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Faculty of Letters and Languages

Department of English Language and Literature

Course Title

ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES

Level: Master One

Specialism: Science du Language

Semester: One

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Preface

The course of   English for Specific Purposes (ESP) is designed for Master level students whose major discipline is English as a Foreign Language (EFL) at Mohamed Lamine Debaghine Setif 2 University. It is intended to assist, to some extent, students to become practitioners and course designers for specific purposes.

This course guide is meant to give a general overview of what this course is all about. It will briefly tell what the course is about, what course materials will be used and how to work through these materials. It suggests some general guidelines for the amount of time spent on each lecture of the course. It also gives some guidance on the tutor-unmarked assignments. This course should be taken as a self-study. It is expected to be completed in one semester of about fourteen (14) weeks with the teacher's assistance.

The current manual includes a number of techniques that help in a way or another to make this material feasible and practical. Some of them are as follows: the general outline of the document, a table of contents, a list of tables, list of figures, a list of abbreviations, general aims of the document, procedures and activities of the document. More specifically, it includes at the beginning of each module a brief description and a number of key objectives of every stage in the lectures in addition to the prospective challenges expected during the lecture and solutions are suggested by the lecturer herself.

1. Course Aims

English for Specific Purposes (ESP) course is designed to introduce a learning-centered approach to ESP, and the development of a programme of instruction for ESP. The overall aim of this manual is to provide a theoretical grounding in language teaching and with an introduction to the practice and theory of ESP incorporating English for Occupational Purposes (EOP) and English for Educational or Academic Purposes (EAP). The objective is to enable students plan and design ESP programmes and teaching materials for use in the teaching contexts. The document will support as well in planning an ESP curriculum /syllabus for a specified group of learners. For example, a selected sample of learners of business would be a convenient start to prepare students to deal with future prospective ESP professionals or academics.

2. Course Objectives

It is hoped that by the time students complete this course using this manual, they will be able to:

- ✓ Define Needs and Needs Analysis
- ✓ Be familiar with the most common data collection tools;
- ✓ Define ESP
- ✓ Discuss the origins of ESP and its development; state the special characteristics of ESP programmes;
- ✓ Make the difference between language skills under ESP and under EGP
- ✓ Be au fait with what the field of EBE (Business English) may require;
- ✓ Approach a genre based analysis to business discourse;
- ✓ Go through curriculum and syllabus construction by doing an ESP course design project such as designing appropriate courses for specified groups of ESP learners;
- ✓ Conduct analyses of the communicative and linguistic needs of specific groups of learners.
- ✓ Analyze given scenarios of a group of learners and depict challenges and solutions as far as target and learning needs are concerned.

3. Working Through the Course Manual

To complete this course, it is advised to read the study lectures, and read other materials recommended for further reading and those at the reference sections of the course. Each lecture contains self assessment tasks, and at specific points in the course it is required to submit graded assignments for evaluation purposes. Time should be well allocated to each lecture in order to complete the course successfully and in time. At the end of the course, there is a final formal examination (paper and pencil) graded out of 18 marks. See (Appendix A) for an idea about examination questions.

In order to understand this course material, students are expected to attend all the lectures and study them diligently and successfully. Each lecture introduces one or more key concept in ESP and the ability to master them all will help ESP students become successful needs analysts and course designers (at least at a theoretical level). In order to have a good command of ESP course, students should:

✓ Not disregard any aspect of this document or see it as being simple, difficult or complicated. They need just to read on and then the connections will be apparent;

✓ Do all the self assessment exercises, either alone or in a discussion group with their mates ;

✓ Do not neglect any of the tutor-unmarked assignments.

4. Course Materials

The major components of the course are, in parallel with other, documents such as, books, references and textbooks of the same area of interest. In fact, the materials included here have been developed by the teacher over a number of seven years of professional experience in teaching English for Specific Purposes (ESP henceforth) at Sétif 2 University. Handouts, presentation schedule and assignment files are also amongst the main course materials.

5. Study Modules

There fourteen (14) lectures spread over 14 weeks. All lectures are connected to one another. They are arranged as follows:

Lecture 1: **Introduction to Needs**

Lecture 2: **Introduction to Needs Analysis**

Lecture 3: **Quantitative Data Collection Tools**

Lecture 4: **Qualitative Data Collection Tools**

Lecture 5: **Emergence of English for Specific Purposes**

Lecture 6: **Types of English for Specific Purposes**

Lecture 7: **ESP Course Development**

Lecture 8**: Language Skills in ESP**

Lecture 9: **Genre and Business Discourse**

Lecture 10: **Genre and Business Writing**

Lecture 11: **ESP Curriculum – Part 1**

Lecture 12: **ESP Curriculum – Part 2**

Lecture 13: **ESP Syllabus**

Lecture 14: **ESP Practitioner and Learner**

6. Assessment File

There are three aspects of the assessment of this course; the teacher unmarked assignments, the work project and a written examination. In doing the assignments and the final project,

students are expected to apply information gathered during the course. Assignments must be discussed with the help of the tutor who has to give a corrective feedback at the end of every session for the purpose of formative assessment. For the research work done outside the classroom, it is graded out of 2 marks for the purpose of summative assessment.

7. Final Examination and Grading

The final ESP examination will comprise a written exam which will carry 90% of the total course grade and a project work which gets 10%. The examination will consist of questions which will reflect everything students have learnt about ESP. There must be a convenient time between finishing the last lecture and taking the examination to revise the entire course. It may be useful to review the self assessment exercises and ungraded assignments before the examination.

The homework project which should be submitted prior to the final examination date includes an assignment about collecting needs of business professionals or students, or any other fields of ESP. After analyzing needs, they should give guidelines for their respective curriculum and syllabus. Students are asked to suggest activities used in classroom for the particular group they have chosen.

8. Classroom Protocol

In order to ensure a better teaching and learning environment of ESP for Master one Students " Semester 1", the current document sets a number of related, working procedures and activities for each lecture and assignment. The common protocol in every lecture is followed:

- ✓ Devote up to first minutes for a brief lead-in in order to get students engaged into the lecture;
- ✓ Discuss the general outline of the lecture in relationship with the topic title, the main points of the lecture, procedures, and the terminal and secondary objectives of every section of the lecture;
- ✓ Pass on handouts of each lecture to each student. Evidently, each printed handouts consist of both the theoretical lecture and the unmarked assignment;
- ✓ Embark on lecture deliverance which should not exceed 45 minutes. The tutor has to emphasize the main points for elaboration and fully explain the key concepts;

- ✓ Devote more than 40 minutes for assignments answers and discussions. There is a great belief that students understand by doing. The teacher monitors , facilitates and controls time allotted;
- ✓ In case of time restriction, extra related work must be assigned to the students outside classroom setting in the form of home work, field work, role play, projects workshops and any available related material. This procedure help the teacher check whether lectures have been understood and help students implement what they have learned in the classroom in their real-life situations;
- ✓ The above-mentioned steps might be repeated in each session either exactly or with tiny modifications;
- ✓ It is not imperative for the teacher and students to discuss all the assignments every time. It is up to them to select some of them for classroom discussion and keep others as homework for further reflections.

Summary

This course guide aims to serve as a window to students on what to find in this training manual and how best make use of information learnt. Students have learnt that there are fourteen lectures during 14 weeks dealing with concepts in ESP. It will guide learners to the practical applications of the course design in the form of a syllabus, materials, methodology and assessment for particular academic or professional needs. Also, assignments form a solid platform for learners to better master the ESP industry.

Lecture One

Introduction to Needs

Description	This lecture comprises two parts. The first part begins with a historical background of the notion of "a need" and how it appeared; and then the second part explains the concepts of "needs" in language learning and presents its types according to several authors.
Objectives	On successful completion of the lecture, students should be able, among other things, to; 1. Know the history of the term "need" and its appearance 2. Be familiar with the best working definition of the term need. 3. Make a difference between needs' types
Potential Difficulties	Although the terms need and need analysis sound familiar (they were tackled in the 3rd year), students may find the historical background detailed and exhaustive and thus hard to memorize.
Prospective Solutions	We ask students to read the first part about the historical background in groups and then exchange information. Each group, represented by a peer is asked to give an overview. Other groups add, modify or correct information.

Introduction

This lecture displays the historical background of language learning and how the interest of language skills has shifted attention from written to spoken form. Teaching methods were dominated by Grammar translation method and then audio-lingual method which were in turn criticized by communicative approach adherents who claimed that there is a need for a method that helps learners communicate effectively. And thus the term 'need' came into light and has to be well defined as a literal meaning; in addition to some very common definitions in relation with language teaching and learning.

1. The Historical Background of Language Learning

It is, assumedly; fair to say that throughout history, foreign language learning has always been an important practical concern. Whereas today English is the world's most widely studied foreign language, 500 years ago it was Latin, for it was the dominant language of education, commerce, religion and government in the Western world. In the sixteenth century, however, French, Italian and English gained in importance as a result of political changes in Europe, and Latin gradually became displaced as a language of written and spoken

communication (Richards & Rodgers 2001, p.1). Latin and Greek were the languages of scholarship, religion, philosophy and 'knowledge', so the grammar of these languages was taken to be the model for other grammars (Yule 2006, p.74)

Since the study of grammar was necessary for the reading and writing of Latin, the universal language of learning. It formed the base of the curriculum. There was a school tradition and a more learned philosophical one (Bornstein 1984, p. 6). Many Latin grammars were compiled for students. The first one composed in England was written in Anglo-Saxon by Aelfric, Abbot of Eynsham (c.1000). Like the other grammarians of this period, he based his work on Donatus and Priscian, abbreviating and simplifying their treatises to suit the needs of beginners (Bornstein, ibid)

On that basis, language literacy was confined only to the knowledge of reading and writing, speaking was regarded as impure and contaminated version of standard language. People at that time are considered literate or, say, educated only if they do master reading and writing. For more than 2,000 years, studying a second language primarily consisted of grammatical analysis and translation of written, forms. Developed for analysis of Greek and Latin, this method divided the target language into eight parts of speech: nouns, verbs, participles, articles, pronouns, prepositions, adverbs and conjugations. Learning the language required study of the eight categories in written text and the development of rules for their use in translation (Hinkel & Fotos 2002, p.1).

Grammar translation dominated European and foreign language teaching from the 1840s to the 1940s and in modified form it continues to be widely used in some parts of the world today (Richards & Rodgers 1986, p. 4). Freeman (2000) has perfectly presented and elucidated the main teaching methods whose principles were widely based on English grammar teaching. Grammar Translation Method (GTM henceforth) based on the theoretical approach that advocates the belief that language is a mere grammatical system whose acquisition would help in better language –native or foreign- reading and writing. Learners are supposed to read passages in the foreign language then translate them into their native language. In addition to that, learners are also supposed to memorise the translation of words in the passage (Freeman 2000). What we would probably observe is that GTM is adopted in making students understand English via their mother tongue and thus English has become itself a goal not a means to achieve an aim. Learners taught a foreign language via GTM come

to show a poor speaking ability, i.e. their accuracy goes beyond their fluency in the foreign language. Additionally, in traditional grammar programs, students are often baffled by the necessity of memorizing numerous definitions of grammatical terminology, none of which has any practical meaning in terms of day-to-day speech and writing. The confusion that results is often detrimental; the student's frustration ultimately overcomes his or her desire to learn (Diamond & Dutwin 2005, p.2).

For this reason, the reform movement conducted by linguists between 1940s and the early 1950s advocated the principle that language description has to do, primarily, with its spoken rather with its written form. This is based on the assumption that individuals learn to speak before learning to write. The linguist, then, has speech as his main subject –matter, and although he would not dismiss written language from his field of study he would relegate it to a secondary position (Wilkins 1972, p.8). Applied to second and foreign language teaching, another method termed Audio-lingual Method (AM onwards) came to light after the belief that GTM is unable to get learners in touch with the target language communicatively. Its main slogan is "no translation is allowed" (Freeman 2000, p. 23). Audioligualism dates back to World War II when the United States needed to train military personnel for active communication, including intercepting messages and interrogating prisoners (Wong 2006, p. 16). Simultaneously, Direct Method appeared in UK whose principles are quite akin to those of AM. Now learners are given more opportunities to speaking rather than writing. It is a total revolt against translation and a cling to meaning expressed in the target language though delineation via pictures or realia and no reference is embedded to the native language. The main activities of the said method are grammar pattern drills, repetition, substitution, gap fillings…etc. Audio-lingual method is a mixture of structural linguistic theories, in addition to behavioural psychology (Skinner 1957 in Freeman 2000, p. 35)

Looking closely at ALM, we can observe that the order followed of skills; listening, speaking, reading and writing is quite logical in attaining any foreign language. However, the emphasis on grammatical patterns and new vocabularies and making drills on them would result in readymade chunks of language. These chunks are perfectly used inside the class walls but once they face the real life, they would fail, I presume to cope with. This situation urged for a shift from the emphasis on the grammatical or linguistic competence (Chomsky, 1965) to the communicative competence of the learner (Hymes 1972). Hymes' criticism that Chomsky's categories of competence and performance provide no place for competency for

language use, i.e. the theory fails to account for a whole dimension, the sociocultural (Munby 1978, p.14). This is simply because the ultimate aim of learning a second or a foreign language is to communicate successfully in the target language. The American Audio-lingual method and the Direct Method in Britain were gradually replaced by more communicative and cognitive approached which have been influenced in their development by generative-transformational linguistic theories (Chomsky, 1965), speech act theory (Austin, 1962; Searle, 1969), ethnography of communication (Hymes, 1972), and more learner-centered educational approaches (Tucker & Corson 1997, p. 77).

The need for language learners to communicate effectively in prospective situations urged linguists to identify language objectives learners are supposed to achieve at the end of the course. Before arriving to objectives, it would be plausible enough to identify what do learners need in learning a second or a foreign language. We ought to, first embark on the definition of the term *'needs'* in literature.

1.1. What a Need is

Richterich 1983 (as cited in Brindley, 1989, p.65) comments on the definition of 'needs' as follows: "The very concept of language needs has never been clearly defined and remains at best ambiguous". It is therefore useful to borrow some insights from the field of adult education, in which needs are conventionally defined as being something like 'the gap between what is and what should be' (Brindley 1989, p. 95). Likewise, the term gap has been substituted by Ornstein and Hunkins (1998, p.74) by discrepancy as they define the need as a recognized and accepted discrepancy between a current state and a desired state. In the same vein, Altschuld and Witkin (1995, p.9) shares the same definition as they see 'need as a noun refers to the gap or discrepancy between a present state (what is) and a desired end state, future state or condition (what should be)'. Need as a verb would refer to what is required or desired to fill the discrepancy –solutions, means to an end. Reviere (1996, p.4) asserts, in another way, that needs are relative to life experiences of individuals as defined within the framework of a reference group- the group against which status and performance are measured.

Referring to our concern here which is learners and language learning, more practical definitions have been approached. Branden (2006, pp.17-18) states that most people learn second, third and fourth languages because these languages can be of particular use to them,

and because, if they fail to acquire them, they may not reach certain goals that they have in mind. The exploration of learners' language need is often circumvented. Even it is explicitly acknowledged that individuals may have proper learning needs in mind, an analysis of what has to be learnt in order to speak and understand the target language is what seems to be needed the most. In addition, other terms have been proposed for 'needs'. These include: necessities, demands, wants, likes, lacks, deficiencies, goals, aims, purposes and objectives (Jordan, 1997, p.22).

