>Content objectives:</i> further acquisition by students of new professional knowledge, systematizing the new and previously acquired knowledge.</p> <p><i>Communication and language development objectives:</i> further development of learners' skills of speaking, reading, listening, and writing in English in connection with professional issues in the framework of one professional communication topic; further development of language skills required for such communication.</p> <p><i>Informative competence development objectives:</i> the development of students' skills in teacher-controlled (in-class) Internet research on professional sites in English</p>	<p>Reading</p> <p>Speaking</p> <p>Listening (when students are talking to each other and their teacher and when they find some audio/video materials on the Internet)</p> <p>Writing (in-class and out-of class)</p>	<p>In-class students' Internet research (on Internet sites in English related to their profession) with the purpose of finding information for doing project assignments and other creative learning assignments for writing and speaking</p> <p>Reading the materials found (and/or listening to them/watching them if they are audio or video materials) with the purpose of doing project assignments and other creative learning assignments for writing and speaking</p> <p>Taking written notes of the materials being read and/or listened to for doing project assignments and other creative learning assignments for writing and speaking</p> <p>Discussing the materials found, read, and/or listened to with the teacher and other students (especially when the Internet research is done in pairs or small groups) for completing project assignments and other creative learning assignments for writing and speaking.</p>	<p>Writing articles, texts of presentations on the basis of the materials found and processed in the Internet research – with the purpose of completing project assignments and other creative learning assignments for writing</p> <p>Preparing presentations or cases to be delivered orally and discussed in class.</p>

1	2	3	4	5
Step 4 (two academic hours of in-class work and two academic hours of out-of-class work)	<p><i>Content objectives:</i> further acquisition by students of new professional knowledge, systematizing the new and previously acquired knowledge.</p> <p><i>Communication and language development objectives:</i> further development of learners' skills of speaking, reading, listening, and writing in English in connection with professional issues in the framework of one professional communication topic; further development of language skills required for such communication.</p> <p><i>Informative competence development objectives:</i> the development of students' skills in autonomous (out-of-class) Internet research on professional sites in English.</p>	<p>Speaking</p> <p>Reading</p> <p>Listening (to recorded audio materials)</p> <p>Writing (out-of-class work only)</p>	<p>Delivering and discussing presentations or cases prepared as home tasks (in the framework of students' project work and of their other creative assignments)</p> <p>Discussing students' written works, such as articles, prepared as home tasks in the framework of their project work and of their other creative assignments</p> <p>Listening to recorded materials of professional content for doing creative speaking assignments</p> <p>Role playing/discussions.</p>	<p>Internet search for professional information to do writing tasks (in the framework of students' project work)</p> <p>Reading authentic professional texts (genuine or synthesized) for doing writing assignments on their basis (in the framework of students' project work)</p> <p>Writing essays or short articles on the basis of information found (in the framework of students' project work).</p>

1	2	3	4	5
Step 5 (two academic hours of in-class work and two academic hours of out-of-class work)	<p>Content objectives: systematizing and reinforcing the previously acquired professional knowledge.</p> <p><i>Communication and language development objectives:</i> further development and reinforcement of learners' skills of speaking, reading, listening, and writing in English in connection with professional issues in the framework of one professional communication topic; reinforcement of language skills required for such communication.</p> <p><i>Informative competence development objectives: optional</i> – the skills of placing students' written works on web sites, developing skills of using chat rooms and forums in English</p>	<p>Speaking</p> <p>Reading</p> <p>Listening (when students are talking to each other and their teacher)</p> <p>Writing (when discussing orally students' written works; writing out of class when doing home assignments)</p>	<p>Delivering and discussing presentations prepared as home tasks (in the framework of students' project work)</p> <p>Discussing students' written works, such as essays or articles, prepared as home tasks in the framework of their project work</p> <p>Reading authentic professional texts (genuine or synthesized) for doing creative speaking assignments</p> <p>Role playing and/or discussions.</p>	<p>Reviewing all the unit's material for reinforcing it</p> <p>Reading genuine or synthesized professional texts for doing writing assignments</p> <p>Writing a summarizing essay on the basis of the material of the texts read and all the materials of the unit</p> <p>Doing language skills-aimed (vocabulary and/or grammar) reinforcement exercises</p> <p><i>Optional</i> – participating in chat rooms and forums in English, placing students' written works on web sites.</p>

1	2	3	4	5
<p>Step 6 (two academic hours of in-class work and two academic hours of out-of-class work)</p>	<p>Content objectives: systematizing and reinforcing the previously acquired professional knowledge.</p> <p>Communication and language development objectives: reinforcement of learners' skills of speaking, reading, listening, and writing in English in connection with professional issues in the framework of one professional communication topic; reinforcement of language skills required for such communication.</p> <p>Informative competence development objectives: optional – the development of students' skills in autonomous (out-of-class) Internet research on professional sites in English; developing skills of emailing, using chat rooms and forums in English, using Internet programs for learning English.</p>	<p>Listening (to recorded audio materials)</p> <p>Reading</p> <p>Writing (in-class work only)</p> <p>Speaking</p>	<p>Listening to recorded materials of professional content for doing creative assignments (such as writing summaries of what has been heard or organizing an oral discussion) and/or for doing test-type tasks (comprehension check)</p> <p>Reading genuine or synthesized professional texts for doing creative assignments (such as writing summaries of what has been read, or organizing an oral discussion, or writing an essay/article on the basis of what has been read and other acquired information) and/or for doing test-type tasks (comprehension check)</p> <p>Writing summaries, essays, or articles on the basis of the audio materials listened to or the texts read</p> <p>Presentations</p> <p>Role plays and/or discussions</p>	<p>Optional – emailing, participating in chat rooms and forums in English, and using Internet programs for learning English</p> <p>Optional – doing Internet research with the view of finding some preliminary information in English concerning the professional theme (topic) to be analyzed in the following learning unit.</p>

the students' learning outcomes. Of course, checking and assessment are done during every class period because students' completion of every learning task demonstrates the level of their communication and language skills development giving the teacher sufficient opportunities for current, class-after-class, learners' assessment. Besides, as it is clear from the description of the last part (*Step 6*) in every learning unit, checking and assessment are one of its major purposes because the learning tasks are designed so that their completion can faithfully demonstrate everything the learners have managed to learn and acquire in the process of working on the unit that they are finishing with that generalizing *Step 6* (c.f. Table 1).

Nevertheless, as every properly organized course, a constructivist blended learning ESP course is supposed to have class periods totally devoted to checking and assessment purposes. In the developed ESP course (and coursebook) for future psychologists this function is ascribed to the so called *Recapitulation classes*.

1.1. Recapitulation classes as elements specially designed for checking, testing, assessing, and grading students' learning outcomes in an ESP course

Two *Recapitulation classes* are planned for the ESP course for psychologists and included in the coursebook *Psychological Matters*. There is one *Recapitulation class* for every one of the two semesters (in the academic year as a whole) during which the course is being taught and learned. Their purposes are:

1. To recapitulate and generalize everything learned during the semester.
2. To assess the development of learners' communication skills acquired during the semester and check whether that development corresponds to the benchmarks pre-set for that particular semester. The communication skills are checked and assessed for all the four basic types of target language communication: speaking, listening, reading, and writing.
3. To assess the development of learners' language skills (primarily vocabulary and grammar) indirectly – as manifested when students are communicating in English orally or in writing, i.e., when they are speaking, writing, reading, or listening in that language. Direct checking and testing of language skills development (like in the *Use of English* paper of UCLES English language examinations – see, for instance, *FCE*, 1997) is not practiced at all. It is considered to be against the experiential and communicative orientation of the course and also to be quite unnecessary. Learners' use and understanding of vocabulary and grammar when they are speaking, reading, listening, or writing in English is believed to be totally sufficient

for assessing the development of students' language skills if there are appropriate criteria among those that are used for assessing their communication skills (see below).

