The Difference between the EGP Texts and ESP Texts in Terms of Readability

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Abstract. EGP and ESP are two main subject areas for the university students who are going to have a B.A degree. The former is a general course and the latter a specific one as the names indicate. To the authors learning EGP as a general course for all B.A. students should pave the way to go through ESP course. It means having a general knowledge of language could be of great help in understanding language for specific purposes which is stuffed with specific vocabulary, etc. Text as a main factor in both courses generally and the relationship between the readability of them specifically has been investigated in the current study. To fulfill such a purpose, a piece of reading in GE book which is offered to all students who are going to have a B.A. degree was compared with readings extracted from 4 different ESP books in terms of readability. The results revealed that there is a meaningful relationship between the readability of EGP and ESP texts in Azad University of Arak.

Keywords: readability**,** reading ease, grade level, ESP, EGP

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1. INTRODUCTION

One thing is for granted and that is the need to learn English for specific purposes (ESP) is on the increase around the world. The issue is not neglected in Iran in general and in universities of Iran in particular. In this regard EGP and ESP are two main subject areas for all university students who are going to have a B.A. degree. ESP is the major medium to learn how to share knowledge of a specific domain (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987) which is a variety of the language for general purposes, namely EGP. According to Hutchinson and Waters(1987) EGP is differentiated from ESP as EGP is the language taught in junior and senior high schools in which sounds and symbols and also lexical, grammatical and rhetorical elements of language are introduced to students and it takes into account general situations not a particular one that needs a specific language learning. It also deals with English reading and English writing found in textbooks, newspapers and magazines. On the other hand, English for specific purposes has the main purpose of meeting specific needs and is built upon what has been learnt in EGP with more focal attention. If ESP programs are supposed to have satisfactory results, a good understanding of basic EGP should be firstly yield. In other words, EGP is a tree the branches and leaves of which is ESP and the roots of which is the background general knowledge of the language.

Dewi (2008) worked on ESP textbook for English Department (written by Language Center University of Muhammadiah Malang) using Flesch Reading Ease Formula and concluded that 35% of texts were readable and 65% were not. Endah Handayani (2007) has measured readability level of ESP textbook related to students of Electrical Engineering Department in their second semester. Applying Dale-Chall Readability Formula, the results showed that 85% of texts were readable and 65% were not.

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Khajeyi (1992) has investigated the students' performance in EGP and ESP reading and the extent to which it is possible to anticipate the students' performance in ESP reading through EGP reading. Dividing the students into two groups(strong and weak) in sufficiency level, he has come to the conclusion that just for the strong group the ESP reading could be anticipated from the EGP reading results and by concentrating on EGP and giving rise to the sufficiency level in EGP learners, the ESP reading ability would be improved.

Soltani (2000) came to the conclusion that a great deal of problems in ESP reading comprehension spring from the students´ weakness in grammar (structure of the sentences). He also mentions that the students have problem in learning vocabulary respectively in general words, semi-specific words and finally specific words.

Texts as the main instrument in EGP and ESP classes should be selected so as to meet the above-mentioned goals. All in all, the EGP reading text should facilitate ESP reading. In this regard, readability of the text (according to Tinker (1963), the ease with which a text could be read and understood or how the reader is matched with the text) as a criterion to weight the text is put into scale in order to find out how the reading texts of EGP are close or related to that of ESP. So the current research poses two main questions as follow:

1) Is there any meaningful relationship between EGP text and ESP text concerning readability?

2) Does the EGP text reading pave the way for ESP text reading?

2. METHODOLOGY

a) Instrumentation: To carry out the current research, the researchers have selected a piece of reading from "General English" book taught in Azad University of Arak which has been offered to all students who are going to have a B.A. degree. The reading is entitled "changes in the family" and contains 34 sentences altogether bearing 521 words and 856 syllables. At the second stage four further texts were selected from among the books which are used as texts for covering "English for Specific Purposes" courses in Azad University of Arak. These texts are related to students of Law, Psychology, Educational Management and Behavioral Sciences all belonging to Humanities Faculty of Azad University of Arak. The ESP texts are respectively entitled: " An Outline of the Law of Contract"," Status of Consciousness"," Society as a Data Source and other Curriculum Designs" and " Children and Stories". Number of sentences, words and syllables of the above mentioned passages are again respectively listed in the following table. As in the procedure of the current research the proportion of total words to total sentences and also the proportion of total syllabuses to total words should be taken into account, the requested data is also presented in the table below.