Yet, the notion of need has been also regarded on as what learners will need to do in the learning situation in order to learn. Hence, the need has become no longer restricted to learners' goals but extended to other areas. Clark, 1999 (as cited in Hinkel, 2005, p.977) points out that the term has also been used for learner characteristics (e.g., age, motivation, preferred learning style). Hinkel (ibid.) gets to the point and states that three broad categories of need are distinguished lying in the degree of the communicative competence –as the aim of language learning is communication, *my own statement*- required to fulfil a need:

- *Communicative needs*: One may want to be competent in a particular second language in order to be able to communicate effectively with speakers of that language.
- *Language competence-related needs*: One may want to become familiar, for example, with the way of life, culture, and more specifically, the literature of another people with a differing language; competence in the second language in which that culture is embedded and in which literary texts are written, is not, strictly speaking, a prerequisite to fulfil this need.
- *Needs distantly, or not at all, related to language competence*: One wants to acquire particular social and/or intellectual skills of a general nature, such as empathy and rational thinking; such general educational objectives may be pursued equally well, or possibly better, through the learning and teaching of a variety of other school subjects than second language.

It is necessary to mention here, before we go forward, that needs in second language learning stated above are similar to those of Foreign Language Teaching (FLT), by assuming that both languages are additional to the native language. Yet, Briggs and Ackerman (1977) mention that educational need draws heavily on the concept of social need. One social scientist Bradshaw 1972 (as cited in Briggs & Ackerman, 1977, pp. 22-23) has enumerated four types of needs: a) *normative need* which has to do with what students need in order to

achieve the standard desired in a particular school, b) *felt need* is synonymous to want need when people are asked about their needs or wants, c) *expressed need* or demand is a need of students who would like to enrol in a college where seats are less than their numbers, in this case the administration has to talk about the need for more sections, stuff and even housing, d) *comparative need* exists when one school students do not receive the same service as a similar school students, whereas e) *anticipated or future needs* is a need for future goals foreseen by experts. The identification of this need may help students to cope with their environment as it will be, rather than the way it is. Anticipated needs are a necessary component in both social and educational planning to avoid what Toffler (1971, p.24) has called "future shock".

The previously mentioned views about a need are presumed to carry the same central idea: A need is present when there is a discrepancy or gap between the way things "ought to be" and the way they "are" Briggs and Ackerman (op. cit.). Needs are gaps in results, consequences or accomplishments as Figure 1.1 shows:
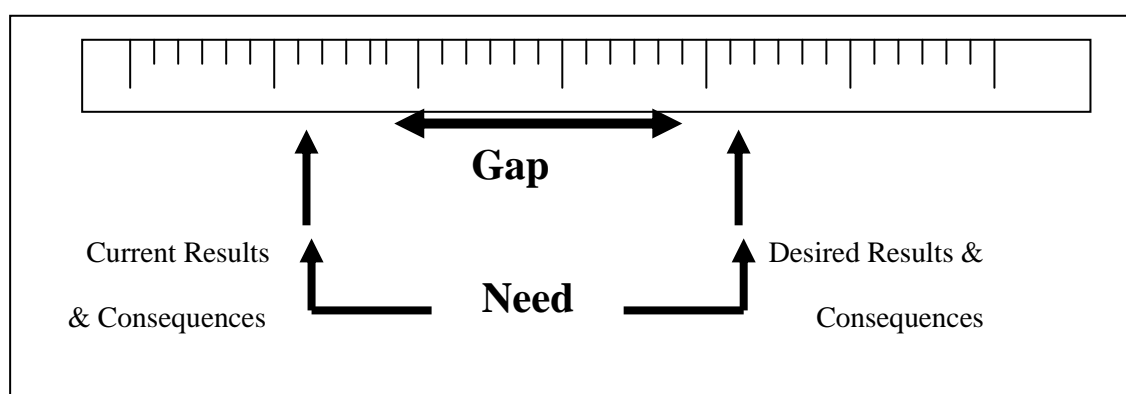
Figure *1.1*. Needs are Gaps in Results (Adapted from Kaufman et al. 1993, p.4)

Berwick (1989, p.55) classifies needs in language learning only to two types: '1) felt needs and 2) perceived needs'. While the former are usually synonymous to expressed needs which learners have to describe the future desired state, the latter has to do with what certified experts perceive as needs in order to bridge the gap between the current state and the desired state. Perceived needs are also called normative needs or objective needs (Richterich & Chancerel, 1980). Later on, Richterich, 1983 (as cited in Brindley, 1989, p.64) points out that objective needs which are initially language-related needs would be set up before learning-related needs come to light. Language related needs on the one hand; refer to collecting information necessary for broad goals of the language content, learning-related needs aims at gathering information about learners so as to guide the learning process. These two types of

needs are afterwards named by Richterich (1980) *objective needs* and *subjective needs.* On the same vein, Brindley (1989, pp.64-67) approves the existence of objective and subjective needs as he defines them as follows:

- *Objective needs*: refers to needs which are derivable from different kinds of factual information about learners, their use of language in real-life communication situations as well as their current language proficiency and language difficulties.
- *Subjective needs*: refers to the cognitive and affective needs of the learner in the learning situation derivable from information about affective and cognitive factors such as personality, confidence, attitudes, learners' wants and expectations with regard to the learning of English and their individual cognitive style and learning strategies.

Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p.54) provide as well two types of needs which they term *"target needs"* and *"learning needs"* (akin to objective and subjective needs). Target needs have something to do with what the learner needs to do in the target situation, whereas learning needs refer to what the learner needs to do in order to learn. Target needs, in turn, consist of important elements such as necessities, lacks and wants.

Brindley (1989, p.63) also distinguishes between the narrow (product-oriented) definition of needs whereby the learners' needs are seen solely in terms of the language they will have to use in a particular communication situation and the broad (process-oriented) meaning in terms of the needs of the learner as an individual in the learning situation.

Conclusion

The most conventional form of definition for "need" in the field of education is "the gap between what is and what should be" .it also means the existence of a "gap" by using the word "discrepancy" and define need as "a recognized and accepted discrepancy between a current state and a desired state" definition of need is not different from the previous ones in the sense that they also regard need as a perceived discrepancy or gap between some desired condition and the assessed condition. Subjective and objective needs are the most common types of needs in language education field.

Ungraded Assignments

1. In your own words, summarise how the shift towards the spoken language form took place and how did teaching approaches and methods develop?

2. Explain, in your own words, the difference between communicative needs and language related needs

3. To what extent 'needs distantly related to language competence' differs from communicative needs?

4. Give examples of the following needs type:

   a) Normative needs

....

   b) Felt needs

....

   c) Expressed needs

....

   d) Comparative needs

....

   e) Anticipated future needs

....

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Lecture Two

Introduction to Needs Analysis

Description	The following lecture outlines what is Needs Analysis (NA), presents its approaches and highlights its classifications. It also provides an NA framework for the current trends in ESP and reviews some research studies conducted within such a framework in the context of ESP.
Objectives	On successful completion of the lecture, students should be able, among other things, to; 1. Make a difference between subjective (learning) needs and objective (target) needs. 2. Be acquainted with the recent approaches to NA 3. Distinguish between Target Situation, Present Situation and Learning Situation
Potential Difficulties	Approaches to needs analysis seem overlapping and students may not understand which step to start with and which one follows.
Prospective Solutions	A perfect solution to this difficulty is to draw a timeline in order to explain that "means analysis" for example precedes all the stages and then carry on with the rest of the stages. The timeline can be combined with a schema drawn on the board for a better understanding.

Introduction

It is widely agreed on that people interested in needs investigation are called needs analysts. Needs study conducted by experts is consequently termed NA. Let us get closer to what the notion of NA stands for in different available literature.

1.2. What an NA is

As previously mentioned, the term need has not been confined to language learning solely but to other disciplines such as sociology, physiology, economy, politics…etc. therefore, NA is by definition, not solely constrained to language matters. Dudley-Evans and John (1998) affirm that NA is not exclusive to language teaching. In its broader sense, NA is a procedure of gathering information; its first appearance may date back to 1920 in India (West, 1994, p.1). NA has been also termed Needs Assessment by many experts and course designers. Berwick (1989, p.51) states that 'NA or assessment of language programme planning owes its origin to the need of public aid to education in USA during the mid-1960s as a condition for offering a financial support'.

Reviere (1996, p.6) defines needs assessment as a systematic process of collection and analysis as inputs into resource allocation decisions with a view to discovering and identifying goods and services the community is lacking in relation to the generally accepted standards, and for which there exists some consensus as the community's responsibility for their provision. For McKillip (1998, pp.261-262), NA is a decision-aiding tool used for resource allocation, program planning, and program development in the fields of health, education, and human services.

In language learning contexts, NA is traced back to the 1970s when its procedure first appeared in language planning (Nunan, 1988). While such procedures have a long tradition in other areas of adult learning, their use in language teaching became widespread with their adoption and espousal by the Council of Europe's modern language project. In these Council of Europe documents, NA is used as the initial process for the specification of behavioural objectives (ibid, p.43). Munby (1978) stresses that the concern and the necessity to learners to acquire a communicative competence forms a platform for NA.

Based on the narrow (product-oriented) interpretation of needs whereby the learners' needs are seen solely in terms of the language they will have to use in a particular communication situation.NA therefore becomes a process of finding out as much as possible before learning begins about the learners' current and future language use (Brindley, 1989, p.63). However, based on the broad (process-oriented) interpretation of needs, NA means much more that the definition of target language behaviour: it means trying to identify and take into account a multiplicity of affective and cognitive variables which affect learning such as learners' attitudes, motivation, awareness, personality, wants, expectations and learning styles (ibid.). Witkin and Altschuld (1995, p. 4) define NA as "A systematic set of procedures undertaken for the purpose of setting priorities and making decisions about program or organizational improvement and allocation of resources. The priorities are based on identified needs"

That is to say, NA is a systematic mechanism of data collection about target population for defining learning/teaching priorities based chiefly on investigated needs. Stufflebeam et al. (1985) state that NA assists in determining what needs exist and how they should be addressed as well as providing the degree to which intended needs are addressed effectively and efficiently through the program or resources available.

Nunan and Lamb (1996) view that collecting information, either formally or informally, about learners before the beginning of the course might include biographical information in addition to data about the communicative tasks learners desire to perform in the target language. Several types of data collection conducted through NA procedures. Richards (1990, pp. 1-2) states that needs analysis in language learning serves the purposes of:

- Providing a mechanism for obtaining a wider range of input into the content, design, and implementation of a language program through involving such people as learners, teachers, administrators, and employers in the planning process;
- Identifying general or specific language needs that can be addressed in developing goals, objectives and content for a language program;
- Providing data that can serve as the basis for reviewing and evaluating an existing program.

In sum, NA forms a framework upon which experts embark on collecting data about learners and learning situations and purposes. Also, it helps in the betterment of the current learning program objectives that change according to the alternation of learners' and learning needs. What we can notice here is that NA is the nucleus platform in planning any language course. As Jordan (1997, p.22) stresses that NA should be the starting point for devising syllabuses, materials and the kind of teaching and learning that takes place.

Widdowson 1987 (as cited in Nunan, 1988, pp. 43-44) suggests that syllabuses based on specific needs and specific ends would result in restricted competence, whereas general-purposes syllabus is process oriented; educative in function and lead to general competence. This view seems to be pertaining to some learners who lack the General English competence. They would come to manifest, presumably at the course, a limited competence which we may term 'communicative competence'. Nunan (1988, p.44) disapproves this idea and points out that Widdowson's (1987) criticisms are logico-deductive rather than empirical. Widdowson, 1983 and 1987 (as cited in Nunan, 1988, p.45) adds that needs-based courses will result in a formulaic 'phrase book' English and learners, therefore, will not be able to communicate language spontaneously. Nunan (1988) responds, however, that generation of language communication, to his knowledge, has a great deal to do with the methodology followed and has nothing to do with content selection. I do share Nunan's opinion that methods applied to teaching are of importance to help learners to communicate fluently. Yet, it is also worth mentioning that language content based on particular needs would lead to language

communication –the objective of the syllabus- but in a limited area which is the syllabus content. 'Needs analysis has, in fact, shifted accordingly with language teaching change from language-centred to learner-centred approaches' (Berwick, 1989, p.70).

At first, effective language communication, based on objective needs, was set as the main purpose in any teaching context. Language teaching tended to concentrate on the end *product*: the actual language which learners had to use. Afterwards, language teaching based on subjective needs have come to show an interest in learning content rather than going to a bother of considering affective and cognitive factors of learners. Now, the *learning content* of the course was identified with the *language content* derived from the teacher's diagnosis of objective communication needs (ibid., p. 72).

1.3. Evolution of Approaches to NA

It is worth mentioning that the difficulty in arriving to a workable definition to the notion 'need', would probably stem from the constant evolution of the concept of 'needs analysis' since 1970s and shifted the scope of analysis (West ,1997). Now, NA developed through several stages, these include: Target Situation Analysis (TSA), Present Situation Analysis (PSA), deficiency analysis, strategy analysis, means analysis, language audit and constraints (Jordan 1997, p.22) and later on learning centered-approach (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987)

- **TSA** has been first introduced by Munby, 1978 (as cited in Robinson, 1991) and focuses on the needs of learners at the end of the language course). It was considered as the earliest form of NA encountered in the early work of the Council of Europe. TSA may operate at various levels of detail:

a. Establishing priorities in terms of various languages – English, German, etc. (ibid., p.71)

b. Establishing priorities in terms of skills in one language – speaking, reading, etc. (ibid.)

TSA has usually been combined with the collection of information about the communicative demands faced in the target situation (Davies & Elder, 2006). This includes information about language use in specific academic, professional, or vocational groups and the linguistic skills used most frequently in the target situation (ibid., p. 674). However, Robinson (1989, p.403) states that TSA is only half the story. As well as knowing one's destination one also needs to know one's starting point. Thus a PSA is also required (ibid.)

- **PSA** refers to English language information about the learners: what their current skills and language use are (Dudley-Evans &St. Johns, 1998, p.125). PSA involves finding out not only what students are like at the outset of their course, but also more about their teachers, teaching institution and, going further, the wider society around (Robinson, 1989, p.404).

- **Deficiency Analysis** focuses on information about what the learners' lack. It came to light as a criticism to the abovementioned approaches of analysis. Learners' present language proficiency has to gain much attention. Now needs turn to be termed lacks, deficiencies and subjective needs. (Howard & Brown, 1997, p.71).

- **Strategy Analysis** represent a search for means of travel- the approaches to learning or teaching (ibid.). It, therefore, embarks upon gathering information about the preferred styles and strategies of the learners (Jordan, 1997.). In strategy analysis, the point of departure starts from learners themselves and how they perceive their own needs Allwright, 1982(as cited in Jordan, 1997, p.27). Based on this assumption, Allwright comes to distinguish between learners' a) *needs* which refer to skills pertinent to learners' aims, b) *wants* which learners perceive as highly important to determine within a fixed period of time and c) *lacks* which refer to the discrepancy between the learner's current state of competence and the desired future state.