4. To assess students' acquisition of the professional content matter (subject matter) of the course that is expected to be learned during the semester in parallel with target language communication and language skills.

As already noted, each of the two *Recapitulation classes* is planned for two academic hours of in-class work and two academic hours of out-of-class work. The in-class work is completely regulated by the assignments in the *Student's Book* from the coursebook *Psychological Matters* and instructions for the teacher in the *Teacher's Book*. Those assignments are aimed at productive types of communication only – speaking and writing – because they are considered to be the most difficult for students and most fully reflecting the overall development of their communication and language skills. Below, both tasks (one for speaking and the other one for writing) from *Recapitulation class 1* (the end of the first semester of working on the ESP course for students of Psychology) in the *Student's Book* of the coursebook *Psychological Matters* (Tarnopolsky, Kozhushko, et al., 2011a) are given as examples:

Recapitulation Class

(Speaking and Writing)

1. The class is divided into two groups. The first group of 6-8 students is, in its turn, divided into two subgroups of 3-4 students in each. The first subgroup of 3-4 students have to prepare a short TV programme "Meet Psychology" for the Discovery Channel. In this programme they will need to tell the audience (the students from the other group of 6-8 persons) what psychology is, what its most important branches are, what the greatest landmarks in its history in the 20th and 21st centuries are (one student can give a 3-minute presentation on psychology as a science and art, another on branches of psychology, the third on the greatest landmarks in its history in the 20th and 21st centuries, the fourth summarizes everything said by his/her partners and makes a conclusion concerning the importance of psychology in the world of today). This subgroup has 15 minutes for preparing their presentations. During the same time the second subgroup of the first group prepares a 5-7 minute quiz show "What do you know about psychology?" as a continuation to the programme "Meet Psychology." They prepare 8-10 questions on psychology as a science and art, branches of psychology, and its history to be put to the audience.

During the 15 minutes given to the first group for preparation, the second group of 6-8 students are preparing too. They are also divided into two subgroups of 3-4 students in each. The first subgroup of 3-4 students has to prepare a short TV programme "Psychology in the Workplace" for the Discovery Channel. In this programme they will need to tell the audience (the students from the first group of 6-8 persons) about the most frequent psychological problems at workplace (job

burnout, work-family conflicts, employment and working place conflicts) and ways of dealing with such problems. One student can give a 3-minute presentation on job burnout and ways on dealing with it, another on work-family conflicts, the third on employment and working place conflicts, the fourth summarizes everything said by his/her partners and makes a conclusion concerning the importance of psychology for ensuring normal and efficient work of people. During the same time the second subgroup of the second group prepares a 5-7 minute quiz show "What do you know about psychological problems at workplace?" as a continuation to the programme "Psychology in the Workplace." They prepare 8-10 questions on job burnout, work-family conflicts, employment and working place conflicts to be put to the audience.

After both groups finish their preparation, the first subgroup of the first group presents their programme "Meet Psychology." They have 12-13 minutes to deliver all their presentations. After the presentations are over, the second subgroup of the first group present their quiz show. They ask questions of the audience (the students from the other group of 6-8 persons) who need to compete in what concerns the speed and correctness of answering the questions. The student from the audience who has answered correctly the greatest number of questions will be proclaimed the winner of the quiz show. The time for the quiz show is 7-8 minutes.

When the first group finishes, the second group presents their programme and quiz show in an absolutely identical manner and in the identical time limits. In this case, there will also be one winner of the quiz show (now from the first group who will be the audience).

The total time for the activity is 50 minutes.

2. Now every student has to individually write a review of the TV programme and quiz show that he or she has just watched (the students from the first group in the assignment 1 above write a review of the programme "Psychology in the Workplace" and the quiz show "What do you know about psychological problems at workplace?"; the students from the second group in the assignment 1 above write a review of the programme "Meet Psychology" and the quiz show "What do you know about psychology?").

Make each of your reviews of four paragraphs and of approximately 100 words.

You have 30 minutes for writing (until the end of the class). After finishing writing, hand in your written reviews to your teacher for his/her checking, commenting, and grading.

The above kinds of creative speaking and writing tasks for checking the level of students' relevant skills development were selected for inclusion into *Recapitulation classes* following several assumptions:

1. Assessing the level of learners' speaking and writing skills development can never be fully objective because such productive communicative activities are distinguished by too many variables that preclude the introduction of the quantitative assessment (like, for instance, in reading

tests where choosing one correct answer out of several alternatives following the binary 'yes-no' paradigm is a clear quantitative indication of how accurately this or that testee has understood some fragment of the text after reading it). In speaking and writing, assessment can only be qualitative and, therefore, subjective – i.e., depending on every individual assessor's ideas of every particular quality parameter (c.f., for instance, Frendo, 2005: 123-125; Underhill, 1987; Wilds, 1975).

2. Qualitative assessment, i.e., the assessment based on some selected quality parameters, or criteria, is possible only when students-testees participate in productive communication: oral or written – speaking or writing (Alderson, Krahne, & Stansfield, 1987; Cohen, 1994; Madsen, 1983; 1983; Wilds, 1975).
3. The conditions of such communication should faithfully model, or imitate, the genuine conditions of using language in productive communication: oral or written – speaking or writing (Paltridge, 1992). In our case, it means that the conditions of communicating orally or in writing in the target language should imitate some of the conditions in which students may use that language in future in the course of their professional activities. Otherwise, judging whether the goals of teaching speaking or writing skills have been achieved may become impossible due to the difference between the checking/testing procedure and the real conditions of using the language in genuine communication (Savignon, 1992).

No special proof is needed to demonstrate that the kinds of tasks planned for *Recapitulation classes* fully meet the requirements above. But being creative in their nature and being very little externally regulated (and not being able to be different in that respect because, otherwise, those requirements will be neglected), such tasks make assessing students' results after doing them all the more subjective. This is because the level of assessment subjectivity naturally rises with the level of creativity and the level of learners' autonomy in the tasks being done – since the results of doing such tasks become more and more individualized, increasing accordingly the level of required assessment's individualization.

There are two ways of fighting that subjectivity, i.e., of making the assessment procedure as objective as possible when learners' target language skills in speaking and writing are being tested.

The first way is developing a whole set of qualitative parameters, or criteria, that every assessor/examiner is expected to take into account, so that they do their assessments on the basis of such criteria only (Cohen, 1994; Frendo: 125; Ingram, 1985: 247). Moreover, a definite scale of points is supposed to be ascribed to every criterion, so that assessors/examiners are not free in their grading either (Cohen, 1994; Ingram, 1985: 247). Criteria and the scale of points attached to them give assessors/examiners clear-cut guidelines as to the assessment and

grading procedure, thereby decreasing the impact of the subjective human factor in such assessment and grading (Underhill, 1987: 90).