Table1: The number of sentences, words and syllables in EGP and ESP texts

	General English	Law	Psychology	Behavioral Sciences	Educational Management
Number of sentences	34	27	28	25	40
Number of words	521	701	468	621	637
Number of syllables	856	1013	741	1009	1056
Words/Sentences	15.32	25.96	16.71	24.84	15.92
Syllables/ Words	1.64	1.44	1.58	1.62	1.65

b) Procedure: In this part the readability of the texts was calculated. To fulfill such a purpose the researchers have put to use the Flesch-Kincaid Readability test which consisted of Flesch Reading Ease test and the Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level test. The tests are the Standard Tests of the US Government Department of Defense and share the same measure although they are different weighting factors. The formulas of the mentioned tests are as follows:

Reading Ease═ 206/835-1/015(the number of total words/the number of total sentences)-84/6(the number of total syllables/ the number of total words)

And

Grade Level═0/39(the number of total words/ the number of total sentences)+

11/8(the number of total syllables/ the number of total words)

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Placing the requested data in the stated formulas has yielded the results which are presented in the table below:

Table 2: The reading ease score and the grade level score of EGP and ESP texts

	General English	Law	Psychology	Behavioral Sciences	Educational Management
Reading Ease	**52/29**	**58/23**	**55/92**	**68/36**	**50/42**
Grade Level	**9/73**	**11/52**	**9/56**	**13/26**	**10/11**

Comparing the resulted numbers with the Flesch Reading Ease Score Interpretation Table appended at the end of the paper, it is obvious that the EGP text as well as the ESP texts of Law, Psychology and Educational Management all falls within Fairly difficult level of readability which is suitable for Senior High School A-level students. So the EGP and ESP texts go side by side. As for the ESP text related to the students of Behavioral Sciences, the road is much more flat since it falls within the Plain English level of readability suitable for 13 to 15 year-old education level. Needless to say, the EGP text which has an upper level of readability smoothly paves the way for reading ESP text.

The same story, more or less, happens regarding the Grade levels of the texts. The EGP text as well as the ESP texts of Law, Psychology and Educational Management all belongs to the range of 6-8 grade level and the ESP text of Behavioral Sciences bears the label of College/University grade level. Again the EGP text and ESP texts are approximately in the same line and EGP text builds up the vocabulary and the structures needed in order for the students to tackle with ESP texts.

4. CONCLUSION

In the current study, it was revealed that the reading ease score and the grade level score of the extracted EGP and ESP texts, which constitute the readability score of the text, were in the same range, i.e. they were very close to each other. So it is concluded that EGP and ESP texts in Azad University of Arak are in the same line with each other and there is a meaningful

relationship between the readability of EGP and ESP texts. All in all, the words and sentences of EGP text, or better to say the vocabulary and the structures of the EGP text in Azad University of Arak, contributes the B.A. students to read the ESP texts and EGP is considered as a necessary precursor that fosters ESP reading.

5. FURTHER SUGGESTİONS

In view of the fact that other factors such as the size, font and the color of the text, the amount of reading in a definite time spam, the page layout, as well as the familiarity with and the interest in the reading subject matter may have an effect in reading, the readability formula is not the mere criteria for judgment. In some other researches these elements could be taken into account that may alter the results.

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APPENDICES

Table1: The Flesch Reading Ease Score Interpretation

Flesch Reading Ease Score	Readability Level	Educational level	Percentage Adults(Optimistic)
0-29	Very difficult	College Graduates	5%
30-49	Difficult	College	30%
50-59	Fairly difficult	Senior High School, A level	50%
60-69	Plain English	13-15 year-olds	80%
70-79	Fairly easy	12 year-olds	90%
80-89	Easy	11 year-olds	90%
90-100	Very easy	10 year-olds	90%

Table2: Sentence Length and Syllables per Word

Grade	Syllables/Words	Average Sentence Length
Kindergarten	1.5	10
3-5	1.6	14
6-8	1.6	15
College/University	1.85	19(14-23)

4. AN OUTLINE OF THE LAW OF CONTRACT

1. Introduction

A contract may be defined as an agreement which is either enforced by law or recognized by laws affecting the legal rights or duties of the parties. The law of contract is, therefore, primarily concerned with these questions; is there an agreement? Is it one which should be legally recognized or enforced? And just how is the agreement enforced, or, in other words, what remedies are available to the injured party when a contract has been broken? In this article our concern will be with the general rules, and to some extent with the modified form in which they apply to particular transactions. Rules peculiar to particular transactions will not in general be discussed, nor will any attempt be made to give any systematic account of the rules governing any one or more particular or special contracts. At the same time, it is necessary to warn the reader that the general "law of contract" is something of an abstraction, since most contracts obviously concern some particular class of transaction; and since there is always some degree of danger in assuming that a "general" rule applies (at least without modification) to a contract of the particular type under consideration.