- **Means Analysis** is considered as the reverse order of any approach as it starts by gathering data about constraints in local situations, e.g. cultural, attitudes, resources, materials, equipment, methods then involves study in this local situation which includes teachers, teaching methods, students, facilities…etc (ibid., p. 27). It included four main stages (West ,1997, pp.71-72):

a) "Classroom culture/ learner factors – what is or is not possible within particular educational culture or tradition

b) Staff profiles/ teacher profiles - what is or is not possible with the staff available, considering numbers, etc

c) Status of language teaching/ institutional profiles as far as timetable and resource allocations are concerned

d) Agents and management change that deals with an assessment of the innovations necessary for establishing more effective programme." West (1997, pp.71-72)

- **Language Audits** attempts to define language needs for companies, regions or countries (ibid.). It helps to decide how many hours of language tuition are needed to bridge the gap, or

what should be prioritised where time is limited (Dudley-Evans & St.John, 1998, p.58). For how to collect data, Jordan (1997) cites fourteen methods; these include:

1. Advance documentation,
2. Language test at home,
3. Language test at entry,
4. Self-assessment,
5. Observation and monitoring,
6. Class progress tests,
7. Surveys,
8. Structured interviews,
9. Learner diaries,
10. Case studies,
11. Final tests,
12. Evaluation/feedback,
13. Follow-up investigation and
14. Previous research.

Robinson (1991) states fewer methods for data collection; however, they are perceived very all-inclusive and reflect several enquiries, these cover:

1. questionnaires,
2. interviews,
3. observation,
4. case studies,
5. tests,
6. authentic data collection and
7. Participatory needs analysis.

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) add learning-centered as another approach to NA which has shifted attention towards the learner at every stage. Basically, it looks beyond the competence that enables someone to perform, because what is really sought is not the competence itself but how someone acquires the competence. There has been a shift from language-centered approach to learning- centered approach. Hutchinson and Waters (ibid.) introduce a distinction between *target-needs* and *learning needs* which refer to what learners need to do in the target situation and what learners need in order to learn respectively. Three need appellations come under target-needs, they are:

1) *"Necessities*: refer to the demands of the target situation; i.e. what learners have to know so as to function effectively in the target situation.
2) *Lacks*: have to do with the gap between the target proficiency and what the learner needs.
3) *Wants*: represent the subjective needs in contrast to abovementioned objective needs. Now learners' perceptions are in conflict with other experts' perceptions. Wants become needs

which course designers, sponsors and teachers recognize as crucial to learners". Hutchinson and Waters (1987, pp.55-56).These needs are illustrated and explained in the table below:

Table 1.1.

Necessities, Lacks and Wants (Adapted from Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p.58)

	OBJECTIVE (i.e. as perceived by course designers)	SUBJECTIVE (i.e. as perceived by learners)
NECESSITIES	The English needed for success in business English course	To reluctantly cope with a target situation
LACKS	(presumably) areas of English needed for business English	Means of doing business course
WANTS	To succeed in business English course	To undertake business course

Data collection for target needs involves more than simply the linguistic features of the target situation (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p.58). Various ways followed to gather information about target situation (akin to Robinson's 1991); they comprise:

o Questionnaires;

o Interviews;

o Observation;

o Data collection e.g. gathering texts;

o Informal consultations with sponsors, learners and others.

TSA has been presented according to the following framework:

✓ Why is the language needed?

✓ How will the language be used?

✓ What will be the content areas be?

✓ Who will the learner use the language with?

✓ Where will the language be used?

✓ When will the language be used?

Insofar as learning needs are concerned, a crucial question underpins such an approach: How are we going to get from our starting point (lacks) to the destination (necessities or

wants)? Now the focus turns to be on how learners acquire the communicative competence i.e. how the learning process takes place. Learning needs, therefore, are not concerned with knowing or doing but with learning (Hutchinson &Waters, 1987, p. 61). To analyse learning needs, we can use a similar checklist to that used for target situation analysis (ibid.):

- ✓ Why are the learners taking the course?
- ✓ How do the learners learn?
- ✓ What resources are available?
- ✓ Who are the learners?
- ✓ Where will the course take place?
- ✓ When will the course take place?

Figure 1.2. Below summarises what have been previously stated concerning NA:
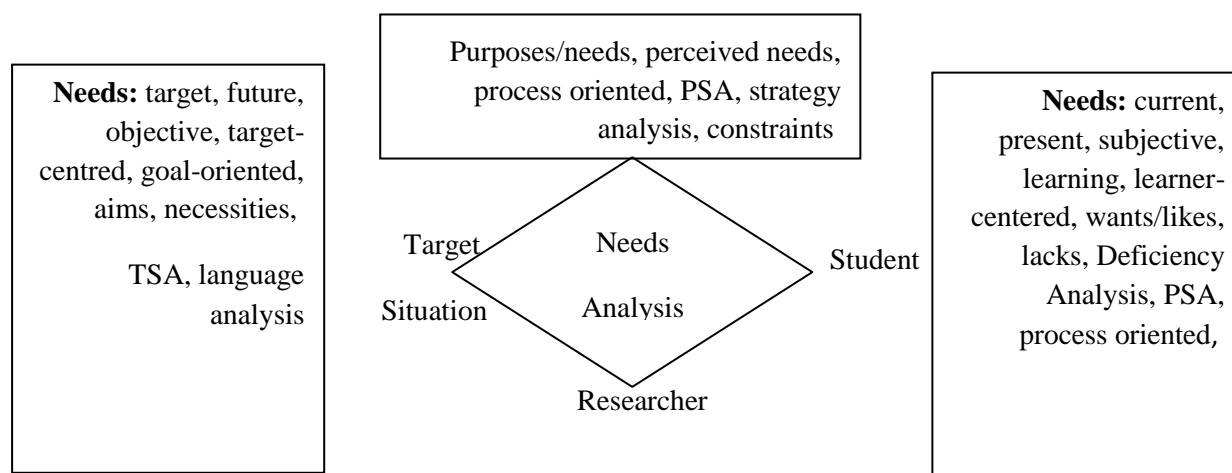
Figure *1.2*. Summary of NA (Adapted from Jordan, 1997, p.29)

1.4. Conducting NA

Conducting NA requires careful planning. It takes places after several posed questions which entail the reason behind such analysis; who is concerned and the way the analysis is undertaken.

1.4.1. Why conducting an NA?. The basic question arises about reasons behind conducting NA is for the sake of deriving information and perceptions of values as a guide to making policy and program decisions that will benefit specific groups of people Witkin and Altschuld (1995, p.5). Within the same scope Soriano (1995, p.15) points out that the main motives to conduct a needs analysis are justification for funding, regulations or laws that

mandate needs analyses, resource allocation and decision-making – determining the best use of the limited resources and as part of program evaluations.

Jordan (1997), however, states several reasons behind conducting an NA such as determining the type of syllabus and content, materials and (most importantly to our concern) is teaching and learning. Likewise, Richards (2001, p.52) cites various reasons to conduct a NA in language teaching. They include:

1) What skills the learner needs most in order to perform a particular role such as sales manager, tour guide or university student.

2) An attempt to determine whether a particular course is pertinent to learners' needs.

3) A specification of students from a group who are in need most to training in a particular language skill.

4) A potential shift in direction once learners perceive it significant

5) Identification of the discrepancies between learners' current ability in language learning and their desired ability needs. That is, what learners are able to do and what they need to be able to do.

6) A collection of prospective difficulties learners may encounter.

According to Hobbs 1987 (as cited in Reviere, 1996, p.83), no consideration is more important to the success of project than having a clear statement of its purpose and goals. That is to say, the project of NA in learning has, by all means, to specify reasons, purposes and aims in order to facilitate the procedure and arrive to optimum results aimed at, learning accomplishment.

1.4.2. Who conduct an NA?.   Witkin and Altschuld (1995) state that organisations, agencies including governmental agencies, school systems, social service agencies, business corporations, cities, hospitals and universities can all conduct an NA. However, Richards (1990); would confine learners, teachers, administrators and employers as the very concerned with NA procedure. In McDonough (1984, p.38), it has been mentioned that the National Center for Industrial Language Training (NCILT) puts forward a triangle representing people concerned with NA. They are chiefly; teachers, learners and company as illustrated in Figure 1.2. The latter is open to interpretation. It may stand for employers, administrators, sponsors whose task is complementary to that of teachers and learners.

Teacher-perceived needs   Student-perceived needs

Company-perceived needs
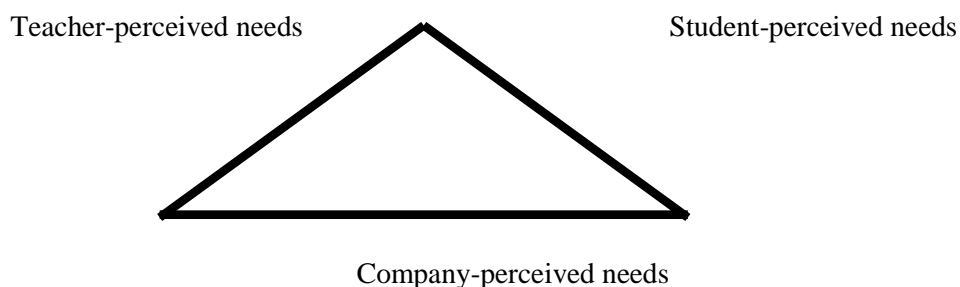
Figure *1.3.*Stakeholders Concerned with NA

We can say that "a company" can also refer to researchers attempting to identify clients' needs (research population). It is interesting to note that NCILT report regards all these types of information as contributory rather than conflicting (McDonough, ibid). Jordan (1997) notes that teachers, sponsors, students, researchers or consultants are all involved in performing the needs analysis, whereas Mackay and Mountford (1978) limit just teachers and planners as concerned with NA procedures.

Smith (1982) emphasises that collecting information from as many potential data sources as feasible in an NA process so as to be able to obtain reliable and valid data that will ensure planning meaningful programs. In this respect, Smith (ibid) proposes two sources for data collection which he distinguishes as readily accessible resources such as school records, enrolment figures, grades, test scores and student information and additional resources like graduates and employers.

1.4.3. How to undertake an NA?. NA can be carried out in a number of different ways which can be classified as either inductive (case studies, interviews, observation etc.) or deductive (questionnaires, surveys etc.). McDonough (1984, p.42) confirms that the analyser can employ various tools during the information collection procedure. The principal tools for NA are questionnaires and interviews. She also proposes that the analyser should be clear about two factors. One should consider what kind of information is required for each kind of person prior to deciding as to how data will be gathered. Secondly, there are no absolute reasons for selecting a particular instrument of information collection (ibid., p 45). Some of the most common ones are West's (1994, pp.7-8)

1. "Pre-course placement /diagnostic tests which estimate the language level of the learners
2. Entry tests on arrival which can have a diagnostic value and identify learners' language weaknesses and lacks

3. Observation of classes which are of value mainly for deficiency analysis

4. Surveys based on questionnaires which have been established as the most common method and help researchers draw a profile of learners' needs/lacks/wants/ learning styles/ strategies etc. and at the same time make them aware of these needs/lacks etc.

5. Structured interview which consists of pre-planned questions. Answers can either be recorded or written down

6. Learner diaries which can be used as supplementary to end-of-course questionnaires offering retrospective, qualitative information.

7. Case studies which provide in-depth information about the needs and difficulties of individual learners or groups"

8. Final evaluation/ feedback usually in the form of questionnaires which provides information on the evaluation of the course and helps design/improve the next course". West (1994, pp.7-8)

West (1997, p.73) added:

9. "Self placement/ self diagnostic tests, and

10. Previous research".

It is clear that depending on the method of data collection, NA can be (West, 1994, p. 5)

a) "'off-line', which is conducted in advance of the course, so that there is plenty of time for syllabus design and materials preparation.

b) 'on-line' or 'first-day', which is carried out when learners start the course

c) 'On-going needs re-analysis' which reformulates objectives periodically as awareness of the demands of the target situation increases and the needs become more focused".

Richterich and Chancerel, 1978 (as cited in Richards, 2001, p.33) propose that learners, teachers, and employers could all be involved in determining learners' needs. Information could be collected about the resources of the teaching institution, objectives, the methods of assessment used, and NA should be an ongoing process throughout a course. Information would also be needed about the different kinds of activities the learner would be using the language for (e.g., telephoning, interviewing), the language functions involved (e.g., explaining, requesting, complaining), the situations (e.g., face-to-face, in a work group), and which of the four language skills would be needed. Procedures suggested for conducting NA included questionnaires, surveys, and interviews.

Munby (1978) is a notable figure who first significantly contributed to designing a communicative syllabus for ESP learners by following a systematic approach to NA in ESP course design. The Munby model describes the kind of information needed to develop a profile of learner's communicative needs and is summarized by Schutz and Derwing,1981 (as cited in Richards,2001, p.34) as follows

Profile of Communicative Needs

1. Personal
2. Purpose
3. Setting
4. Interactional variables
5. Medium, mode, and channel
6. Dialects
7. Target level
8. Anticipated communicative events
9. Key

1. Culturally significant background about the individual, such as language bac[k]
2. Occupational or educational objective for which the target language is requir[ed]
3. Physical and psychological setting in which the target language is required
4. Such as the role relationships to be involved in the target language use
5. Communicative means
6. Information on dialects to be utilized
7. Level of competence required in the target language
8. Micro- and macro-activities
9. The specific manner in which communication is actually carried out

Mackay and Mountford (1978) stated that all language teaching should be designed for the specific learning and specific purposes of identified groups of student". Thus a systematic analysis of these specific learning needs and language use purposes (communication needs) is a pre-requisite for making the content of a language program relevant to the learners' needs. NA is more crucial in ESP courses. ESP courses should be closely related to the field in which students are being trained. As the name speaks, ESPs are defined to include specific parts of language, which a specific group of learners needs to know in order to perform appropriately in the according context. This aspect of ESP courses is more noteworthy when these courses are offered at EAP or EOP regarding the particular domain of knowledge which the students are expected to master during their academic life.

To attain the linguistic needs of the student there must be some familiarity with the end goals of the students in relation to their academic and communicative life and the researcher or syllabus design should try to assess their needs according to these purposes (Owolabi, 2012). The ideal condition seems to be preparing a single syllabus and ESP course for every single purpose. This is due to the specific needs of the students who differ according to the purpose they are studying and the course they are taking. Unfortunately, this is not what is

common in today's universities and colleges: in some of them, no formal NA has been conducted.

Conclusion

NA is considered as the corner stone of the development of any language curriculum, either ESP or General English. Conducting NA, usually stands for a set of stages that are involved in collecting information which serve as the basis for developing curricula that meet the needs of a particular group of learners. In this chapter, it was attempted to present comprehensive concepts of NA that could be implemented in designing the data collection. The phases of NA include information about) learners' language competence, that is, what they know and what they do not know (PSA), b) The gap between the present knowledge (PSA) and the target situation requirements (TSA) and then sort out deficiencies, c) the different needs of learners which include subjective and objective needs.

The aim of this review was an awareness raising of the importance of needs and NA. The module provides a theoretical grounding for the design of the NA and its collection procedure. Put it simply, this review has informed the researcher's choice of the NA procedure that underpins an appropriate ESP curriculum in order to determine the immediate and delayed language needs of ESP learners.