The second way is the so called method of *independent experts or judges* when assessment and grading following a definite set of criteria and a definite scale of points is done not by the teacher who has been teaching the students but by some other teachers who do not know them at all – which also considerably lowers the degree of subjectivity. Its further decrease is achieved by letting not one but at least two *independent experts or judges* do the assessment and grading absolutely independently of each other. When the assessment procedure is completed, they negotiate their results/grades with each other arriving at some consensus – common grade which becomes the final grade for the student-testee. Alternatively, the points given to the student by every independent expert are all added up and then divided into the number of experts who were assessing and grading that student. The result of the division makes the final number of points (the final grade) scored by the learner (Underhill, 1987: 90).

Both these ways were used when developing the assessment and grading procedures for testing during *Recapitulation classes* the target language speaking and writing skills of students who majored in Practical Psychology.

The sets of criteria and the scales of points for assessing speaking and writing skills that had been developed were our own but they had been elaborated by analogy with similar criteria of other authors (such as Wilds, 1975) researching that issue and quoted above.

Thus, the set of criteria developed for assessing speaking skills includes seven such criteria, and ten points are ascribed to every criterion (all of them were considered to be of equal importance), so that a student-testee can score not more 70 points for doing the speaking task. If a student scores 63 points and higher (90% and higher), it is considered as an excellent result (an A grade). 56-62 points scored (between 80 and 89%) are a good result – a B grade. 49-55 points (between 70 and 79%) are a satisfactory result – a C grade, while the scores between 45 and 48 points (approximately between 65 and 68%) make the borderline D grade – *pass*. Everything lower than that is the F grade – *failure*.

Every student is expected to be assessed for all his or her speaking in English that he or she has been doing during a definite *Recapitulation class*. Therefore, the seven suggested criteria are aimed at taking account of all aspects of students' speaking activities during that class. So, they comprise:

1. *The criterion of content adequacy*, i.e., how adequate, appropriate, and relevant in content matter what the student is saying is from the point of view of the theme (topic) being discussed, the situation in which that topic is being discussed, and the professional information that the students are supposed to know in what concerns the subject matter under discussion.

2. *The criterion of language adequacy*, i.e., the relative linguistic accuracy and correctness of everything the student is saying from the point of view of grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation. The *relativity* in this case means that all minor errors and mistakes which in no way interfere with communicative adequacy – complete and unhindered comprehensibility of what is being said – can be ignored by the assessor/examiner.
3. *The criterion of temporal adequacy*, meaning that student's speaking should be comparable as to the characteristics of its tempo with the normal average temporal characteristics of oral speech (220 words per minute on the average – Quené, undated); otherwise, the speech sounds too slow; examiners are supposed to assess the speech as temporally adequate empirically – if it does not *seem* to sound too slow to them).
4. *The criterion of logical unity and coherence* of what the student is saying, as well as *the cohesion* of their speech expressed by language means – such as link words like: *however, nevertheless, next, first of all, but, and, on the contrary*, etc.
5. *The criterion of variety of vocabulary and grammar* used by the speaker.
6. *The criterion of volume of speaking*. That was a totally *a priori* criterion. It was supposed that the total time of every individual student's (out of a group of 10-12) speaking during one *Recapitulation class* was to be approximately five minutes which was considered enough to demonstrate the total range of the acquired speaking skills.
7. *The criterion of comprehending the speech addressed to the speaker*. Since, according to the speaking tasks in the *Recapitulation class*, every student is supposed to answer some questions (see above), correct understanding of speech/questions addressed to the speaker, as demonstrated by the manner in which he or she is answering, is considered to be an important speaking/listening skill.

The set of criteria and the assessment and grading approach to checking the development of writing skills, as demonstrated by students during a *Recapitulation class*, were elaborated in quite a similar manner to the ones applied to speaking tasks.

The set of criteria for assessing writing skills includes six such criteria, and, again, ten points are ascribed to every criterion, so that a student-testee can score not more 60 points for doing the writing task. If a student scores 54 points and higher (90% and higher), it is considered as an excellent result (an A grade). 48-53 points scored (between 80 and 89%) are a good result – a B grade. 42-47 points (between 70 and 79%) are a satisfactory result – a C grade, while the scores between 39 and 41 points (approximately between 65 and 68%) make the borderline D grade – *pass*. Everything lower than that is the F grade – *failure*.

The six criteria for assessing writing skills comprise:

1. *The criterion of content adequacy*, i.e., how adequate, appropriate, and relevant in content matter what the student has written is from the point of view of the theme (topic) s/he is expected to write about and the professional information that the students are supposed to know in what concerns the subject matter of their writing.
2. *The criterion of formatting, composition, structure, and style adequacy* meaning the degree of conformity of what the student has written to those formatting, composition, structure, and style requirements that are characteristic of writing this or that type of written documents in English (a summary, an abstract, an essay, a review, or an article, etc.).
3. *The criterion of language adequacy*, i.e., the linguistic accuracy and correctness of everything the student has written from the point of view of grammar, syntax, vocabulary, spelling, and punctuation. The requirements in this case are stricter than when assessing speaking because errors and mistakes in writing are less leniently looked upon by native speakers than in speaking. Therefore, not too many language mistakes can be ignored by the assessor/examiner, even if they in no way interfere with communicative adequacy – complete and unhindered comprehensibility of what has been written.
4. *The criterion of logical unity and coherence* of what the student has written, as well as *the cohesion* of the written document expressed by language means – such as link words like: *however, nevertheless, next, first of all, but, and, on the contrary*, etc.
5. *The criterion of variety of vocabulary and grammar* used by the writer.
6. *The criterion of the size of the written work* which is expected to be no less and not much more than 120-180 words – in accordance with the norms existing for a number of international examinations, such as FCE, aimed at determining the level of learners' command of English.

For assessing students' speaking and writing skills checked during *Recapitulation classes*, when learners are working with the coursebook *Psychological Matters*, the involvement of independent experts or judges is also highly recommended. This procedure is routinely used at Alfred Nobel University in Dnipropetrovsk, Ukraine where that coursebook was first introduced into the ESP course for future psychologists. It needs no proof to assert that it greatly enhances the objectivity of testing results in comparison with the assessment by only one assessor/examiner – the teacher who has been teaching students during the semester or the academic year.

Testing the development of students' skills in target language listening and reading within the framework of *Recapitulation classes* discussed in this section of the monograph is recommended to be organized in quite a specific and different manner in comparison with checking speaking and writing skills.

First, it is recommended to do such checking as out-of-class students' testing (it has been said before that, besides two academic hours of in-class work, two academic hours of out-of-class work are also planned for every *Recapitulation class*). Transferring the assessment of students' listening and reading skills to out-of-class work is rational because this assessment can best be done through the kind of testing that uses the quantitative, not qualitative, approach to obtain the most accurate and objective results (see below). There is no sense in wasting the short time of in-class *Recapitulation class* work on the procedure of standardized testing which can be implemented even in the teacher's absence. It is much better to use that short time for creative kinds of students' work aimed at better assessing their speaking and writing skills development – which can be done only in class and only in the teacher's presence.

Second, it is well known that checking the development of students listening or reading skills is best done through the procedure of standardized objective testing. Students begin by listening to some recorded audio material (a fragment of a psychological session or of a lecture, some kind of interview, etc.) or by reading some authentic professional text. There can be one or more texts to read or to listen to with every text for listening sounding not longer than five minutes and every text for reading containing not less than 500 and not more than 1,000 words (here, as in some other aspects – see above and below, – the norms set for international exams/tests of English are followed). After reading or listening, one or several test-type tasks are done by students, such as multiple choice tasks, gap-filling tasks, matching tasks, etc. For instance, one of the texts for listening used for the *Recapitulation class* described above was an authentic interview found on the Internet. A mother was interviewed about the psychology of her relationships with her son, *Rupert*. After 5-minute listening, students were requested to do the following multiple choice test task where correct answers to seven questions were supposed to be selected out of four suggested alternatives of each of the answers:

1. Thinking about the time when Rupert was young, the interviewee regrets that

- A. she didn't become famous.
- B. her career was affected.
- C. she wasn't at home more.
- D. she concentrated on her work.