2. Agreement

In the normal case, a contract results from an agreement between the parties to it; and much of the law of contract is concerned with the process of reaching agreement, and with the contents of the agreement when reached. Nevertheless, the description of a contract as an agreement is subject to a number of important qualifications.

The first of these is that the law, generally speaking, applies an objective test of agreement. If one party, A, so conducts himself as to induce the other, B, reasonably to believe that A is assenting to certain terms proposed by B, then A will generally be held so to have assented, whatever his actual state of mind may have been. The law adopts this attitude in the interests of convenience; a person to whom a contractual proposal is made might be seriously prejudiced if he could not take it at its face value. The principle is, however, one of convenience only, so that it will not be applied where, on balance, the inconvenience to A of applying the objective test exceeds the inconvenience to B of allowing A to rely on his actual intention.

The second qualification is that, even where agreement determines the existence of a contract, it does not necessarily determine all the contents or scope of a contract. These matters are often determined by so-called "implied terms". These may be divided into terms implied in fact and terms implied in law. Only terms implied in fact are truly based on the intention of the parties. Terms implied in law are duties prima facie imposed by law, and with respect to them, the intention of the parties is relevant only insofar as it may be open to the parties to exclude the implied terms by express contrary agreement.

Thirdly, there is a group of cases which is commonly discussed under the general heading of contract, in which the obligation does not truly arise out of an agreement by two parties, but rather out of a promise made by one of them. This would be the position where a person made a gratuitous promise in such a form that it was legally binding: for example, in a deed under seal. In such a case, the promisee would at most "agree" by accepting the gift or the promise to make it; But even this is not necessary; a promise of this kind can bind even before it is communicated to the promisor.

Fourthly, the idea that contract depends on agreement must be qualified in cases in which one party is in a very much stronger bargaining position than the other, so that the former can in a sense impose his terms on the latter. The growing use of standard form contracts under which a party is often bound by many terms of which he is not in fact aware, is a particularly common illustration of this situation. In such cases the weaker party may agree reluctantly, or he may take his chance of whatever terms are contained in the standard form, or he may not in truth have "consented" at all.

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Unit 3

Changes in the Family

Barbara Todisco, 35, and her husband, Ted, 37, have two children. They live together in what is called a nuclear family. A nuclear family consists of two generations — two parents and their children.

Esme Tanguay, 43, lives with her daughter, Maria, 11. They live together in a single-parent family. In the United States, a quarter of American children now grow up in single-parent families.

Juan Diego, 45, of Miami, Florida, has two children from his first marriage. His second wife, Nancy, has two children from her first marriage. Juan and Nancy also have a child together. Juan and Nancy and the five children live together in what is now called **blended** family.

Carl Jacobs, 32, lives with his wife, their two children, and his wife's mother and father. They are an **extended family.** Extended families consist of more than one set of parents and children. The most common type of extended family consists of a married couple and one or more of their married children all living together in one **household.** An extended family might also consist of two brothers and their wives and children. A large extended family might consist of grandparents, parents, children, uncles, and other relatives.

For centuries, the extended family was the most common type of family. One benefit of living in an extended family is that there are more

people to share the work. This was especially in societies where mothers had to work outside the home, raising crops, or gathering food. In an extended family, mother could work outside the home while other family members were available to take care of the children and do other household tasks.

In the United States, one of the biggest changes in families in the last century has been a decrease in the number of extended families. One very important reason for this decrease was industrialization. The growth of industry made it possible for many young people to leave their families and move to the city to work in the factories. By the 1920s, a majority of children in the United States were no longer living in extended families. Instead, they were living in families with a father who went to work and a mother who stayed at home.

As long as a family could afford to have the mother stay at home, this type of family was able to survive. For many families, however, this was not financially possible. As the cost of living rose in the United States more and more women needed to work outside the home. At the same time, an emphasis on equality for men and women opened the door to new job opportunities for women. Before long, single-parent families, blended families, and extended families were becoming more common.