Ungraded Assignments

1. Decide which statement is PSA, TSA, or LSA

PSA	TSA	LSA

1. I remember information better if I write it down.

2. Looking at the person helps keep me focused.

3. I need a quiet place to get my work done.

4. When I take a test, I can view the textbook page in my mind.

5. Skimming and scanning are the main points to emphasize.

9. Defending thesis requires effort and focus

10. I have to write reports

11. I use the trial and error approach to problem-solving.

12. I have a difficult time giving step-by-step instructions.

13. Future perfect does not exist in my first language

6. I take frequent study breaks.

7. I have occasional meetings with British colleagues

8. I do not follow written directions well.

14. I type my class notes to reinforce the material

15. my nurse wants to understand my instructions

16. Writing medical reports is tedious but imperative

2. According to you, what is the difference between Allwright's and Hutchinson and Waters' perception of needs?

Researcher	Term
Allwright	Needs……………………. Wants…………………… Lacks…………………….
Hutchinson and Waters	Necessities ………………. Wants…………………….. Lacks………………………

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Lecture Three

Quantitative Data Collection Tools

Description	This lecture is devoted to show the tools that ESP practitioner would follow in order to gather information about PSA, TSA, LSA…etc. It also spotlights quantitative data collection through questionnaire surveys; how to be designed, pilot-tested and finally administered.
Objectives	By the end of the lecture, students are supposed to be able to: 1. Link the questions with the situation analysis 2. Make the difference between questionnaire writing and piloting 3. Be aware of how to construct good questionnaire questions
Potential Difficulties	Students may confuse the placement with the diagnostic test. Also, pilot-testing can be new to them and thus they may ask for more elaboration.
Prospective Solutions	It will be explained that: 1. The placement test is deployed to know the learners' level (placing them) whereas the diagnostic test is intended to depict the weaknesses of the learners. It is also important to emphasize that both tests take place at the PSA stage. For pilot-testing, the teacher will be prepared and bring a copy of a questionnaire as an example in order to pilot study it. If time does not allow, one or two examples of the same category will suffice.

Introduction

In order for the ESP practitioner to collect the needs of the learners, s/he has to opt for data collection after having assigned placement and diagnostic tests (see Appendix B-C). Data collection has usually been conducted via several tools or devices which can be quantitative, qualitative or a triangulation of both. In this lecture, the most common types of data acquisition will be highlighted, chiefly; questionnaire surveys. To provide coherence between lectures, TSA, LSA and PSA will be taken into account during instruments design (both quantitative and qualitative) in order to make sure that learners have well grasped the three said situations through in-class evaluation in the end of the each lecture.

1. Quantitative Data

Quantitative data collection is mainly coined with questionnaire surveys for they provide the ESP practitioner with numbers and figures. Quantitative data are concerned as the most common used tool to gather data from learners because it is considered as easy to analyse,

more comforting to respondents and simple to verify. It is quantifiable information that can be used for mathematical calculation and statistical analysis.

2.1. Questionnaire

Zikmund (2000, p. 60) states that the task of writing questionnaires, determining the list of questions, and designing the exact format of the printed or written questionnaire is an essential aspect of the development of a survey research design. A more suitable method of gathering information among a large number of people is the questionnaire. Questionnaire methods are based on a set of questions or statements presented to a learner in a written form. This method is conducted on a less personal level than an interview. However, it can be conducted with a large number of people at the same time. For this reason, it is the most widely used tool in social research as it can provide a very efficient method for the collection of data from large numbers of people.

2.1.1. Advantages of questionnaires. Using a questionnaire for conducting a survey has the following advantages:

. Simplicity

- In handling large sample sizes or large geographic areas;
- Data entry and tabulation can be easily achieved with many computer software packages (SPSS);
- Most people are familiar with questionnaires.

. Cost effectiveness

- The number of questions is increased compared to face-to-face interviews.

. Reliability

- Questionnaires reduce bias as uniform questions are presented;
- Questionnaires are less intrusive than face-to-face surveys;
- The research instrument does not interrupt the respondents.

2.1.2. Disadvantages of questionnaires. There are disadvantages to using questionnaires for gathering information (Miller &Brewere, 2003). These include:

- The inability to explore responses;
- Questionnaires are structured instruments;
- Little flexibility for the respondent with respect to the response format;
- Not using visual communication;
- Lack of personal contact may have an impact on sensitive issues.

Notwithstanding the fact that questionnaires do have substantial advantages, they nonetheless suffer from some pitfalls such as low responses rate, high rates of missing data, inability to rectify respondents' misunderstandings, inability to adapt questions and their wording to respondents' individual needs and styles, inability to probe complex issues in depth (Waltz et al 2010, p. 308).

2.1.3. Pilot-testing the questionnaire. Most researchers agree upon the fact that all data gathering instruments should be piloted to evaluate the quality of the data collection tool while it can still be revised and improved before it is used with the actual subjects in the research or class learners. Piloting the questionnaire aims at testing how long it takes respondents to complete them, and whether all questions are clear and understood by the respondents. The information the researcher (ESP practitioner) collects by means of a pilot test is of two types. The first relates to practical aspects of administering the instrument, for example, the time needed to administer the questionnaire. The second relates to the reliability and validity of the instrument. This information is then used to revise the data collection procedure, that is, to remove and/or modify items, to extend or shorten the administration time, and/or to clarify some of the tasks. It may sometimes be necessary to pilot the procedure again.

2.2. Principles of Questionnaire Construction

Borgatti (1998) has provided detailed and revised principles of questionnaire construction and structure as follows:

Target the vocabulary and grammar to the population be surveyed.

- For studies within a specific organization, use the jargon used in that organization.
- Be careful to avoid language that is familiar to you, but might not be to your respondents. Avoid unnecessary abbreviations.

Avoid ambiguity, confusion, and vagueness.

- Avoid indefinite words or response categories. For example, "Do you read regularly?" What does "regularly" mean?

Avoid emotional language and leading questions

- Watch for prestige markers that cue the respondent to give the "right" answer. For example, the question "Most linguists say that high motivation boosts learning proficiency. Do you agree", tends to provoke "yes" answers because learners trust linguists and researchers.
- Avoid leading questions like "You don't like reading activities, do you?"

- Avoid loading questions with extra adjectives and adverbs, like "Should the teacher spend even more physical effort trying to keep the learners level in top status?"

Avoid double-barrelled questions

- Make each question about one and only one topic. For example, don't ask "Do you need spoken and written language? It's confusing if learners need spoken or written.

Avoid answer format that does not match the questions:

Question like is English important in your workplace? And then give answer options like: a lot, a little, not much

Avoid bias and value judgment to questions:

Questions like do you prefer a student-centered approach or a teacher- dominated one?

Avoid irrelevant questions:

Questions like what qualifications you prefer your teacher to have?

Avoid questions and answers that students may not understand (technical terms) and they are not familiar with such as mind-mapping, Competency based approach, attention span…etc.

Avoid answers to questions that you may not fulfill yourself such as: how much tutoring do you think you should have with the teacher?

Open-ended versus Closed-ended Questions

An open ended question is one in which you do not provide any standard answers to choose from. For example, these are all open-ended questions:

1. How old are you? _____
2. What do you like best about your job?

Closed-Ended Questions

A closed-ended question is one in which you provide the response categories, and the respondent just chooses one:

1. How old are you?
    (a) 12 - 15 years old
    (b) 16 - 25 years old
    (c) 26 - 35 years old
    (d) 36 - 45 years old
    (e) practically dead
2. What do you like best about your job?
    (a) The people

(b) The diversity of skills you need to do it

(c) The pay and/or benefits

(d) Other: _____

Watch out for overlapping response categories

This question:

1. What is your annual income?
2. a. Less than 1000000 Da
3. b. 1000000 Da to 25000000 Da
4. c. 25000000 Da to 35000000 Da
5. d. 35000000 Da to 50000000 Da
6. e. More than 50000000

If the respondents' income is exactly 25000000, which category do they use?

Avoid asking questions beyond a respondent's capabilities

- People have cognitive limitations, especially when it comes to memory of past events. Asking "how did you do in the first English exam in secondary school" is probably useless.

Avoid false premises

- Asking "What is the most important thing we should do stop the learners' level from degradation any further?" assumes that the level is lowering, which the respondent may not agree with. This puts the respondent in a tough spot. It would be better to rephrase as "What is the most important action done to improve the learners' level in English".

Avoid asking about future intentions (if you can)

- Hypothetical questions like "If you become a teacher, will you support your poor learners?" are notoriously unrelated to actual future behavior.

Avoid negatives and especially double negatives

- Negatives like "Students should not be required to take a comprehensive exam to graduate" are often difficult for many respondents to process, especially if they agree with the predicate, because then they are disagreeing with *not* doing something, which is confusing!
- Double negatives like "It is not a good idea to not turn in homework on time" yield very unreliable data because people are unsure about whether to put a "yes" or "no" even if it is clear in their minds whether turning homework in on time is a good idea.

Before administering a questionnaire and prior to the above-mentioned rules, the ESP teacher should get the learners to know about the questionnaire content, purpose, objectives and expectations by the end of the course. The introduction should be no more than three or four sentences or a short paragraph at most.

Conclusion

Data collection is a mechanism of gathering information from several sources in order to solve a problem, answer a question or test an assumed hypothesis. There exist numerous data collection tools which are considered as primary, such as questionnaire survey. The latter is viewed as the most commonly deployed instrument for it provides a certain quantity, amount or counts. It can be quantified and verified and it is also amenable to statistical manipulation. Quantitative data enjoys a high status due to its uncountable advantages. Yet, gathering information through, solely, this tool is not flawless and suffers from loads of pitfalls. This deficiency could be remedied by resorting to other data gathering tools which will be presented in the subsequent lecture.

Ungraded Assignments

1. Your net pal Aja from Singapore has designed a questionnaire for a new ESP group. Below are the introduction and the questions structured. Aja has emailed you to get your feedback.

Write **FINE** if you find the introduction or any question appropriate.

Introduction

I am Aja Calibali; your ESP teacher. I majored in TESOL but I am specialized in English for Business and Economics. I am motivated, dynamic and friendly. I hope you will enjoy the course with me**.** The following are some interview questions:

………………………………………………………………………………………………
………………………………………………………………………………………………
……………………………………

1. How old are you?

22-28 ☐   28-32 ☐   32-40 ☐   Over 40 ☐

……………………………………………………………………………………………

2. What is your learning strategy?

Cognitive ☐   meta-cognitive ☐

……………………………………………………………………………………………

3. CLT has proved to be an effective teaching method for it fosters learners' motivation, do you agree?

Yes ☐   No ☐

……………………………………………………………………………………………………

4. In September 2015, how often will you attend the British Council workshops?

Rarely ☐   Often ☐   Very often ☐

5. How much English do you use outside the classroom?

……………………………………………………………………………………………………

6. Which of the constraints you encounter when reading?

Neighbours' noise ☐   children's mischief ☐   spouse nagging ☐

……………………………………………………………………………………………………

7. Did you have a good experience with your English teacher at the middle school?

Yes ☐   No ☐
……………………………………………………………………………………………………

8. Does your teacher show competence in teaching English?
Yes ☐   No ☐

……………………………………………………………………………………………………

9. Do you encourage ESP researchers to follow Munby's Model?
Yes ☐   No ☐

……………………………………………………………………………………………………

10. Do you usually use things you learnt out of class?

Yes ☐   No ☐

……………………………………………………………………………………………………

11. What is your current course of study?..

12. How often do you have difficulty with each of the following skills?
Listening ☐   speaking ☐   reading ☐   writing ☐

……………………………………………………………………………………………………

13. If we would like more information from you, would you be prepared to be interviewed?
Once a week ☐   twice a week ☐

……………………………………………………………………………………………………

14. Is your attention span long?

Short ☐   Long ☐

……………………………………………………………………………………………………

15. Do you need vocabulary written on the board and pronounced by the teacher?

……………………………………………………………………………………………………

16. What do you think of the mindmapping thought?

……………………………………………………………………………………………………

17. What is the most important thing we should do stop the learners' level from

degradation any further?..

18. It is not preferable not to use only one teaching method, isn'it?...........................

19. Do you prefer male or female teacher? Male ☐   Female ☐

……………………………………………………………………………………………………

20. Do you have any comments or suggestions…………………………………………

2. Decide which question in the following questionnaire represents PSA, LSA or TSA

1-What is your current occupation?

Manager ☐

Assistant ☐

2-What is your educational level?

- Primary school level ☐
- Middle school level ☐
- Secondary school level ☐
- University level ☐
- Did not go to school at all ☐

3-Did you study English before?

Yes ☐   No ☐

4- If yes; where?

- Public school ☐

- University ☐
- Language centre ☐
- Home ☐
- abroad ☐

5-How long did you study English?

• Primary school	………….year(s)
• Middle school	………….year(s)
• Secondary school	………….year(s)
• University	………….year(s)
• Language centre	
• Home	
• abroad	

6- In which of the following situations you will need of English

1.Talking to people at international fairs	
2.Participating in business meetings	
3.Discussing business issues in informal settings (Business lunch/ dinner)	
4.Negotiating/ Bargaining price with suppliers or partners	
5.Speaking on the phone to discuss business matters	
6.Listening to people talking and understanding them	
7.Running business transactions at the bank	

7- Which skill or language component you find the most difficult?

Listening ☐   speaking ☐

Reading ☐   writing ☐

Grammar ☐   lexis ☐

8- What kind of materials do you prefer using for learning?
a- Textbooks   b-Tapes
c- CDs   d-Dictionaries
e- Translation CDs   f- Web sites
g- All of them   i-Others………………………

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Lecture Four

Qualitative Data Collection Tools

Description	In addition to quantitative data collection instruments manifested in the previous lecture, this lecture is devoted to qualitative data acquisition which comprises chiefly, focus group discussion, interviews, observations and diaries. Elaboration of further details will be better manifested in class assignments.
Objectives	By the end of the lecture, students are supposed to be able to: 1. Make the difference between qualitative data instruments 2. Depict the common features between observation and diary 3. Depict the common features between interview and focus group 4. Know what characterizes structured and unstructured tool.
Potential Difficulties	Students may not grasp the difference between structured and unstructured diary and observation
Prospective Solutions	An example of a medical doctor's daily routine in his clinic will be given for both diary types. 1) A checklist for Target Situation difficulties as a structured diary; however, b) the doctor can jot down any challenge encountered in his work place (TS) and this is an open ended or unstructured diary. For structured observations, a checklist will be provided as an example in order to observe the teacher giving a corrective feedback for instance either negative or positive. Yet, observing the teacher's attitude towards the learners' mistakes can be unstructured observation.

Introduction

In addition to quantitative data collection tools which was illustrated in the previous lecture mainly in terms of questionnaire survey, in this lecture the rest of data acquisition instruments are presented, chiefly interviews, diaries, focus group discussions and observations. The lecture highlights the general features of each tool since it will be tackled in details subsequently in the following academic year.

2.3. Qualitative Data

Unlike quantitative data which deal with quantity and numbers, qualitative data can be observed and recorded, it generally approximates and characterizes. It also defines and explains. Qualitative data is usually opted for in order to classify a group of people or objects, draw a conclusion about behaviour, interpret a phenomenon…etc. in this lecture, we will shed light on the most famous qualitative data collection instruments which are; focus group discussion, interview, diary and observation.

2.3.1. Focus group discussion (FGD). A focus group consists of a small group of people usually between eight and twelve in number, who are brought together by the researcher to explore attitudes and perceptions, feelings and ideas about a topic (Denscombe, 1998, p.115). According to De Vos (1998, p. 313) the researcher uses the focus group discussion as a means to elicit information from participants. The focus group discussion is according to Witkin & Alschuld (1995, p.171) "a structured process of interviewing a small group of individuals. Obtaining consensus is not a goal. Rather, it is to elicit how the participants feel about the topic and how to identify the range of perspectives regarding it".

Focus group discussions can excite contributions from interviewees who might otherwise be reluctant to contribute and through their relatively informal interchanges, focus groups can lead to insights that might not have come to light through the one-to-one conventional interview.

2.3.1.1. Advantages of FGD. The following summaries the most common FGD advantages:

- Focus groups discussions allow the researcher to observe a process that is often of profound importance to the qualitative investigation namely interaction.
- Focus group discussions allow researchers to access the substantive content of verbally expressed views, opinions, experiences and attitudes.
- Focus group discussions provide a means accessing intentionally created conversations about research topics.
- Focus group discussions are low on cost and provide speedy results. Kruger (1994, p.38)
- Focus group format is flexible in that it allows the researcher to write down problems in order to understand the research questions so as to ensure clarity and to allow the participants in their own situation to reconstruct their experiences.