2. What was the interviewee's view of her husband when Rupert was young?

- A. She resented his closeness to Rupert.
- B. She worried he would not cope.
- C. She knew he would do what she told him to.
- D. She appreciated what he did.

3. How did the interviewee react to the criticism of her as a mother?

- A. She lost her temper.
- B. She made excuses for her behavior.
- C. She explained the situation at home.
- D. She kept quiet.

4. How did Rupert behave as a little boy?

- A. He caused his mother a lot of worry.
- B. He demonstrated a need to be active.
- C. He had difficulty getting on with other children.
- D. He was always looking for attention.

5. The phrase 'ticking him off' means

- A. criticizing his behavior.
- B. making fun of him.
- C. disagreeing with his ideas.
- D. threatening him.

6. His parents first thought Rupert might make a good actor when he

- A. was asked to appear in the school play.
- B. started to enjoy dressing up.
- C. showed he knew what makes a good performance.
- D. told them he enjoyed acting.

7. What do we learn about Rupert's modeling career?

- A. It ended when he was offered an acting job.
- B. It took time to develop.
- C. It was encouraged by his mother.
- D. It was the result of a childhood ambition.

Every correct answer brought each of the students one point with seven correct answers earning them the highest A grade, while less than four correct answers meant a failure. Reading tests were organized in an absolutely identical manner – though it should be emphasized again that the test tasks both in reading and listening are not and need not necessarily be multiple choice but could be of other kinds, as already mentioned. It should also be remarked that in such an organization of testing students' listening and reading skills development we introduced nothing new but simply faithfully followed the existing practice of international examinations aimed at determining the level of learners' command of English – such as FCE, CAE, IELTS, TOEFL, and others.

Finally, the third, last, specificity of the developed procedure of testing listening and reading skills was due to the fact that, unlike testing speaking and writ-

ing procedure, there are no materials for listening and reading and no test tasks to such materials in the *Recapitulation classes* sections from the coursebook *Psychological Matters*. The materials there are limited to the tasks for speaking and writing, like the ones given above. It is the teacher who is supposed to select texts for listening and reading to be used during the out-of-class work on *Recapitulation classes*. It is also the teacher who is supposed to develop test tasks for those materials – like the test task for listening demonstrated above. This is so because of three reasons:

- a) materials for listening and reading tests, unlike those for speaking and writing tests, should be changed and replaced with the new ones quite often to remain reliable and valid for testing purposes; no coursebook can provide enough materials for such frequent replacements;
- b) those materials should be as up-to-date as possible from the professional point of view which is the requirement of the content-based approach; no coursebook can ensure such frequent updating of testing materials;
- c) it has already been mentioned that it was testing students' speaking and writing skills that was considered to be of principal importance for assessing their learning results (as the most difficult communication skills for development and those that best demonstrate learners' language proficiency); therefore, it was reasonable to give teachers opportunities of having wider choice and being more independent in organizing the checking of students' success in developing their listening and reading skills.

The procedure and requirements to organize checking, testing, assessing, and grading students' learning outcomes in a constructivist blended learning ESP course described above are most certainly not the only possible ones – there can be many others. So, they were analyzed not to show them as something mandatory for designing such a course. They are nothing more than examples of how such procedures can be organized to supply valid and reliable data for formulating judgments on students' successes or lack of them in their ESP studies. But those teachers who wish to introduce the constructivist blended learning approach into their ESP courses may develop a number of different procedures.

When discussing further the design of an ESP course for future economists and businesspeople, there will be no detailed analysis of the checking, testing, assessing, and grading students' learning outcomes procedure in that course, like it was done above (for the course aimed at future psychologists). This is because these procedures in both courses and both coursebooks (*Psychological Matters* and *Business Projects*) are identical. The only difference is the fact that in the ESP course for future economists and businesspeople there are more than two *Recapitulation classes*. Though the number of learning units in the course for economists is greater, the number of *Recapitulation classes* could be increased in it since the time for studying each of the units is shorter and there is no time spending on the Internet work (see the next section). In fact, the procedure just

discussed was first developed for the *Recapitulation classes* in the coursebook *Business Projects* and the ESP course based on it. Afterwards, that procedure was reproduced for the *Recapitulation classes* in the coursebook *Psychological Matters* and the ESP course for future psychologists. This is why there is no need to discuss it again when analyzing the course for future economists and businesspeople.

However, that course itself needs to be discussed separately because of the difference in its design, structure, and even ideology as compared to the ESP course for psychologists developed later. The description and discussion are given in the next section of this chapter.

2. The model of an ESP course based on the other (narrower) version of the suggested constructivist approach

The ESP course for future economists and businesspeople, just like the course for future psychologists, was developed for the second year of learners' university studies and the second year of their learning English at university. That ESP course is also designed for 144 academic hours of in-class work and the same number of hours of learners' out-of-class work (288 hours total – 9.5 credits). Classes are again held two times a week, two academic hours for every class (4 academic hours of in-class work per week and 4 hours of learners' out-of-class work per week – 8 hours total).

The course is organized on the basis of the coursebook *Business Projects* (Tarnopolsky, Kozhushko, et al., 2002) that consists of: 1) the *Student's Book* (designed exclusively for learners' in-class work) together with 2) the *Workbook* to it (meant for out-of-class students' assignments – home tasks); 3) a CD/cassette with audio recordings to be used in the teaching/learning process; and 4) the *Teacher's Book* with the description of the course and the discussion of the methodology of working on it, as well as some additional materials to be used by the teacher for in-class and out-of-class work, lesson plans, lesson instructions, and explanations for the teacher, sample correct answers to a number of tasks in the *Student's Book* and *Workbook*, etc. In all these aspects, there is an absolute identity with the coursebook and course for future psychologists.

The differences begin with the number of modules and learning units. The coursebook *Business Projects* and the ESP course based on it are divided into more modules and units – six modules and twelve units: two units in every module. The names of the modules and the units in them have been given in preceding *Chapter 4*. Twenty academic hours of in-class work and twenty academic hours

of out-of-class work are allocated for the first two modules. Correspondingly, the academic time planned for work on separate units in them is 10 academic hours of in-class work (five two-hour class periods) per unit and 10 academic hours of students' autonomous out-of-class work (20 academic hours total). All the other four modules, dealing with larger themes as to the scope of their content matter and content materials, have twenty four academic hours of in-class work and twenty four academic hours of out-of-class work allocated for each of them. Correspondingly, the academic time planned for work on separate units in those four modules is 12 academic hours of in-class work (six two-hour class periods) per unit and 12 academic hours of students' autonomous out-of-class work (24 academic hours total). Therefore, all 12 units require 136 academic hours of in-class work (out of planned 144 – see above) and 136 academic hours of students' autonomous out-of-class work (272 academic hours total out of 288). The remaining eight hours of in-class work and eight hours of out-of class work are equally divided between three *Recapitulation Classes* (each of them is held after two modules have been studied) and one *End-Piece* class – the last class period in the academic year designed absolutely identically with the *Recapitulation classes* though not on the materials of separate modules but on those of all the modules together. It is used to summarize and test the overall students' achievements in the academic year. As already said, all such classes will not be discussed further since they are designed and structured just like the *Recapitulation classes* in the ESP course for future psychologists.