Since 1970, the number of single-parent families in the United States has increased tremendously. Today, there are roughly 90 million single-parent families with children under the age of 18. That is a 200% increase since 1970. Nearly 90% of these single-parent families are headed by women. Many sociologists have studied single-parent families to find

CHAPTER 5

States of Consciousness

5.1 Sleeping and Consciousness

Consciousness includes not only our awareness of stimuli in the external environment but also our recognition of internal events, such as what we are thinking, an increased heart rate, pain, etc. Consciousness is, therefore, our continually changing stream of mental activity.

The **active mode** of consciousness involves **controlled or heightened awareness** and involves planning, making decisions, and responding to these decisions. The **passive mode** of consciousness relates to **minimal awareness** and includes daydreaming and sleeping.

Altered states of consciousness occur any time the content or quality of conscious experience undergoes a significant change. Most research on altered states of consciousness has focused on sleep, dreams, hypnosis, meditation, and the use of psychoactive substances or drugs.

Sleep is defined as a state of unresponsiveness from which we can be aroused relatively easily.

5.1.1 Circadian Rhythms

Circadian rhythm or biological clock refers to a person's daily sleep and wakefulness cycle that appears to be controlled, at least in

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part, in an area of the hypothalamus called the suprachiasmatic nucleus.

External cues can also influence circadian rhythms. Such cues include the light and dark of day and night.

The high point of wakefulness is related to **increased body temperature and cortisol levels**, with vision, hearing, smell, taste, and alertness at their peak.

The low point of wakefulness is related to decreased body temperature and cortisol levels and increased sleepiness.

The tendency to adopt a **25-hour cycle** (instead of 24-hour) and as a result go to sleep later and later on succeeding nights is known as **free-running**. This tends to happen when there are no time cues available.

Jet lag occurs when there is a discrepancy between our biological clock and the official clock. Traveling across time zones creates this discrepancy and can result in fitful sleep and a sluggish feeling.

5.1.2 Sleep Patterns

All animals seem to need sleep but in varying amounts. For example, a cat sleeps, on average, 14 hours per day. An elephant sleeps only 2 to 4 hours per day. The average adult human sleeps around 7 to 8 hours. Human infants spend around 16 hours per day sleeping, though this amount decreases as they get older. After the age of 70, the average person sleeps about 6 hours per day. **Healthy insomniacs** can get by on as little as 3 hours of sleep per day.

Researchers have not found many systematic differences between those who habitually sleep more or less each day.

5.1.3 Stages of Sleep

The same stages of sleep appear in all mammals, although the pattern may vary.

Our brain waves, as measured by **EEG patterns**, vary depending on our state of consciousness. For instance, as we move from an awake state through deeper stages of sleep, our brain waves **decrease in frequency** (cycles per second) and **increase in amplitude** (height).

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Unit 8

Section One: Reading Comprehension

Children and Stories

There is a history several centuries old of producing story books for children, and behind that a longer tradition of folk tales and other narratives which also took children for their audience. Most children hear stories and tell them themselves; many read them or write them. In this century, at least (see Schieffelin and Cochran-Smith 1984 for notes on two other cultures), there is a positive correlation between being read stories during the pre-school years, on the one hand, and both metalinguistic competence (p.137) and prospects of learning to read and write easily, on the other. Children learn a great deal about written language and about the structure of stories from being read to. They also take part in a shared activity with the older person reading to them (and indirectly with the author). Where this is enjoyable for both parties, it doubtless provides motivation for further reading. Involving parents in hearing their older children read to them has proved a most effective way of improving children's reading skills.

Being read to can involve children in several different sorts of 'taking from text' (Teale 1984). Sometimes the child is required to be a passive audience. Sometimes adults encourage a great deal of active participation from the child, requesting identification of objects in pictures, comments on the action, and predictions about what will happen next. Sometimes analogies will be drawn between the events of the story and the child's own experience. If such elaborations of the reading and listening activity are sensitively used, children become adept at relating stories to a wider context and dealing with their implications more deeply, skills useful in the classroom (Hayward 1980; Heath 1982, 1983; Mills and Funnell 1983). Stories are a constant part of classroom social life, and a delight in many children's home lives.

Stories socialize children in other ways besides the interactions which is required of a reader or listener. They can convey the culture to the child and socialize him or her into culturally approved patterns of attitudes and values. They can do this both overtly and covertly, and can carry admirable and deplorable messages.

Stories obviously, commonly evoke emotions—like play, they provide a

relatively risk-free and controllable form of being frightened, excited and exhilarated.