2.4. Interview

There are three kinds of interviews: structured, semi-structured and unstructured. Structured interviews are essentially face-to face surveys where mainly closed questions are asked (online, telephone or live) against coded responses. Unstructured interviews are interviews where the researcher guides naturally occurring conversations. Semi-structured interviews are so-called because the interview is structured around a set of themes which serve as a guide to facilitate interview talk. "Unlike the structured interview, the interviewer is expected to adapt,

modify and add to the prepared questions if the flow of the interview talk suggests it" (Cousin, 2008, pp.71-72).

According to Best and Kahn (1986, p.186) interview is in a sense an oral questionnaire. Instead of writing the response, the interviewee gives the needed information orally and face-to-face. They contend that interview is often superior to other data-gathering devices for people are usually more willing to talk than to write.

According to Denscombe (1998, p.109) interviews involve a set of assumptions and understanding about the situation, which are not normally associated with a casual conversation. This simply entails that the research interview does not happen by chance or at the whim of one of the parties, it is dedicated to investigating a given topic. The flow of the discussions is rarely a free form; it is normally monitored and follows an agenda set by the researcher. Formal interviews may be necessary if the researcher needs to establish some information or to evaluate an outcome. Interviews can help the researcher get richer feedback as a result of being able to probe further.

In interviews, individuals are asked specific questions but allowed to answer in their own way. Slavin (1992, p.86) notes that in an interview, respondents can be asked to clarify or expand their responses making the data from an interview potentially richer and more complete than which can be obtained from a questionnaire.

2.4.1. Collecting the qualitative data via interview. One might ask, since the questionnaire is an instrument for data collection, why are interviews also conducted? Actually, there are numerous answers to this question, and we shall review just some of them. According to Robson (2002, p.272) the interview is a flexible and adaptable way of finding things out. Also, interviewing provides the researcher with greater flexibility and personal control than do questionnaires. For instance, a respondent who finds the phrasing of an interview question unclear can ask the interviewer to explain the question- a kind of help rarely available with questionnaires- (Thomas 2003, p.66). Furthermore, Slavin (1992, p.86) puts forward that in interviews, respondents can be asked to clarify or expand their responses making the data from an interview potentially richer and more complete than data which can be obtained from a questionnaire.

It is generally presumed that questionnaires are more efficient where time and money are concerned and that they can be completed and returned in almost the same amount of time

needed to complete a single interview. Yet, the present study comes to show that respondents welcomed interviews better than questionnaires.

We believe that the primary difference between interviews and questionnaires is the fact that an interview is oral whereas the questionnaire is written. Respondents felt more comfortable during interviews, they were willing to share information generously because anonymity is assured, which is not the case with questionnaires where the first name was asked for.

2.4.2. Developing the interview protocol. An interview consists of a one-on-one interaction between the data gatherer and the participant (interviewee). Interviews can be conducted face to face or by telephone and can last from a few minutes to an hour or longer, depending on the depth of information needed. Interviews are useful for gathering information about perceptions, attitudes, and intended actions or application of learning and can be used to gather such data from any group of stakeholders.

The interview protocol (list of questions) seeks answers to questions that are similar to those on a written questionnaire, while providing the opportunity to gather richer and more detailed responses, probe for further information, and clarify any confusing issues. Interview questions for this research did not substantially differ from those of the questionnaire (see appendix). The interview protocol was funneled, i.e., the interview started with general and easy-to-answer questions and concluded with narrower and specific ones. And factual questions were asked before behaviourr-based questions.

2.4.2.1. Interviews types. There are three kinds of interview: structured, semi-structured and unstructured. Structured interviews are essentially face-to face surveys where mainly closed questions are asked (online, telephone or live) against coded responses. Unstructured interviews are interviews where the researcher guides naturally occurring conversations. Semi-structured interviews are so-called because the interview is structured around a set of themes which serve as a guide to facilitate interview talk. Unlike the structured interview, the interviewer is expected to adapt, modify and add to the prepared questions if the flow of the interview talk suggests it (Cousin 2008, pp.71-72).

2.4.2.2. Interviewing techniques and tips. Anderson and Arsenault (1998, p.185) provide some tips and techniques useful to an interviewer while asking questions. They highlight the fact that **a)** combining two or more questions (double-barreling) is, in effect, to

be avoided; only one question is asked at a time, **b)** also combining two opposite positions in one question is also undesirable; every question has to be posed separately, **c)** avoidance of questions that may eliminate some options, **d)** eschewing the questions followed by a position statement; the interviewee might be led in a given direction and finally **e)** a choice of loaded words rather than emotionally charged terms.

2.5. Diary

Diaries are, by definition, usually private documents whose function is to record private thoughts and interpretations (Gibson & Brown 2009, p. 76)

Diaries are frequently used as a means of generating data, rather than as gathering existing accounts, i.e. as analytically focused forms. One of the most common approaches to diary research is to invite participants to keep diaries that record particular events.

Diary research can, like all forms of primary data collection, be either prestructured or open. In its prestructured form, diary research involves specifying the types of data that are relevant. For example, researchers exploring the ways that family and friendship groups are used as resourses for coping with terminal illness may ask patients undergoing treatment to keep diaries that record their daily lives and the practical and emotional role that the family plays in their treatment (ibid, p. 77)

Over the last several countries, diary keeping has evolved into a popular medium through which diarists can bear witness to their experiences and the events of the world. ESP researchers have noted how the diary resides in the personal life space, uniquely balancing "between the spontaneity of reportage and the reflectiveness of crafted text, between selfhood and events, between subjectivity and objectivity, between the private and the public. Hyers (2018, p.1)

Thomas (2003) has distinguished between two main types of diaries as follows:

2.5.1. Structured diaries. Provide an analytically focused data-gathering instrument that enables the researcher to collect data on very specific features.

2.5.2. Unstructured diaries. Enable researchers to discover things of interest about the life of a person or group of people. Designing diary research involves thinking through the relation between these two forms of data for the particular research project. With unstructured diaries, the aim is usually to iteratively develop the themes of analysis from the data, rather than pre-specifying them. The flexibility of the format means that researchers may discover thematic relevancies that could have been overlooked with the use of predefined structures. In

diary research, researchers may use an analysis of unstructured content to create a more focused data-generation method or strategy. (pp. 110-112)

The dilemma in deciding on the level of structure in diary research is the same as that faced with any primary data collection method (such as obsevations, interviews or focus groups) : too much structure may limit the iterative development of ideas, but too little may hinder the comparability or coherence of data (Gibson & Brown 2009, p.78)

It is important to remember, though, that these are not necessarily mutually exclusive forms as: unstructured forms can lead on to using structured forms and the latter can include unstructured sections

2.5.3. Advantages and limitations of diaries. At their best, diaries can be fantastic way of generating detailed data at regular intervals. Unlike interviews, which usually occur only once or on a small number of occasions, diary data can be gathered over a much longer timeframe. Diaries also can be quite empowering methods for ESP learners, who are able to use and develop their own voice more easily than they can in interview settings. However, the success of the method very much relies on the comfort and the level that the participants have with the written form. ESP practitioners who suspect that diaries might be problematic wish to use devices such as audio/video recorders as a means of capturing data. They believe that such forms might be richer than the written diary. (Gibson & Brown , Opcit.)

Building on early approaches to diary-based data collection, process research allows systematic investigation of development. Early diary data collection was not systematic in terms of time largs between observations and was notstandarised in terms of what was observed, how the data were collected (e.g. written notes) (Laursen et.al , p.181)

the regular recordings of observations in a diary format by botanists, farmers, hunters, explorers, and astronomers has served practical purposes, and was easily taken into the purview of modern positivist science. Hyers (2018, p.1)

2.6. Observation

Observation is a technique for collecting all the data of acquiring information through occurrences that can be observed through senses with or without mechanical devices. In ESP context, there is a two part process to collect data; which includes observer (the ESP practitioner who is observing) and the observed (something or someone to observe)

2.6.1. Uses of observation method. According to (Sharma, 2014), observation as a method of data collection is used in the following situations:

1. To understand an ongoing process or situation: through observation, a process or situation can be monitored and evaluated as it occurs at a particular time. For example, the practitioner wants to assess the performance of the medical doctor during a meeting with colleagues in the hospital.

2. To gather data on individual behaviours or interactions between people: observation allows researchers to watch peoples' behaviours and interactions directly, or watch for the results of behaviours or interactions. For example, how medical doctors respond to agitated patients in emergency setting.

3. To know about physical setting: observing the environment or place where something happens can facilitate increased understanding of the activity, event, or situation that the practitioner is evaluating. For example, the observer can assess whether the hospital setting and equipments can be conductive to learning.

4. Data collection where other methods are not possible: if respondents are unable to provide data through questionnaires or interviews or unwilling to do so, observation is a process that needs little from the individuals for whom data are required. For example: the ESP practitioner is investigating the factors that increase or reduce the medical doctor's anxiety while talking in meeting to his/her colleagues. In this situation, only observation can be useful in this case in order to assess facial expressions and non-verbal behaviours of the participants. (p.268)

2.6.2. Types of observation. There are a number of different approaches to observational research. One important distinction is between systematic (more-structure) observation and ethnographic (unstructured) observation

2.6.2.1. More structured. The aim of more-structured observation has been to emulate, to one degree or another, the approaches and procedures of natural sciences. The aim of more-structured observation, then, is to produce accurate quantitative data on particular pre-specified observable behaviours or patterns of interaction. It may be used to describe patterns of behaviour among a particular population or in a particular setting. The essential

characteristic of more-structured observation is that the purposes of the observation, the categories of behaviour to be observed and the methods by which instances of behaviour are to be allocated to categories, are worked out, and clearly defined, before the data collection begins. (Gibson & Brown 2009, p.62)

2.6.2.2. Less structured observation. The origins of less-structured observation lie in anthropology and in the application of its ethnographic approach to the study of communities and groups in industrialized societies. Research in this tradition has stressed that, to understand human behaviour, we need to explore the social meanings that underpin it. It has emphasized studying the perspectives of social actors-their ideas, attitudes, motives and intentions, and the way they interpret the social world- as well as observation of behaviour in natural situations and in its cultural context. (ibid, pp.62-63)

Robson (2002) adds that less-structured observation aims to produce detailed, qualitative descriptions of human behaviour that illuminate social meanings and shared culture. These data are combined with information from conversations, interviews and, where appropriate, documentary sources to produce an in-depth and rounded picture of the culture of the group, which places the perspectives of group members as its heart and reflects the richness and complexity of their social world. Less-structured observation is characterized by flexibility and a minimum of prestructuring. This does not mean that the observer begins data collection with no aims and no idea of what to observe, but there is a commitment to approach observation with a relatively open mind, to minimize the influence of the observer's preconceptions and to avoid imposing existing preconceived categories.

To some extent, the dicision of the two approaches is rather articifitial. In practice, researchers often use a combination of approaches. Sometimes research which adopts more-structured observations as its main method may begin with a period of less-structured observation. It is also quite common for research which employs ethnographic approach to utilize more-structured observational methods at some stage. This may happen when the researcher requires quantitative data on particular forms of behaviour. (Gibson & Brown 2009, p.63)

2.6.3. Advantages of observation. Observation as a research method has a number of clear advantages over interviews and questionnaires.

> 1. Information about physical environment and human behaviour
>   can be recorded directly by the researcher (ESP practitioner)

without having to rely on the retrospective or anticipatory accounts of others.

2. The observer may be able to "see" what participants cannot. Many important Features of the environment and behaviour are taken for granted by participants and may therefore be difficult for them to describe. Moreover, important patterns and regularities in the environment and behaviour may only be revealed by careful, planned observation by a researcher over a period of time.

3. Observation can provide information on the environment and behaviour of those who cannot speak for themselves and therefore cannot take part in interviews or complete questionnaires due to introversions, shyness, anxiety…etc.

4. Data from observation can be a useful check on, and supplement to, information obtained from other sources. So, for example, the information given by people about their behaviour in interviews can be compared with observation of samples of their actual behaviour. (Sapsford 2006, p. 58)

2.6.3.1. Limitations. The environment, event or behaviour of interest may be inaccessible and observation may simply be impossible. This may be because

a. The social norms surrounding the event or behaviour do not usually permit observation,

b. Because the event or bahaviours occurs rarely or irregularly,

c. Because the observer is barred from access to the event or behaviour or,

d. Because the event or behaviour happened in the past. Sometimes events and behaviours are just not open to observation (ibid, p.59)

Conclusion

Although quantitative data collection has gained much interest from ESP teachers, it remains limited as it cannot gather, in many cases, exhaustive information needed from the respondents. The dissatisfaction with the quantitative results led to the shift toward the qualitative data. In human sciences, quantitative data failed to capture the essence of the human being by neglecting feelings, perceptions, attitudes, and desires…etc. qualitative approach aims at understanding the social reality of individuals. Qualitative researchers use a

variety of methods to develop deep understandings of how people perceive their social realities and in consequence and how they act within the social world. For example, focus group discussion, participant observation, diary accounts, open-ended questionnaires and unstructured interviews.

Ungraded Assignments

<u>1</u>. Name the type of the following interview protocol. Justify your answer

1. Would you let me know your age and rank?

2. For how long have you been working at this position?

    0- 5years   ☐   6-9 years ☐   more than 9 years ☐

3. How do you perceive the role of English in your work place?

    Not important ☐   important ☐   very important ☐

4. Do all your job tasks require a language?

    Yes ☐   no   ☐   some of them   ☐

5. Which difficulties you usually face during your daily hands-on trainings?

6. Which language skills you think you need to improve most?

    Listening ☐ reading ☐ speaking ☐ writing ☐

2. Say, in your own words, the difference between each type of Diary and observation respectively:

Diary	**Pre-structured...**
	...
	Open...
	...
observation	**More structured...**
	...
	Less structured...
	...

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Lecture Five

Emergence of English for Specific Purposes

Description	This lecture demonstrates the main reasons behind the emergence of ESP as a branch of ELT. It also gives an overview about ESP most workable definitions according to various authors. It is attempted to cover a large area of ESP definitions from several sides.
Objectives	By the end of the lecture, students are supposed to be able to: 1. Find out the main reasons behind ESP emergence 2. Well understand what ESP is 3. Compare and contrast between definitions
Potential Difficulties	Students may get confused about the "variable" and "absolute" characteristics of ESP.
Prospective Solutions	For each characteristic, a real life case that can be known to students will be presented. Examples in assignments will help in better understanding.

Introduction

This lecture reviews the emergence of ESP due to three main reasons which are; a) the oil crisis, b) the shift in linguistic scope from structural to communicative trends and c) the focus on the learners and their needs for every course. ESP has been also defined according to its characteristics, either variable or absolute; and ESP researchers have approached it differently as displayed subsequently.

3. Emergence of ESP

The status of English as an international language which is essential in almost every area of activity is deeply rooted in the history of the world starting at the end of the Second World War which brought with it an «... age of enormous and unprecedented expansion in scientific, technical and economic activity on an international scale; for various reasons, most notably the economic power of the United States in the post-war world, the role [of international language] fell to English" Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p.6). Another reason of this language expanded importance was the Oil Crisis of the early 1970s which resulted in Western money and technology flowing into the oil-rich countries. The language of this technology is English.