Every unit from the first two modules in the coursebook *Business Projects* consists of five parts, and two academic hours of in-class and two hours of out-of-class students' work are planned for each of the parts. Every unit from the following four modules consists of six parts, and two academic hours of in-class and two hours of out-of-class students' work are planned for each of the parts. That makes the above-indicated total of 20 academic hours per each of the first four learning units and 24 academic hours total for each of the following eight learning units in the course.

Everything said above demonstrates the organizational differences between the ESP course and coursebook for future economists and businesspeople and the already analyzed course and coursebook for future psychologists. Such differences are mostly formal in their nature.

However, more serious differences can be observed when the design and structure of the teaching/learning process, the different objectives pursued in that process, and the learning activities are analyzed.

To analyze them, it is again necessary to create a model of the teaching/learning process similar to the model developed when discussing the design and structure of an ESP course for future psychologists. That new model can also be structured using as an example only one learning unit representing the entire learning process. The situation in this case is the same as with the ESP course for

psychologists because all the learning units are, in all practical aspects, identical as to their structure, objectives pursued, and the learning activities used. Even the fact that the first four learning units are shorter than the other eight units that follow them does not change the identical nature of all units. The difference of the first four units is due only to the fact that students are given fewer texts to read and discuss both in and out of class and, therefore, there are fewer learning activities based on those texts. However, the learning activities, the unit design and structure, the teaching/learning objectives remain the same. Consequently, if the model is constructed on the basis of a more typical 'longer' learning unit of six parts (as a more frequent and, therefore, more representative sample than a 'shorter' unit of five parts), such a model can be considered as adequately demonstrating the entire constructivist ESP course and the entire constructivist teaching/learning process for future economists and businesspeople. The model in question is shown in Table 2.

What catches the eye in this model is its similarity to the model shown in Table 1 – the similarity testifying to the fact that both models, representing two versions of the constructivist approach to ESP course design, are 'blood relatives'. However, further comparison of those two 'blood relatives' demonstrates that they are certainly not 'twins' because there are two important differences that have already been briefly mentioned: the absence of mandatory work on the Internet in the second model and the absence of continuous simulation in the first one. There are also some other minor differences. Both the similarities and differences are such that deserve separate discussion presented in the following section.

Table 2
Organizational model of the constructivist ESP course for future economists and businesspeople (as exemplified by one typical learning unit from the course based on the coursebook *Business Projects*)

The structural part of the typical learning unit from the course and the coursebook	The objectives of work on the structural part of the typical learning unit from the course and the coursebook	The types of communicative activities (types of communication on professional issues) involved when working on the structural part of the typical learning unit from the course and the coursebook	The kinds of learning activities involved in the in-class work on the structural part of the typical learning unit from the course and the coursebook	The kinds of learning activities involved in the out-of-class work on the structural part of the typical learning unit from the course and the coursebook
1 Lead-in (two academic hours of in-class work and two hours of out-of-class work)	2 <i>Content objectives:</i> activating students' background professional knowledge, acquisition of new professional knowledge by them, systematizing the new and previously acquired knowledge, expanding previously acquired knowledge by adding earlier unknown details of professional information. <i>Communication and language development objectives:</i> the development of learners' skills of speaking, reading, and listening in English in connection with professional issues in the framework of one professional communication topic; the development of language skills required for such communication. <i>Optional – informative competence development objectives:</i> the development of students' skills in autonomous (out-of-class) Internet research on professional sites in English.	3 Speaking Reading Listening (when students are talking to each other and their teacher)	4 Brainstorming Role playing Continuous simulation Reading authentic professional texts (genuine or synthesized) for doing creative speaking assignments on their basis Preparation of presentations to be delivered in the following classes Doing language skills-aimed (vocabulary and/or grammar) exercises	5 <i>Optional</i> – Internet search for professional information to do some creative tasks Reading authentic professional texts (genuine or synthesized) for doing creative speaking assignments on their basis Preparation of presentations to be delivered in the following classes Doing language skills-aimed (vocabulary and/or grammar) exercises

1	2	3	4	5
<p>Step 1 (two academic hours of in-class work and two academic hours of out-of-class work)</p>	<p>Content objectives: further acquisition by students of new professional knowledge, systematizing the new and previously acquired knowledge.</p> <p><i>Communication and language development objectives:</i> further development of learners' skills of speaking, reading, and listening in English in connection with professional issues in the framework of one professional communication topic; developing skills of writing in English on professional issues; further development of language skills required for such communication.</p>	<p>Speaking Reading Listening (to recorded audio materials) Writing (out-of-class work only)</p>	<p>Delivering and discussing presentations prepared as home tasks Case studies (cases presented in the coursebook or by the teacher) Listening to recorded materials of professional content for doing creative speaking assignments on their basis Reading authentic professional texts (genuine or synthesized) for doing creative speaking assignments on their basis Discussions Continuous simulation</p>	<p>Reading authentic professional texts (genuine or synthesized) in the framework of project work for doing writing assignments on their basis Writing essays, articles, or summaries on the basis of texts read and/or on the basis of in-class discussions – in the framework of project work Doing language skills-aimed (vocabulary and/or grammar) exercises.</p>

1	2	3	4	5
Step 2 (two academic hours of in-class work and two academic hours of out-of-class work)	<p>Content objectives: further acquisition by students of new professional knowledge, systematizing the new and previously acquired knowledge.</p> <p><i>Communication and language development objectives:</i> further development of learners' skills of speaking, reading, listening, and writing in English in connection with professional issues in the framework of one professional communication topic; further development of language skills required for such communication.</p> <p><i>Optional – informative competence development objectives:</i> the development of students' skills in autonomous (out-of-class) Internet research on professional sites in English.</p>	<p>Speaking</p> <p>Reading</p> <p>Listening (when students are talking to each other and their teacher)</p> <p>Writing (in-class and out-of class)</p>	<p>Reading professional texts (genuine or synthesized) for doing creative speaking and writing assignments on their basis</p> <p>Writing essays or summaries on the basis of texts read</p> <p>Continuous simulation</p> <p>Presentations prepared and delivered in class</p> <p>Discussing the process of completing the project assignments</p> <p>Case studies (cases presented in the coursebook or by the teacher)</p>	<p>Optional – Internet search for professional information to do writing tasks</p> <p>Reading authentic professional texts (genuine or synthesized) for doing writing assignments on their basis (in the framework of students' project work)</p> <p>Writing essays on the basis of materials read (in the framework of students' project work).</p> <p>Doing language skills-aimed exercises</p>

1	2	3	4	5
<p>Step 3 (two academic hours of in-class work and two academic hours of out-of-class work)</p>	<p><i>Content objectives:</i> further acquisition by students of new professional knowledge, systematizing the new and previously acquired knowledge.</p> <p><i>Communication and language development objectives:</i> further development of learners' skills of speaking, reading, listening, and writing in English in connection with professional issues in the framework of one professional communication topic; further development of language skills required for such communication.</p>	<p>Reading Listening (to recorded audio materials) Writing (in-class and out-of class) Speaking</p>	<p>Listening to recorded materials of professional content for doing creative speaking and/or writing assignments Listening to <i>Business News</i> for discussing them Reading authentic professional texts (genuine or synthesized) for doing creative speaking and/or writing assignments on their basis Discussing the process of completing the project assignments – presenting and evaluating the work done Continuous simulation Writing short essays or other kinds of written works on the basis of texts read and/or listened to.</p>	<p>Reading authentic professional texts (genuine or synthesized) for doing creative speaking and/or writing assignments on their basis (in the framework of students' project work) Writing articles, texts of presentations on the basis of the materials of the texts read, listened to, and on the issues discussed in class (in the framework of students' project work) Preparing presentations (in the framework of students' project work) Doing language skills-aimed exercises.</p>