Children begin to understand the form of stories quite early in their experience of them. They are not as dependent on temporal order as Piaget (1969) suggested: given a logically structured story (his were ill formed) they make inferences and build up a coherent shapely sequence of events even at the age of 4 (Wimmer 1980, Mandler and Johnson 1977). They develop 'story grammars' just as they develop 'scripts' of familiar events in their lives. Although their initial re-telling of stories contains mainly surface events, probing with 'why' questions elicits much inference about the characters' motives and intentions. Young children's limitations may be attributed to lack of world knowledge and memory problems rather than to lack of an ability to make inferences and other logical connections (Trabasso and Nicholas 1980). As children encounter both more stories they gain both more 'real world' knowledge and more knowledge of the conventions of stories. They begin to appreciate the distancing, reassuring opening 'Once upon a time'; they expect there to be good characters who triumph over their troubles and bad characters who get their due come-uppance; they know that foxes are 'sly' and witches are wicked. Traditional stories create a world simpler than the child's own but not entirely unlike it, so that they can try an alternative 'reality' just as they do in play.

Meadows, S. (1993). *Child development* (pp. 82, 83). Routledge.

Part I. Comprehension Exercises

A. Put "T" for true and "F" for false statements. Justify your answers.

_____ 1. Stories require children to be passive.

_____ 2. Children do not need instruction in order to relate stories to their own lives.

_____ 3. Children are fast at drawing analogies between the events of a story and their own life experiences.

_____ 4. Piaget views temporal order in stories as especially important for children.

_____ 5. Good reading requires active participation on the part of the reader.

_____ 6. Preschoolers commonly fail to follow the implications of the stories they hear.

neglect /nɪglɛkt/ (v)
departure from stated government policy.
to pay little or no attention to; fail to heed;
to disregard; to fail to care for or attend to properly
The teacher neglected the real needs of his students.

II. Reading

Society as a Data Source and Other Curriculum Designs

Society is a third source which may be used as a dominant or exclusive basis for curriculum decision making. It produces a unique curriculum design which is valued as a way of understanding and improving society. Community schools often use this approach. Social-studies programs also sometimes use society as a primary data source.

What type of institutes usually use society-based curriculum?

Although explicit objectives may be used, they do not play as major a role in this design as when subject areas are used as a basis for decision making. There usually is a definite focus for the learning process for all students but definite outcomes are not prescribed in advance.

Content is derived from life in a society or societies. It may emphasize the functions of a society, the major activities of social life, or the persistent problems of students and humankind. Any subject area is used as it relates to the topic or problem under study. Problem-solving processes and human relations and social skills are major emphasis rather than possession of a body of content.

What does content emphasize upon?

Materials of great diversity are needed with community resources and original documents preferred rather than texts. Evaluation is likely to be a cooperative endeavor between students and teachers. It focuses upon resolutions of, or actions related to, the problems being studied at the

processes engaged in during the study.

How are students evaluated in such a curriculum?

Activities would be a result of student and teacher planning. They would require the active participation of students in all phases of study. The teacher plays a more active role, however, in determining these than when the student is the primary data source. Teaching strategies would be those which have the teacher as a facilitator of the learning process more than as the authority and expert as in the subject area design. The teacher, again, would play a more direct role than in student design, however.

Space would be broadly defined to include all the resources of the school and community which relate to the problem or topic under study. Time would be defined also as a general resource which students use as the study dictates. Artificial allocations of time would be minimized as much as possible. Grouping would be determined on the basis of student needs and desires as the study progresses and much use of committee work would be made.

How is space defined?

The interrelationships among the curricular elements in this design are broadly defined. They are stronger and more direct than in the student design, but less strongly related when separate subjects are used as the primary basis for design.

Two curriculum designs being advocated now appear to be a departure, or perhaps a combination of the traditional ones in that they cut across the three bases of decision making discussed above. They are specific competencies and process skills. A third one is being advocated which is similar to the student as a basis for a design but it is less clearly defined. A fourth design, the core curriculum, has been advocated in the past, but it is less clearly a unique design. These four are discussed briefly as follows.

The competency approach emphasizes specific behavioral objectives as defining what students need to learn. These are derived from any data source. Skills are usually emphasized and growth in the affective domain is neglected or underemphasized. An example of this approach is the current emphasis on the basics in the United States. In this, behavioral objectives spell out the specific competencies the student must possess to function adequately in the society. They also reflect the separate subjects. The specific curricular elements are likely to be treated as in the separate subjects design.