It is worth mentioning here that the most significant event that made a remarkable turning point is the *linguistics revolution*. In other words, while traditional linguistics put a great emphasis on the language structure, a revolution broke out to focus on the language used as a means of communication not as an end itself. The general effect of all this development was to exert pressure on the language teaching profession to deliver the required goods. Whereas English had previously decided its own destiny, it now became subject to the wishes, needs and demands of people other than language teachers (ibid. p.7). In addition to the demands of a new world and a revolution in linguistics, the focus on the learners and their needs became paramount because General English courses no longer met learners' needs and wants. (ibid.)

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) point out that one significant discovery was in the ways that spoken and written English vary. In other words, given the particular context in which English is used, the variant of English will change. This idea was taken one step further; if language in different situations varies, then tailoring language instruction to meet the needs of learners in specific contexts is also possible. Therefore, in the late 1960s and the early 1970s there was a pressing need to introduce English for Specific Purposes (ESP).

ESP also comprises the largest representative of an international movement known as Languages for Specific Purposes (LSP) (Hinkel, 2005, p. 100). Robinson (1991) defined LSP as generally goal-oriented and based on needs analysis (NA), and it is frequently characterized by being constrained by time limits and designed for adult learners. Generally, NA is recognized to be a key feature of LSP (Davies & Elder, 2006)

The initial specific purposes were at that time directed to science and technology and English for Science and Technology (EST) deployed in language classrooms. Ewer and Latorre (1969), Swales (1971), Selinker and Trimble (1976, as cited in Hutchinson & Waters, 1987) were identified as a few of the prominent descriptive EST pioneers. It has been often noted that Swales' *Episodes in ESP* (Swales, 1988), which surveys the field from 1962 to 1981, concentrates exclusively on EST.

However, Basturkmen (2006, p.17) upholds the contention that all language is Specific Purpose, as he points out 'basic language is what is present in all varieties of English, where the varieties overlap. All languages are learned in some context or another'. In other words, languages learned are designed for particular purposes for the learners. Second or foreign language as a subject in schools has, usually, particular aims and goals such as how to make a

telephone call, how to describe an object or a person, how to write paragraphs, how to answer questions after listening to a verbal conversation…etc, though there is no particular situation targeted in this kind of language learning.

In this respect, ESP was an area of controversy as to what exactly ESP was. Even at present, a constant debate as to how to specify what exactly ESP constitutes still takes place (McDonough 1984; Anthony, 1997; Belcher, 2004; Dudley-Evan & St. John, 1998). McDonough (ibid.) states that the swift development of ESP as a necessity to learners and sponsors confined by limited time would lead to the impression that ESP is a separate movement with its particular jargon. Ewer1981 (as cited in McDonough, 1984, p.1) puts forward that: "… the terminology of ESP is now getting into such a confused and contradictory state that in my experience it is impossible to carry on a discussion about the subject with practitioners outside one's own work-group for more than a few minutes without misunderstandings arising from this source."

Flowerdew (1990, p.327) contends that the reason for ESP problems in establishing itself in a clearly defined area within English Language Teaching (ELT) in general 'is that many of the ideas closely associated with ESP have been subsequently appropriated by the 'parent' discipline'. He refers to functional/notional syllabuses, for example, which have been adopted into the mainstream of language teaching. He also includes the example of NA which traditionally distinguished ESP courses from General English course design. McDonough (op.cit., p. 1) comments afterwards that it is not just ESP which is seen as a separate branch of ELT, he asseverates that the so-labelled English as a Foreign Language (EFL), English as a Second Language (ESL), Language for Specific Purposes (LSP), Foreign Language Teaching (FLT) and Mother Tongue Teaching (MTT) which are assumed as branches of ELT would tend to take place in a vacuum. By this, he reaches the conclusion that ESP is still part and parcel of EFL.

3.1. Thorough Definition of ESP

Strevens (1988, pp. 1-2) attempts to define ESP by making a distinction between four absolute and two variable characteristics:

- Absolute Characteristics

ESP consists of ELT which is:

- designed to meet specified needs of the learner;
- related in content (i.e., in its themes and topics) to particular disciplines, occupations and activities;

- centred on the language appropriate to those activities in syntax, lexis, discourse, semantics, etc., and analysis of this discourse;
- In contrast with General English.

  - Variable Characteristics

  ESP may be, but is not necessarily:

- restricted to the language skills to be learned (e.g. reading only);
- Not taught according to any pre-ordained methodology.

  A slight modification of ESP has been offered by Dudley-Evans (1997) at the Japan Conference on ESP. The definition has been extended by St. John (1998) in terms of absolute and variable characteristics. In terms of absolute characteristics, Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998, pp. 4-5) state that:

  - Absolute Characteristics

- ESP is defined to meet specific needs of the learner;
- ESP makes use of the underlying methodology and activities of the discipline it serves;
- ESP is centred on the language (grammar, lexis, and register), skills, discourse and genres appropriate to these activities.

  - Variable Characteristics

- ESP may be related to or designed for specific disciplines;
- ESP may use, in specific teaching situations, a different methodology from that of General English;
- ESP is likely to be designed for adult learners, either at a tertiary level institution or in a professional work situation. It could, however, be for learners at secondary school level;
- ESP is generally designed for intermediate or advanced students;
- Most ESP courses assume some basic knowledge of the language system, but it can be used with beginners.

  3.1.1. ESP definition revisited. In the revisited definition of ESP by Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998), the expression, *'ESP is in contrast with General English'* has been removed under absolute characteristics whereas another variable characteristics has been inserted. They state that ESP is not necessarily related to a specific discipline or field of study which adopts a teaching methodology different from that of General English teaching. They further add that ESP is assumedly used with adult learners although it could be used also with young adults in a secondary school setting.

Widdowson, 1983 (as cited in Dudley-Evan & St. John, 1998, p.1) also argues that 'methodology has generally been neglected in ESP'. What is an acknowledged fact is that any ESP course should be needs-driven, and have an emphasis on practical outcomes? NA is 'the corner stone of ESP and leads to a very focused course.' (ibid., p.122). Methodology in ESP teaching, according to Dudley-Evans and St. John, refers to the nature of the interaction between the ESP teacher and the learners. They put forward: "In more general ESP classes, the interaction may be similar to that in a General Purpose English class; in the more specific ESP classes; however, the teacher sometimes becomes more like a language consultant, enjoying equal status with the learners who have their own expertise in the subject matter (ibid., p. 4)."

ESP methodology points out that all ESP teaching should reflect the methodology of the disciplines and professions it serves; and in more specific ESP teaching, the nature of the interaction between the teacher and learner may be very different from that in a General English class (ibid.). The present definition of ESP provided by Strevens and Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) -influenced by Strevens'- would, in particular, be very helpful in gaining a deeper insight into what is and what is not ESP and would also resolve the debate, posed then, on its nature."

To Dudley-Evans, ESP would be associated with a specific discipline, although it is not too often the case, nor is it concerned with a certain age group's aims or ability range. Hence, ESP has to be seen simply as an 'approach' to teaching, or what Dudley-Evans (1998) describes as an "attitude of mind."

Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) arrived at the same conclusion, regarding the nature of ESP, as did Hutchinson and Waters in (1987, p.19) who theorized that, "ESP is an approach to language teaching in which all decisions as to content and method are based on the learner's reason for learning." They add that, in theory ESP does not differ from a General English approach whereas in practice they differ a great deal.

At the time, General English teachers who assumed that their students had specific purposes for studying English would often carry no NA to meet those purposes and thus their so-called ESP courses turned out to be very far from what an ESP approach entailed. Yet, nowadays, teachers and course designers as well, have become more aware of the importance of NA procedure which will eventually lead to meeting learners' goals, and this would be

very apparent at every stage of the course design. Probably, what led to this evolution is the impact which the ESP approach introduction had on English teaching in general.

Notwithstanding this, the line between where General English courses stop and ESP courses start has become very fuzzy indeed. Anthony (1997), for example, notes that it still remains unclear where ESP courses begin and General English courses end. He adds that there has been a considerable on-going debate about what ESP means despite the fact that it is an approach rather than a product (Hutchinson & Waters 1987) which has been effectively put into practice over the last three decades.

Additionally, ESP courses, in terms of broad and narrow focus, have also been another area of controversy (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998, Flowerdew, 1990). It has been a matter of dispute whether ESP courses should focus on subject area content exclusively and on certain target situations or skills (narrow focus), or embark on covering a range of skills and target events (broad focus), perhaps even beyond the immediate perceived needs of the learners.

Carver (1983) identified this type of ESP as a restricted English language, he considered English for Academic and Occupational Purposes (EOP) and English with specific topics as other two types of ESP.

3.1.2. English as a restricted language. First, Perren 1974 (as cited in Mackay &Mountford, 1978, p.4) noted that the terms "*special language*" and *"specialized aim"* are confused although they refer to totally different notions. We can understand that the notion of "special language" is a restricted repertoire of words and expressions selected from the whole language because that restricted repertoire covers every requirement within a well-defined context, task or vocation (ibid.). Whereas, a "specialized aim" refers to the purpose for which learners learn a language, not the nature of the language they learn. An example of restricted language which was cited by Gatehouse (2001) was ATCs', and hotel waiters' language. Mackay and Mountford (1978, pp. 4-5)

"The language of international air-traffic control could be regarded as 'special', in the sense that the repertoire required by the controller is strictly limited and can be accurately determined situationally, as might be the linguistic needs of a dining-room waiter or air-hostess. However, such restricted repertoires are not languages, just as a tourist phrase book is not grammar. Knowing a restricted 'language' would not allow the speaker to communicate effectively in novel situations, or in contexts outside the vocational environment"

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The quotation above supports perfectly the problem of the present research as military aviators studying English phraseology are not expected to communicate effectively in real life and more importantly during counterattacks or missions in case of war. Yet, Kaur (2007) found that students were very happy with a narrow focus as they felt no time was wasted during their course. Now, the question that has to be addressed is: Do learners really desire a restricted area of language? One likely response is the one provided by Jasso-Aguilar (1999) who examined how perceived needs of hotel maids in a hotel in Waikiki failed to meet the expectations of the learners' themselves. Likewise, Stapa and Jais (2005) reported the failure of Malaysian University courses in Hotel Management and Tourism to meet the wants and needs of the students with a lack of skills and genres covered in their courses.

Conclusion

ESP goes through a distinct pattern of procedures. It is based on particular needs and it varies according to varying needs and learners. Usually ESP learners are adults whose aims and objectives behind learning are pre-planned. Consequently, they are exposed to a typical discourse which is expected to be found in specific situations. The achievement of learning objectives and the satisfaction of learning needs depend on carefully designed courses which focus on required proficiency development in particular communication skills.

Ungraded Assignments

> a) Explain how did the oil crisis help in the emergence of ESP
> b) What's the main difference between Steven's and Dudley-Evans' definition of ESP

2. Discuss whether, according to the definition of ESP, the following courses constitute ESP courses. Give reasons for your decision

a. A course in remedial grammar for business people, with each unit based on a particular grammatical weakness identified by tests.

b. A course that teaches undergraduate engineering students from various branches (civil, electrical, mechanical etc.) to write reports on design projects.

c. A course that teaches reading skills to a group of postgraduate students from a range of disciplines, studying in a British university. The texts used are of a general academic nature, but are exploited to teach specific reading skills.

d. A course designed to prepare students for the Cambridge FCE examination. The course is based on a careful analysis of the content of the test.

e. A course designed to teach social English to a group of business people. The level of the students' English is intermediate.

f. A course team-taught with a subject lecturer that helps postgraduates of a particular discipline understand departmental lectures.

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Lecture Six

Types of English for Specific Purposes

| Description	Whereas lecture five provides a thorough ESP definition, lecture six presents the types of ESP by following a chronological order of several researchers in ESP. A thorough illustration of what is not ESP is carefully demonstrated. Additionally, the difference between ESP and EGP is clearly stated.
Objectives	By the end of the lecture, students are supposed to be able to: 1. Distinguish EAP from EOP 2. Well divide ESP under ELT branch 3. Understand how and in which way ESP differs from EGP
Potential Difficulties	Learners may also find ESP classification quite puzzling as they may not recognize which comes first, ESP type or ESP specialty.
Prospective Solutions	For ESP divisions, an alternative classification will be deployed. i.e. instead of starting with EAP and EOP as the main divisions, we will begin by stating the most common ESP fields such as EBE, EMP, ELP…etc and then subdivide them into EAP and EOP. The latter can have EVP and EPP as a subdivision.

Introduction

ESP has traditionally been divided into two main areas, English for Academic Purposes and English for Occupational Purposes. As well as to this division, a useful division of courses according to when they take place took place later. Those distinctions are considered as important as they affect the degree of specificity that is appropriate to the course. Another division of ESP appeared later as English with specific topics and English as a restricted language which was initially known as Language for Specific Purposes (LSP).

3.2. English for Academic and Occupational Purposes

The common type of ESP, according to Carver (1983), is English for Academic and Occupational Purposes; he indicated that this English should be at the heart of ESP and ought not to undergo any further development. Furthermore, Hutchinson and Waters (1987) designed 'Tree of ELT' where ESP is broken down into three branches: a) English for Science and Technology (EST), b) English for Business and Economics (EBE), and c) English for Social Studies (ESS). Each of these subject areas is further divided into two branches: English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Occupational Purposes (EOP). An example of EOP for the EST branch is 'English for Technicians', whereas an example of EAP for the EST branch is 'English for Medical Studies'.

In their classification, Hutchinson and Waters (1987) do mention that there exists a separating line between EAP and EOP. The fact that people can work and study simultaneously was not taken into consideration. In addition to that, the language learnt in a teaching setting for academic purposes can be useful and employed eventually by the learner in the occupational environment. This would help in elucidating why EAP and EOP have been categorized under the same type of ESP.

Kennedy and Bolitho (1984) made a distinction between EOP and EAP where, on the one hand, occupational English is an umbrella term of pre-experience, simultaneous and post-experience settings and, on the other hand, academic English is subdivided to school subject English as a) independent and b) integrated course besides discipline-based English that distinguishes between a) pre-study and b) in-study as shown in the following figu
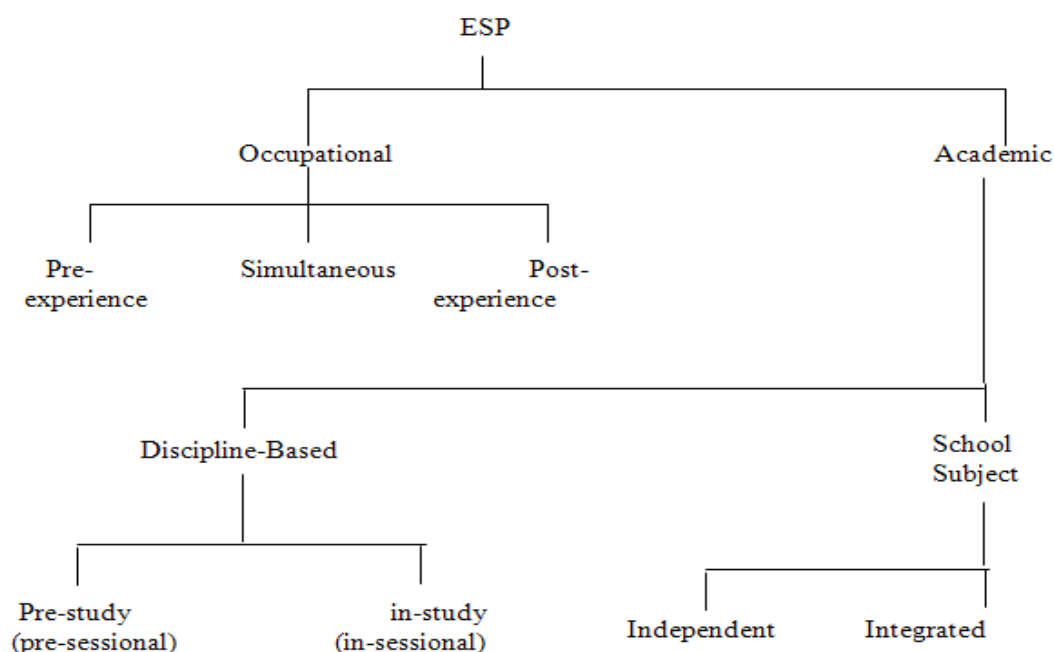

Figure **3.1.** Types of ESP (Adapted from Strevens 1977 as cited in Kennedy & Bolitho, 1984, p.5)

Yet, Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) tend to make a distinction between types of EAP as regards teaching materials. They state that EAP has often been divided into different specialism. The most important of these has been EST, but English for Medical Purposes (EMP), English for Legal Purposes (ELP) and English for Business and Economics (EBE) are

all course types for which teaching materials have been prepared. EAP shares a sub-domain status with EOP, which includes English language used by both professionals (e.g., in medicine, business, law) and by nonprofessional workers (in vocational contexts) Hinkel (2005, p.85).