1	2	3	4	5
Step 4a (two academic hours of in-class work and two academic hours of out-of-class work)	<p>Content objectives: systematizing and reinforcing the previously acquired professional knowledge.</p> <p>Communication and language development objectives: further development and reinforcement of learners' skills of speaking, reading, listening, and writing in English in connection with professional issues in the framework of one professional communication topic; reinforcement of language skills required for such communication.</p>	<p>Speaking</p> <p>Reading</p> <p>Listening (when students are talking to each other and their teacher)</p> <p>Writing (when discussing written works in class; writing out of class when doing home assignments)</p>	<p>Delivering and discussing presentations prepared as home tasks (in the framework of project work)</p> <p>Discussing students' written works, such as essays or articles, prepared as home tasks in the framework of their project work</p> <p>Role playing and/or discussions</p> <p>Continuous simulation</p>	<p>Reviewing all the unit's material for reinforcing it</p> <p>Reading genuine or synthesized professional texts for doing project tasks</p> <p>Writing a summarizing essay on the basis of the material of the texts read and all the materials of the unit (project work)</p> <p>Doing language skills-aimed reinforcement exercises.</p>

1	2	3	4	5
<p>Step 4b (two academic hours of in-class work and two academic hours of out-of-class work)</p>	<p><i>Content objectives:</i> systematizing and reinforcing the previously acquired professional knowledge.</p> <p><i>Communication and language development objectives:</i> reinforcement of learners' skills of speaking, reading, listening, and writing in English in connection with professional issues in the framework of one professional communication topic; reinforcement of language skills required for such communication.</p> <p><i>Optional – informative competence development objectives:</i> the development of students' skills in autonomous (out-of-class) Internet research on professional sites in English.</p>	<p>Listening (to recorded audio materials)</p> <p>Reading</p> <p>Writing (in-class work only)</p> <p>Speaking</p>	<p>Listening to recorded materials of professional content for doing creative assignments (such as writing summaries of what has been heard or organizing an oral discussion) and/or for doing test-type tasks (comprehension check)</p> <p>Reading genuine or synthesized professional texts for doing creative assignments (such as writing summaries of what has been read, or organizing an oral discussion, or writing an essay/article on the basis of what has been read and other acquired information) and/or for doing test-type tasks (comprehension check)</p> <p>Writing summaries, essays, or articles on the basis of the audio materials listened to or the texts read</p> <p>Presentations and discussions of completed project work</p> <p>Continuous simulation</p>	<p><i>Optional</i> – doing Internet research with the view of finding some preliminary information in English concerning the professional theme (topic) to be analyzed in the following learning unit.</p>

3. Similarities and differences between two versions of a constructivist ESP course: one for future psychologists and another one for future economists and businesspeople

The common features of two constructivist ESP courses analyzed in this monograph are quite obvious:

1. Both courses are based on experiential interactive teaching/learning and use identical types and forms of learning activities (with the exception of mandatory Internet research and of continuous simulation – those exceptions to be discussed below among the differences).
2. Though in the courses' models in Tables 1 and 2 the content-based nature of courses can be seen only in the statements of content objectives, everything said in the preceding chapters also makes it clear that they are both totally content-based – to be more precise, totally theme-based in the framework of the content-based approach.
3. From what has been said in the preceding chapters and, partially, from Tables 1 and 2 above, it can be seen that four out of five principles of practical implementation of the constructivist approach to teaching English for specific purposes at tertiary schools equally form the practical foundation of both versions of ESP courses: the principle of systematizing professional information in the coursebook and course of English for Specific Purposes, the principle of authenticity of students' learning activities and learning communication, the principle of authenticity of learning materials, and the principle of integrating English speaking, listening, reading, and writing in the learning process. Only the last, fifth, principle, that of developing students' informative competence in English, which is fully implemented in the course and coursebook for future psychologists, may be said to be neglected in the coursebook and course for future economists and businesspeople. There is only a limited attempt there to take account of that principle in students' optional learning activities (see Table 2). This difference is also to be discussed below.
4. The structure and design similarities of both course models as they are shown in Tables 1 and 2 are quite striking. In fact, except for the two major differences caused by the already mentioned absence of mandatory Internet research in the second model and the absence of continuous simulation in the first model, both models could be considered as almost identical in all their other aspects with only minor differences. Indeed, the parts of learning units are very much alike in design; the objectives in every such part are identical (except for informative competence development objectives); the types of communicative activities (types of com-

munication on professional issues) involved when working on structural parts of a typical learning unit are the same, as well as practically the same are the learning activities used in in-class and out-of-class students' work (again, except for continuous simulation not used in the first model and mandatory Internet research and other Internet-based activities not used in the second model).

All the similarities and common features of both ESP courses and both ESP coursebooks demonstrate that they belong to one and the same approach – the constructivist one, since the requirements of the two principal fundamental constituents of that approach (experiential interactive teaching/learning and content-based instruction – see *Chapters 1* and *2*) are fully met in each of the cases. But of the two courses and two coursebooks, only one ESP course, for future psychologists, and only one coursebook, *Psychological Matters*, are based on the blended learning approach to organizing teaching/learning. The ESP course for future economists and businesspeople and the coursebook *Business Projects* can in no way be said to represent this kind of learning. Nevertheless, the course and coursebook represent the constructivist approach. This is because, as emphasized several times, the blended learning in general and the Internet use in particular embody a subordinated (though basic) constituent of the approach, the one that substantially improves it but is not obligatory for its introduction into teaching practice.

It has also been reiterated that the reason for excluding blended learning from the ESP course and coursebook for future economists and businesspeople was quite natural in the historic perspective. That ESP course was launched in 2002 when the coursebook *Business Projects* (Tarnopolsky, Kozhushko, et al., 2002) was first published. It is approximately at the same time or even later that the first publications on blended learning, and, in particular, on blended learning in English language teaching first started to appear (c.f., for instance, Barrett, & Sharma, 2003; Brennan, 2004; Grey, 2006; Sharma, 2003; Sharma, & Barrett, 2007). Before that time, little had been heard about blended learning, so it by no means could have been included into our coursebook and the ESP course based on it. Due to the same reason, the principle of developing students' informative competence in English could not be one of the principles underlying the preparation of the coursebook *Business Projects* and the development of a corresponding ESP course. Including students' Internet research into their learning as an optional, not too frequent, and only out-of-class learning activity was the most that could be recommended at that time.

However, the design of an ESP coursebook and course with only optional and infrequent use of Internet-based learning activities (see Table 2) has had positive effects as well. The coursebook *Business Projects* and the ESP course designed on its basis have been functioning very successfully in a number of tertiary schools of Ukraine for more than 10 years already (see further). This has demonstrated

the possibility of developing the suggested constructivist approach in two versions: the complete version (with blended learning), as embodied in the coursebook *Psychological Matters*, and the narrower version (without blended learning) as embodied in the coursebook *Business Projects*. The existence of such a narrower version that manifests the principal difference between two developed models of the constructivist ESP teaching/learning process may prove to be very important for some cases, namely, for those when the broad use of the Internet technology in the ESP course is not feasible due to different causes. Even in such a case, the constructivist approach can be effectively and successfully introduced if its introduction is based on the narrower version.

