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 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=l&text=Pyramid of Learning as retrieved September 11, 2011](http://images.yandex.ua/yandexsearch?ed=l&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, & Degtyariova, 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.
Constructivist blended learning approach to teaching English for specific purposes

- 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 (namingsomething 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 form-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
Constructivist blended learning approach to teaching English for specific purposes

...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
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-
Constructivist blended learning approach to teaching English for specific purposes

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 problemsolving 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.
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.

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 imitative 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
Constructivist blended learning approach to teaching English for specific purposes

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 outline 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 a 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 mo-
tivation 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 being 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
 Constructivist blended learning approach to teaching English for specific purposes

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 la, 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
Constructivist blended learning approach to teaching English for specific purposes

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,
Constructivist blended learning approach to teaching English for specific purposes

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 before 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-
Tarnopolsky, 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
Constructivist blended learning approach to teaching English for specific purposes 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:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Words that are mostly used in General English</th>
<th>Words that can be used as psychological terms</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>millennium</td>
<td>insight</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**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.

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**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.