   3.2.1. English with specific topics. The third and final type of ESP identified is English with specific topics. Carver notes that it is only here that emphasis shifts from purpose to topic. This type of ESP is uniquely concerned with the anticipated future English needs of, for example, scientists requiring English for postgraduate reading studies, attending conferences or working in foreign institutions. This type is, by no means, a separate type of ESP. Rather it is an integral component of ESP courses or programs which focus on situational language. The interpretation of results from NA of authentic language would determine the situational language within the workplace site. Carver's classification is better shown in Figure3.2 below:
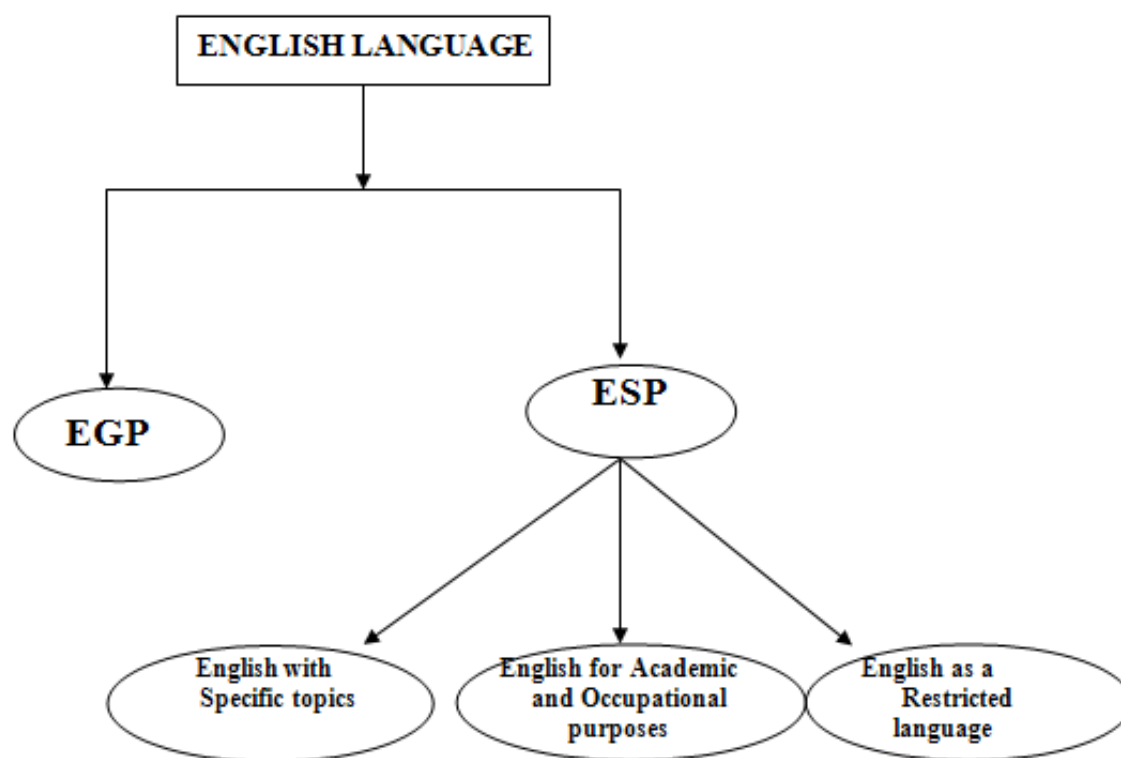

Figure *3.2.* Classification of ESP

   As an example, the rapid growth of Business English (BE) during 1990s was on the same level as that of EST in 1970s (Howard & Brown 1997, p. 49). In Britain, occupational ESP is generally what people mean when they speak of ESP. The target situation is linked to the

practice of an occupation, rather than to the acquisition of qualifications. BE courses are taught in academic settings in addition to one-to-one basis, in private language schools or in language centres in the universities (ibid.); occasionally, learners with a common need are taught in group. Business professionals, with common needs, join the same classroom for learning English in order to best use it in the classroom as well as in their workplace during their deals and transactions with other non-native businessmen by using English as lingua franca. This is what Dowling, Festing and Engle (2008, p.14) referred to as '*international English'*, explaining that "English is more '*international English'* than that spoken by native speakers of English"

The following figure, (Inspired from Howard & Brown 1997), represents ESP's status in Algeria.
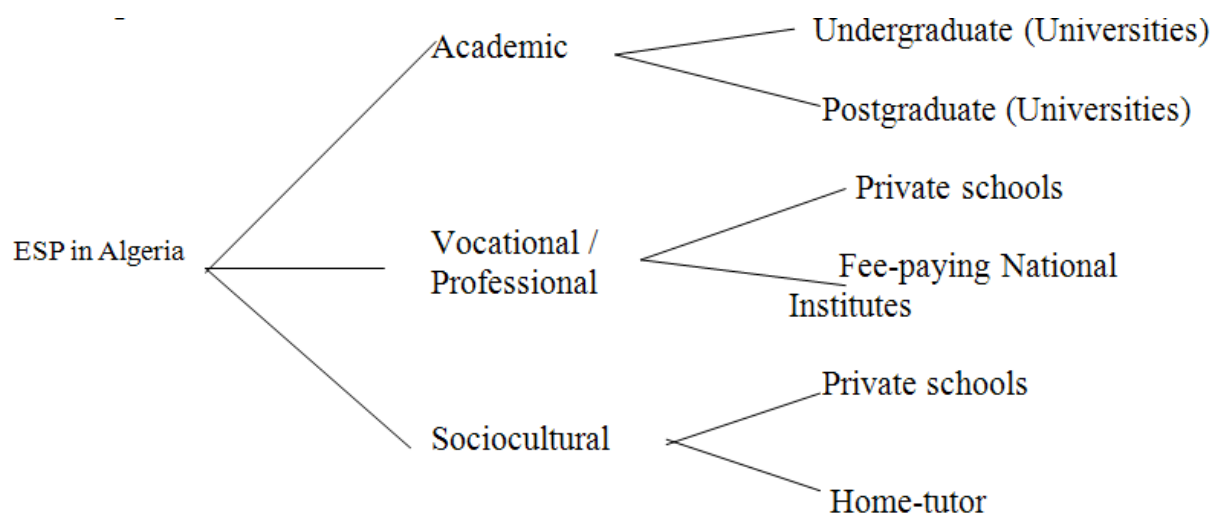
Figure *3.3.* ESP in Algeria

3.3. English for Specific Purposes and English for General Purposes

What are the differences between ESP and **English for General Purposes** (EGP)? Hutchinson & Waters (1987, p. 53) answer this quite simply: "in theory nothing, in practice a great deal." On the face of it, ESP differs from EGP in the sense that the words and sentences learned, the subject matter discussed, all relate to a particular field or discipline—for example, a lawyer writing a brief, or a diplomat preparing a policy paper. ESP courses make use of vocabulary and tasks related to the field such as negotiation skills and effective techniques for oral presentations. The entire program is designed to meet the specific professional or academic needs of the learner. A balance is created between educational theory and practical considerations. ESP also increases students' skills and confidence in using English.

A closer look at EGP and ESP is, however, vital. EGP is essentially the English language education in junior and senior high schools. Students are introduced to the sounds and symbols of English, as well as to the lexical /grammatical / rhetorical elements that compose spoken and written discourse. EGP also focuses on applications in general situations: appropriate dialogue with restaurant staff, bank tellers, postal clerks, telephone operators, English teachers, and party guests as well as lessons on how to read and/or write the English typically found in textbooks, newspaper and magazine articles, telephone books, shopping catalogues, application forms, personal letters, e-mail, and home pages. Supplementary information about appropriate gestures, cultural conventions, and cultural taboos is also normally included in EGP curricula. EGP conducted in English-speaking countries is typically called ESL, and EGP conducted in non-English-speaking countries is normally called EFL. Pedagogically, a solid understanding of basic EGP should precede higher-level instruction in ESP if ESP programs are to yield satisfactory results.

ESP, however, is research and instruction that builds on EGP and is designed to prepare students or working adults for the English used in ESP specific disciplines, vocations, or professions to accomplish specific purposes. ESP researchers have come to the conclusion that ESP is defined to meet specific needs of the learners. ESP makes use of methodology and activities of the discipline it serves, and is centered on the language appropriate to these activities. According to Hutchinson & Waters (1987, p.19), "ESP is an approach to language teaching in which all decisions as to content and method are based on the learner's reason for learning."

3.3.1. The relationship between ESP and EGP. The following are some important points about ESP classes and its comparison with EGP ones:

1. Learners and purposes of learning: ESP learners are usually adults who already have some familiarity with English language and they are learning the language in order to communicate a set of professional skills and to perform particular job-related functions.

In EGP classes; age of learners varies from children to adults and learning English language is the subject of the classes.

2. Based on purposes of learning, aims of instruction are identified. In an EGP class, as a general rule, the four skills are stressed equally. Yet, in ESP it is needs analysis that determines

which language skills are most needed by the students and the syllabus is designed accordingly. For example, in order to train a tourist guide, the ESP class should promote the development of the spoken skill. Another example, one who intends to work in a business administration should be trained to develop the reading skill.

3. In a typical ESP class, there is a focus on teaching grammar and language structures (mostly in isolation), however in ESP, the attention is given to context. To ESP, English is not taught as a subject separated from the student's real world wishes.

4. Combination of subject-matter (which learners are familiar with) with English language creates a meaningful context which is highly motivating. This meaningful context increases motivation that is a positive indication of a successful leaning.

5. Regarding the term "specific" in ESP, it should be noted that not only does it mean English for specific purposes, i.e. English language at service of specific purposes, but it also implies specific purposes for learning English. In other words, the study of English through a field that is already known and relevant to it. Therefore, learners are able to use what they learn in ESP classes right away in their work and studies. This means that ESP enables them to use the English they know to learn even more English.

All in all, ESP assesses and analyses needs and integrates motivation, subject-matter and content with the help of relevant language skills. To have a successful ESP class and track the connection of ESP and EGP in operational terms, the study focuses on touching upon the responsibilities of two important factors/variables which are teachers and learners.

Both 'General English' teachers and ESP practitioners are often required to design courses and provide materials. One of the main controversies in the field of ESP is how specific those materials should be. Hutchinson et al. (1987, p. 165) support materials that cover a wide range of fields, arguing that the grammatical structures, functions, discourse structures, skills, and strategies of different disciplines are identical. More recent research, however, has shown this not to be the case. Hansen (1988), for example, describes clear differences between

anthropology and sociology texts, and Anthony (1998) shows unique features of writing in the field of engineering. Unfortunately, with the exception of textbooks designed for major fields such as computer science and business studies, most tend to use topics from multiple disciplines, making much of the material redundant and perhaps even confusing the learner as to what is appropriate in the target field. Many ESP practitioners are therefore left with no alternative than to develop original materials. It is here that the ESP practitioner's role as 'researcher' is especially important, with results leading directly to appropriate materials for the classroom.

Conclusion

The origin of ESP and its development is closely linked with learners´ interest in various specific disciplines e.g. ´Law English´, ´English for Hotel Industry´ or ´English for Tourist Management´. The degree of proficiency in a foreign language varies according to the specific requirements and the teaching methodology.

ESP draws upon two major areas of knowledge: language, and the students' specialist areas of interest. At a narrow sense, this module has started by stating the origin of ESP, what is it, its emergence, its types and concepts were also clarified. Subsequently, the difference and relationship between EGP and ESP were also stated. The following module will tackle the development of ESP course through years and teaching/learning of skills related to the field of ESP

Ungraded Assignments

1. Decide which purpose the following disciplines need English for:

   Computer operator, student of business, account, biologist, mechanic, hostess, tourist guide , student of medicine, electronic engineer, electrician, waiter, secretary, lawyer, receptionist, cashier, computer scientist, sales manager, pilot.

English for Academic Purposes	English for Occupational Purposes	
	English for Professional Purposes	English for Vocational Purposes

2. Explain in which cases ESP becomes EGP

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Lecture Seven

ESP Course Development

Description	This lecture covers lot of ground as regards the history of ESP course development over years and the significance change ESP approaches underwent. Starting from the early 1960s with register analysis to arrive finally to learning centered approach in late 1980s, passing by discourse (rhetoric), TSA and skills-centered.
Objectives	By the end of the lecture, students are supposed to be able to: 1. Depict the characteristics of each ESP course phase. 2. Distinguish between the steps. 3. Connect the development phases to language description.
Potential Difficulties	Interrelatedness and overlap of ESP developmental stages, especially TSA and skills-centered may present a fuzzy image to students.
Prospective Solutions	The lecture will be delivered as one block in a form of a story in order to get students engaged in the events. A schema drawn on the board is one of the best methods to explain the intertwining facts.

Introduction

ESP has become, undoubtedly, a very active and feisty movement which has laid its own considerable influence over the field of Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) and Applied Linguistics. It should also be pointed out, first and foremost, that ESP is an approach rather than a product which does not involve a particular kind of language teaching material or methodology. From its beginning in 1960s, ESP has witnessed, however, five phases of development; the last one is considered as the most significant.

4.1. Register Analysis

Register analysis was the point of departure of ESP. It was greatly recognized that English grammatical and lexical features used, by way of example, in medicine differ from those used in business. Courses such as Herbert's '*The Structure of Technical English*' (1965) and Ewer and Lattore's 'Course in Basic Scientific English' (1969), who first adopted a grammatical approach, concentrated largely on tenses such as simple present and present perfect that register analysis has shown to be important in scientific and technical English (Malmkjær 2002, p. 643). Therefore, this led to the pressing need for pedagogical courses that are of use

to the learners' needs, that is to say, ESP course should thereby give much more importance to language forms that student may find relevant and less importance to forms that are seen less frequent. Among items which were viewed important then were, according to Ewer and Hughes- Davies 1971 (as cited in Jordan 1997, p. 229):

- Ing form replacing a relative;

- Words similar in form but with different meanings for the same function;

- Most prefixes and suffixes;

- Most structural and qualifying words and phrases;

- Compound nouns;

- The prepositional (two-part) verbs common in scientific English.