The other differences between the two models/versions of ESP courses discussed above (see Tables 1 and 2) also manifest the possibilities of developing different versions and modifications of those courses and coursebooks on the basis of the suggested constructivist approach.

The first of those differences has already been spoken about several times. It is the continuous simulation used in the ESP course for future businesspeople and not used when teaching ESP to future psychologists. The reason for this has also been explained in *Chapter 1* (2.2.3). Continuous simulation matches very well the professional activities of future businessmen and businesswomen but does not match at all the activities of future practical psychologists. Therefore, in this case, the difference is due to the requirements of experiential teaching/learning, which presupposes the modeling of professional activities to be as accurate as possible, thus excluding those learning activities that do not help in imitating what is done in the framework of professional engagements.

It is due to the same reasoning that students' listening to *Business News* (important for future businesspeople – c.f. *Chapter 2*, 5.2.4) was included in the course and coursebook for future specialists in Economics and Business and not included in the other course and coursebook as irrelevant for future psychologists. But this difference is a minor one because in every learning unit of the coursebook *Business Projects* listening to *Business News* is practiced only once.

There are some other differences not mentioned before that should be ascribed to the same cause.

For instance, a careful comparison of Tables 1 and 2 shows that project work receives more attention in the course for economists and businesspeople because businessmen and businesswomen are always involved in some projects, while professional projects are a rarer occurrence in the work of practical psychologists.

On the other hand, case studies are more often used in the course for psychologists because their future professional activities involve the inevitability of analyzing their clients' cases every day – both in their current practical work and during seminars with colleagues. Also, as can be seen from Tables 1 and

2, future psychologists more frequently write summaries of the texts read or listened to because summarizing professional information obtained from reading professional literature or from listening to professional lectures, presentations, discussions, etc. is something they are going to do regularly in their jobs.

One more difference needs to be mentioned. If out-of-class activities from a typical learning unit in the course and coursebook for future psychologists are juxtaposed to the out-of-class activities in the course and coursebook for future economists and businesspeople, it will become obvious that in the latter course and coursebook there are more language skills-aimed (vocabulary and/or grammar) exercises to be done by students out of class than in the former ones. The reduction of the number of such exercises in the later coursebook and course for future psychologists was caused by the practical experience of using the coursebook and teaching the course for future economists and businesspeople. That experience demonstrated that when the constructivist approach had been introduced, the success in developing students' language skills mostly depended on the number and quality of experiential, creative, and totally communicative learning activities and much less on the number of specific language form-focused exercises. The latter ones should not be completely excluded, but their number can be reduced to a minimum. That finding allowed for the planning of fewer language skills-aimed (vocabulary and/or grammar) exercises for the later ESP course (for future psychologists) – increasing accordingly the number of students' experiential, creative, and communicative learning activities designed for their out-of-class work.

Other differences can be found in both courses and coursebooks exemplifying our approach, but even those already mentioned are sufficient to prove the most important point. *Within the suggested approach there can be different modifications and versions of constructivist ESP courses: with a blended learning component or without it, with different experiential learning activities used according to the requirements of the future profession, and, most certainly, with different subject matter materials in the learning content, different thematic, situational, language, and other learning content components – also depending on the requirements of that profession.*

The two courses and coursebooks discussed in this monograph are good examples to be quoted when illustrating the opportunities for developing such versions and modifications not only because they demonstrate quite a wide range of possible differences that may be introduced in accordance with needs, requirements, and local conditions. They also have behind them considerable successful experience of being used in teaching practice, proving the above statement. For instance, the coursebook *Business Projects* has already been involved in such practice for more than 10 years. As already mentioned, it was first introduced in Alfred Nobel University, Dnipropetrovsk, Ukraine in 2002. Since then, its second revised edition was published by one of the biggest

Ukrainian publishing houses (c.f. Tarnopolsky, & Kozhushko, 2007) and a number of Ukrainian universities have been successfully working with it for years. Those universities range from the gigantic leading universities in the country, such as the National Technical University of Ukraine "Kyiv Polytechnic Institute", to smaller regional branches of national universities, such as Vinnitsa Trade and Economics Institute of Kyiv National Trade and Economics University. These facts witness to the success of the coursebook and the ESP course designed on its basis.

The coursebook *Psychological Matters* and the corresponding ESP course for future psychologists do not have such a long history of teaching practice behind it because of the coursebook's recent publication. However, besides their complete success when used for teaching students of Psychology at Alfred Nobel University, Dnipropetrovsk, the interest in those particular coursebook and course is growing throughout the country. So, they may soon become as popular for teaching English to future psychologists as the coursebook *Business Projects* has become popular for teaching future businesspeople and economists.

Everything said in this chapter may be considered as proof of the fact that the developed approach to ESP teaching and learning at tertiary schools is not something rigid that can be used for teaching only definite categories of students in definite teaching/learning conditions. On the contrary, the approach is quite flexible allowing for development of its different versions and modifications that can be adjusted and adapted to different ESP teaching/learning conditions, programs, and various students' majors at different tertiary schools. This conclusion is the final one to be made in the monograph.

4. Conclusion to Chapter 5

In this chapter two developed versions of constructivist ESP coursebooks and ESP courses based on them have been discussed, compared, and contrasted: one earlier coursebook and course designed for future economists and businesspeople and the other later one designed for future psychologists.

Both ESP courses have been shown to be quite adequate when representing in practice the constructivist approach to ESP teaching/learning suggested in this monograph. However, only the ESP course (and the coursebook on which it is based) for future psychologists is considered to embody the complete version of the approach in which the constructivist teaching/learning is integrated with blended learning so that Internet-based activities occupy a considerable place in the process of ESP acquisition by tertiary students. The earlier ESP course and coursebook for future economists and businesspeople embodies a narrower version of the approach which, remaining totally constructivist and quite akin

to the later complete version, yet has no blended learning constituent included into it. Creating such a narrower version had been due to objective causes and circumstances but, as it later turned out, having it in the ESP teacher's pedagogical arsenal, may prove to be of considerable practical importance in cases when broad use of Internet technologies in the ESP teaching/learning process is not feasible.

Other differences between the two versions of the constructivist approach to ESP teaching/learning have been discussed in the chapter. It has been shown that such differences are due to different professional requirements to ESP courses when students of different majors are taught English for professional communication.

On the basis of the analysis of two different versions of one and the same constructivist approach, the general conclusion has been made in the chapter that the suggested approach is sufficiently flexible to allow developing its different versions and modifications which can be adjusted and adapted to different ESP teaching/learning conditions, programs, and various students' majors at different tertiary schools.

Conclusion

The approach to ESP teaching at tertiary schools suggested in this monograph is a typical representation of what Kumaravadivelu named *principled pragmatism* and *eclectic* approaches that, according to him, are best suited to today's stage in the second/foreign language teaching development (Kumaravadivelu, 2001). Kumaravadivelu characterizes this stage as the *postmethod era* (Kumaravadivelu, 2003; 2006).

The *principled pragmatism* and *eclectics* of the suggested approach are manifested through the structured combination of three different approaches in the framework of one: the experiential interactive approach, the content-based approach, and the blended learning approach.

The first of them, the experiential and interactive learning, in the conditions of teaching ESP to tertiary school students is a form of learning implemented through a set of specific experiential learning activities. As already said in the definitions given in the *Introduction* and *Chapter 1*, such activities ensure the acquisition of the target language and communicative skills as by-products of extra-linguistic activities modeling professional activities of a future specialist. In this way, students themselves "construct" their target language communication skills through the experience of direct participation in professional communication. It has also been asserted in *Chapter 1* that experiential learning by its very nature requires students' cooperative interaction that dominates over individual learning activities but does not exclude them. In the same manner, it presupposes students' interaction with the professional environment outside the classroom for using authentic target-language sources of professional information.

The second approach, content-based instruction in its theme-based modification, means structuring learning around professional themes (topics) selected in a specific manner and logically/consecutively following each other in the teaching/learning process. The theme-based instruction presupposes including five componential parts of learning content into a content-based ESP course: communication and language skills, language materials, sociolinguistic and pragmatic information, speech/communication materials and samples, themes (topics) and situations for

communication. A five-stage bottom-up selection procedure has been developed, making it possible to select strictly professionally relevant target language learning content for ESP students – thus providing the appropriate subject matter for experiential interactive learning activities in the ESP course.

The third approach, the blended learning one, is based on students' regularly and constantly working on the Internet as the source for finding profession-related materials in English. The materials found there by learners are used as resources for completing numerous learning assignments that are done without using computers but which could not have been done at all if the work on the Internet did not precede them. Students' Internet research and other Internet-based tasks recommended in this monograph, being by themselves experiential and interactive learning activities, provide learners with the professional subject matter for completing all the other experiential interactive learning assignments, thus ensuring the emergence of a solid content foundation for implementing the experiential interactive approach. Similarly, blended learning and students' Internet research in its framework is one of the principal means of ensuring content-based instruction because it is from the Internet that a substantial part of ESP learning content is procured.

It can be seen from what has just been said how intertwined all the three approaches are and how snugly they fit together into the framework of one single unified approach. They are ultimately "welded" in that single approach by five suggested practical principles:

1. The principle of systematizing professional information in the coursebook and course of English for Specific Purposes.
2. The principle of authenticity of students' learning activities and learning communication.
3. The principle of authenticity of learning materials.
4. The principle of integrating English speaking, listening, reading, and writing in the learning process;
5. The principle of developing students' informative competence in English.

These principles, which are themselves interconnected and interdependent, unite the three approaches (the experiential and interactive learning one, the content-based one, and the blended learning one) into one single, practically adjustable entity paving the way to organizing the teaching/learning practice within the ESP course designed following the requirements of all the three approaches "welded" together.

The single entity that has emerged as a result of three approaches' merger has acquired the name of the *constructivist blended learning approach*. Though this approach is a unity of three already known approaches, the very fact of "welding" them together has created quite a new approach whose definition has already been given in the *Introduction* but should be repeated with some minor changes in the *Conclusion* to this monograph:

The constructivist approach to ESP teaching/learning at tertiary schools gives students opportunities of “constructing” for themselves their own knowledge and communication skills in English through experiential and interactive learning activities modeling the extra-linguistic professional reality for functioning in which the target language is being learned. Knowledge and skills “constructing” is done in such a way that from the very beginning those skills and knowledge serve professional communication in English and improve and expand the information basis of that communication. Moreover, successful knowledge and skills “constructing” may be achieved owing to students’ regular Internet research on professional sites in English when that research becomes an organic and unalienable part of the learning process no less important than more traditional in-class and out-of-class activities (blended learning). When such regular and constant Internet research is added to the constructivist approach, the modified constructivist blended learning version of it is created, which makes a substantial improvement over the constructivist approach per se.

The repetition of the definition already given at the beginning of this book and some changes in it were required to indicate two important peculiarities.

The first is the fact that the practical implementation of the constructivist approach in the design of ESP courses can be developed, at least, in two versions. The complete version fully coincides with the definition in the *Introduction* in all its details. The difference of the other, narrower, version is in the absence of the blended learning constituent in it: the approach remains the constructivist one but there is no mandatory, regular, and constant learners’ work on the Internet. Therefore, the last part of the definition above, concerning students’ regular Internet research on professional sites in English, does not relate to that narrower version.

As already said in *Chapter 5*, the development of the two practical versions of the approach – the later, complete, one embodied in the coursebook *Psychological Matters* (Tarnopolsky, Kozhushko, et al., 2011a) and the earlier, narrower, version embodied in the coursebook *Business Projects* (Tarnopolsky, Kozhushko, et al., 2002) – was beneficial since it demonstrated the possibility of elaborating various versions of the constructivist approach, depending on the specific conditions in which a particular ESP course is planned to be taught. And this manifests the second peculiarity connected with the definition above.

The peculiarity in question is the fact that the definition given in this *Conclusion*, unlike the more rigid definition in the *Introduction*, allows different versions of the constructivist approach to be implemented in teaching practice. This monograph has described two versions of that approach – one designed for an ESP course meant for future psychologists, the other for an ESP course designed for future economists/businesspeople. Those versions are different not only due to the absence of blended learning in one of them. There are other differences: for instance, the ESP course for future economists is to a large extent based on continuous simulation which is totally absent in a course

for future psychologists. There are also some other, less important, differences (c.f. *Chapter 5*).

All these differences, and many others that can be foreseen, exemplify one important point. Only the first part of the constructivist approach definition given in this *Conclusion* may be considered as *universal*. This means that the constructivist learning approach to ESP teaching/learning suggested in this monograph absolutely cannot do without such of its fundamental constituents as *experiential interactive learning* and *content-based instruction* (both of these constituents covered by the first two sentences in the definition). The third basic constituent, blended learning, which has been treated throughout the monograph as subordinate to the first two, may be regarded as highly desirable but not strictly obligatory. This opens up prospects of creating different versions of the approach to designing ESP courses depending on local conditions. Some other such prospects are opened up by demonstrated possibilities of using different experiential learning activities in different ESP courses (like using continuous simulations in some of them and not using in others). Still more new versions can be developed by involving different approaches to content-based instruction (see *Chapter 2*), etc.

Everything said above is meant to make another essential point. What has been said, postulated, and proved in this monograph is not limited to only certain ESP courses at tertiary schools – those for future economists and businesspeople and for future psychologists. The monograph embraces the basics of the constructivist approach to teaching all kinds of ESP courses at all tertiary schools. Such basics create conditions and even presuppose the development of specific practical designs/versions of ESP courses, those designs depending on specific students' majors and particular local conditions. The examples of two specific ESP courses (for future economists and businesspeople and for future psychologists) may help in the development of such various practical versions.

In general, this monograph was meant not only for providing practical ESP teachers at tertiary schools, scholars, and researchers in the field of ESP teaching with the theoretical basis of introducing the constructivist approach (and the constructivist blended learning approach as its improved modification) into such teaching. It was also meant for providing practical guidelines for elaborating different practical versions of the approach for different kinds of ESP courses taught at different tertiary schools. The author hopes that the monograph may be useful and interesting in all of those aspects to those of its readers that constitute its primary above-mentioned target readership: practical ESP teachers at tertiary schools, scholars, and researchers in the field of ESP teaching. As already mentioned in the *Introduction*, the author also hopes that it may be useful and interesting to its other potential readers: those who are preparing for the careers of EFL/ESP teachers or those who are generally interested in the issues of teaching EFL to adult learners and in ESP teaching as the specific area of EFL teaching.

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