4.2. Rhetorical and Discourse Analysis

Moving a step further, from focusing on language at the sentence level, ESP has shifted attention to the level above the sentence (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p. 10). It was found out by mainly two prominent leaders, Allen and Widdowson, 1974 (as cited in Robinson, 1991, p. 24) that learners' difficulties stem, to a great extent, from their being unfamiliar with English use and thus they -Allen and Widdowson- focused on the conceptual paragraph rather than on the sentence, and on writer's purpose rather than on form. In fact, Allen and Widdowson (1974 onwards), based largely on functions and, more particularly, Bates and Dudley-Evans' Nucleus Series (1976) based on scientific notions or concepts, have both been influential courses (Malmkjaer, 2002, p. 539).

Rhetorical or discourse analysis shed much light on how sentences combine together in order to convey meaning within a discourse. In other words, whereas register analysis dwelled on the grammar of sentences, this group attended to paragraphs (Benesch, 2001). Moreover, rhetorical patterns differ along with various specialist areas of use, i.e. the rhetorical structure of business texts is looked on as different from that of medicine which is, in turn, regarded as different from that of engineering texts.

4.3. Target Situation Analysis (TSA)

After the failure of register analysis to meet desired outcomes, the third station of ESP journey is, however, considered as an identification of the target situation in which learners may be involved. The best known framework for TSA type of NA is formulated by Munby (1978) who introduced the Communicative Needs Processor (CNP). Chambers (1980) stresses that while initial NA can be the first step in any ESP course, TSA has to follow for a

more detailed analysis. Now, information about learners- in particular their level in English- have to be collected. Subsequently, the need of the learner has become the core of ESP course as it has been located on a crucial central position.

4. 4.Skills-Centered Approach

Before the arrival of ESP to its last station, it had to pass by a fundamental stage which looked neither to the sentence level nor beyond the sentence surface. It is, therefore, much more interested in the underlying thinking process of language use. In other words, the aim of such kind of approach is to enhance the learners' reading skill (Nuttall, 1982; Alderson & Urquhart, 1984). Those learners are required to read specialist texts available only in English. In fact, 'the principle idea behind the skills-centered approach is that underlying all language use there are common reasoning and interpreting processes which regardless to the surface forms, enable us to extract meaning from discourse'. (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987, p. 13)

4.5. Learning-Centered Approach

Finally, by looking at learning factors of how people learn, we should spotlight the area of language learning rather than language use, either of surface form or of underlying process. ESP was, at the outset, been guilty as regards language learning perspective. Over the years, there has been a considerable increase of focus on learning-centred approach; the interest of language use has been considered as an insufficient area of concern. Therefore, the understanding of the processes of language learning has become an up-to-date approach to ESP.

It is clearly stated, though implicitly, that the ultimate aim of ESP development is communication. We shall set out by defining communication which is the pivotal feature of the social and psychological make-up of an individual. As a people, human progress greatly depends upon learning to understand each other. This can be accomplished by 'interacting with each other to develop new ideas and solve problems' (Gamble & Gamble, 1999, p.4). All people, irrespective of occupation and level of responsibility, regularly practice communication. In this respect of human interaction, communication is a prerequisite of any activity.

Smeltzer and Leonard (1994, p.3) stated that "management communication is both challenging and exciting. It is challenging because organizations are becoming more and more complex, and many new forces confront the manager". However, communication challenges provide opportunities to frame strategies for effective communication. Therefore, in prevailing circumstances management leaders have a greater opportunity than before to

bring out a significant difference in the success of the organization and to improve the quality of work (ibid.).

4.6. Language versus Communication Skills

Language is the basic element for communication between human beings. Though paralanguage is also useful in communication, it can, by no means, be verbal or written as it takes place only face-to face. Whereas language is a vital means for conveying a message either orally (face-to –face or distant via telephone) or written (via board, letters, emails, faxes, etc).

Smeltzer and Leonard's (1994) conception of communication skills includes the ability to encode, decode, receive feedback, and adjust to noise. It was found out, according to them, that the best communication takes place when both sender and receiver are skilled communicators. Ellis (1992, pp.81-82) moves a step further and elaborates the concept as follows:

"Communicator and listener skill depend on linguistic and cognitive resources. A person in the role of a speaker must make lexical and syntactic choices that assist with differentiation among possible meanings, and a listener must incorporate the language of the speaker into his or her knowledge and cognitive resources to make decisions about meaning'.

It is worth mentioning that communication skills mainly include language skills, but are not similar albeit the difference between them is almost always taken for granted. Smeltzer and Leonard (op. cit., pp. 39-43) point out that communication skill is the overall ability of an individual to communicate for understanding. In addition, they examine six factors which, according to them, create unique individual filters and affect communication. They are knowledge, culture, status, attitude, emotion, and communication skills.

During communication, linguistic and non- linguistic skills (memory, recalling and comprehension abilities (Ellis, 1992) gather to contribute to decoding as well as encoding of a message in the communication process. Ellis (ibid., p.146) notes that highly skilled communicators are able to make intelligent decisions about their messages and control the communicative code well enough for successful outcomes.

Basically, there are four language skills: speaking, listening, reading, and writing. speaking and listening relate to language expressed through aural medium. Reading and writing are concerned with the visual medium. Speaking and writing are active or productive skills, but reading and listening are receptive or passive language skills (ibid., p.57). All in all, the four language skills serve to some extent the development of communicative skills.

Since the reading skill played a vital role during the development of ESP course, it should be spotlighted in details at the end of this lecture. The remaining language skills will be covered in the subsequent lecture.

4.7. Reading Skill.

Grabe and Stoller (2001, p.187) put forward that reading is recognized as the most significant academic language skill in the ESL context. Reading, like other skills, is a process through which meaning is comprehended via several stages depending upon the recognition of smaller units of the texts. Langan (1998, p.319) finds that comprehension is achieved gradually as the reader proceeds from "a general feeling" about the meaning to a "deeper level of understanding" of the text. The general feeling would represent the gist of the text whereas the deeper level provides details. Grellet (1987, p.6) accounts for reading as a constant process of guessing. She further mentions that for efficient reading, the structure of longer units such as paragraphs or the whole text must be understood. It should not be a study of the text as a series of independent units

Swale (1985, p.167) argues that reading is an active process; it involves not only receiving the message, but also interpreting the passage. A reader interprets the passage by:

o Understanding the writer's implications
o Making inferences
o Realizing not only what information is given but also what information is not given
o Evaluating the passage.

Grellet (1987, p.6) provides a compromise and proposes that the reader should start with global understanding and move towards the detailed understanding of the text to be read. By way of consequence, we come to a conclusion that there is a positive correlation between comprehension and time-efficiency. In other words, complete comprehension is time consuming whereas global understanding is time-efficient.

4.7.1. Reading strategies. Reading skill is considered as a macro skill which in turn consists of other micro-skills such as:

4.7.1.1. Skimming. Skimming is the rapid reading; it is used to pick out the bulk of the text. Langan (1998, p.419) defines skimming as ' in skimming, you do not read every word; instead, you go quickly and selectively through a passage, looking for and making off important ideas but skipping secondary material. Cramer (1998, p.57) adds that skimming is skipping with skilled judgment. The ability to skim with skilled judgement requires near perfect and instantaneous recognition of main ideas transitional paragraphs, paragraphs

describing key definitions or concepts, and summary paragraphs. In sum, while skimming, one has to be highly selective of the main ideas and messages in order to arrive to the final reading goal.

4.7.1.2. *Scanning.* Scanning is another type of swift reading. It is a technique which is used when the reader wants to locate a particular piece of information without necessarily understanding the rest of the text or passage. For example, the reader may read through a chapter of a book as rapidly as possible in order to find out information about a particular date, such as when someone was born. Scanning is limited in purpose and used for depicting particular units such as important words, sentences, numbers, dates, events, figures, etc.

4.7.1.3. Extensive and intensive reading. It is argued that extensive and intensive reading procedure is opposite to skimming and scanning strategy. The emphasis is now put on details and reading takes place without any selection of units. Extensive reading means a wide reading of an enormous number of books or articles. This kind of reading is aimed for knowledge or for pleasure. Intensive reading has to do with a thorough study of a text, line by line and word by word. In this kind of reading taking notes and highlighting essential points is very useful.

This strategy is considered as skill which is of utility to learners enrolled in academic fields rather than occupational purposes and thus the above mentioned micro-skill is not of a great importance to our research population.

Conclusion

The lecture tackled the stages of the development of ESP course over the years. Register approach to ESP course design has been first criticised by discourse analysts who contended that the structure of the language does not suffice for the communicative aim. Later on, Munby's CNP came into light to show that the target situation is the most crucial element to consider and thus an ESP course should be devised accordingly. In the late 1980s, Hutchison and Waters suggested that what to communicate by the end of the course is of utility, yet how to communicate, say, is more interesting to know. Skills in ESP course were not neglected and researchers put much emphasis on them for a better understanding of the underlying process. The reading skill under EAP was first given more attention in the 1970s and later on, the rest of the language skills, listening, speaking and writing have become apparent in ESP course design. They be will be more elaborated in the subsequent lecture.

Ungraded Assignments

1. Arrange the statements below according to the historical developments in the field of ESP.

- Discourse and genre analysis and linguistic corpora began to inform the field.
- ESP practitioners believed their main job was to teach the technical vocabulary of a given field or profession.
- Concentration on skills had actually been one of the first approaches to teaching ESP in the register analysis period, but at that time had focused almost exclusively on reading skills and written text.
- The movement in ELT towards learner-centered teaching was reflected in ESP by the focus on learner needs and needs analysis as the underpinning of course design.
- Teachers of ESP began to recognize the importance of sub-technical vocabulary, that is, the words and phrases that surround the technical words.

2. Extract from the text below the following information

1. When did the Sumerians bake the clay?
2. What preceded the invention of brush and ink?
3. What happened in A.D. 105?
4. When did the art of papermaking reach Europe? (Give the exact year)
5. What did Nicholas-Luois Robert invent?

**Text 1

People have recorded their thoughts and actions on many types of writing materials for thousands of years. Prehistoric writers drew pictures and symbols on stones and walls of caves. About 4000 B.C., the Sumerians pressed marks into soft clay. Then, they backed the clay. About 3000 B.C., the Egyptians invented papyrus to use for writing. In the 2nd century B.C., parchment, a specially treated animal skin, began to replace papyrus as the chief writing material. The Romans constructed a new kind of book. Instead of long rolls of papyrus or parchment, they made books from wooden boards and tied them together with thongs. After the invention of a brush and a suitable ink, the use of cloth as writing material became

popular. The Chinese experimented with making paper. According to their tradition, Ts'ai Lun, a Chinese court official, invented paper in A.D. 105. He used the inner bark of the mulberry tree. Within 500 years, the Japanese also knew the craft of papermaking. The use of paper spread westward from the far East by way of Baghdad, Damascus, Egypt and Morocco. The art of papermaking reached Europe more than 1000 years after its invention in China. The first major change in the Chinese manual papermaking process came in 1798 when Nicholas-Louis Robert invented a machine to make paper in continuous rolls rather than sheets. As history shows, writing materials have changed dramatically over the past 2000 years.

- (Adapted from Caballero, R. 2007. Genre of Discourse: Theory and Application)

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3. Read the text below and then title it. (Act of skimming).

**Text 1

One Saturday, I was out shopping with my mum for a new pair of shoes. I saw some sandals that I really liked and tried them on straight away. I thought they were really cool, but my mum did not agree. She said at the top of her voice that she thought they were terrible. Suddenly this lady tapped me on the shoulder and said: "excuse me, but they're actually my shoes!" She'd heard everything my mum said and had watched me parading round in them. Even my mum felt terrible.

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<u>Lecture Eight</u>

Language Skills in ESP

Description	Due to the importance of the language skills during the development of ESP course, a huge focus is given to those skills in general and to ESP skills in particular. The skills are mainly listening, speaking, reading and writing.
Objectives	By the end of the lecture, students are supposed to be able to: 1. Distinguish skills in ESP from skills in EGP. 2. Be Knowledgeable about mono skills 3. recognize two-way skills related to ESP
Potential Difficulties	Students may not notice the interrelatedness of the language skills and thus it will be difficult for them to recall what they have learnt while doing the assignment. They may not, for example, link the act of skimming to paraphrasing
Prospective Solutions	The teacher has to avoid teaching every skill separately, though it is not mentioned in the literature, it should be emphasized that all productive skills cannot take place without a previous receptive skills.

Introduction

As previously mentioned in lecture seven, reading skill has gained much interest as one of most vital skills in ESP course during 1970s. Hence, this lecture demonstrates the importance of the rest of the skills since they are related and inseparable in many cases. Writing requires reading and speaking necessitates listening. Listening, speaking, and writing are explained under EAP and EOP context.

4.7.2. Listening skill in ESP. In a recent review of materials for ESP, McDonough, 2010 (as cited in Goh, 2013) identified over 20 professional areas in which English was needed for effective communication. These included aviation, commerce, customer care, engineering, finance, human resources, information technology, law, law enforcement, maritime communication, media, medicine, nursing, telecommunications, and tourism where oral communication skills are crucial to an area of work (for example, aviation and maritime

communication) the focus tended to be on speaking and the correct pronunciation of technical words (Goh, 2013, p.55)

An important part of the communication process is listening (Guffey and Loewy, 2010, p.11). It is worth mentioning that listening differs from hearing. The latter takes place when sound waves strike our eardrums. When we do not remember what we have heard, it is probably because we did not listen (Acker, 1992, p.58). Goodall, et al. (2009, p.82) add that 'hearing is the passive and physical process of listening. We may hear a speaker's words, but we don't necessarily understand their meaning'.

One reason for the perceived differences between ESP and ESL listening is the assumption that learners who require ESP training already possess some level of proficiency in the language that enables them to communicate in English. Learning materials for these learners therefore tend to focus on developing the specific vocabulary of the field of work or study, a conclusion that McDonough (2010) drew from her survey of current ESP materials (Goh, op.cit., p.56)

Students enrolled in English - speaking universities are expected to have a level of mastery of English as indicated by scores on international standardized tests of English such as the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL), the IELTS (International English Language Testing Service) test, and the Michigan English Language Assessment Battery (MELAB). The purpose of academic listening instruction in tertiary institutions is typically to develop skills such as lecture comprehension that will help these students participate and succeed in academic or academic -related discourse. (Goh, 2013, p.56).

However, listening for specific details (information) helps to focus on the detail of the text. This type of practice is necessary for accurate understanding of radio communication for example. Discussing ESP listening, Dudley - Evans and St John (1998, p.95) proposed two macro- skills for EAP and EOP listening: "listening (to monologue)"and "listening and speaking," and each in turn consists of several micro - skills. I suggest that these macro - skills are in fact contexts in which listening takes place: one - way listening and interactive listening, for greater clarity on listening comprehension processes it is more helpful to consider the core comprehension skills that effective listeners use either singly or in combination in order to achieve their desired comprehension goals

This was asserted by Goh (2002) and Vandergrift (2003); active listening can occur in all types of listening contexts and is not restricted to situations where the individual is interacting with others. It is needed when one is talking to another person (interactive listening) or when

listening to a talk or a lecture (one-way listening). In one-way listening, where the context does not allow them to do this, active listeners will make use of appropriate strategies to cope with difficulties and facilitate their comprehension by making predictions or drawing inferences, as well as monitoring and evaluating their understanding.

Vandergrift and Goh 2012 (as cited in Goh, 2013, p.61) put forward:

Listen for details understand and identify specific information

Listen for main ideas understand and summarize key points in a text

Listen for global understanding understand the gist of the message

Listen and infer fill in the gaps in one's understanding by using knowledge about the

language forms and use, and relevant prior knowledge

Listen and predict anticipate what one will hear

Listen selectively pay attention to specific parts of the message by ignoring other parts.

Johnson, 1997 (as cited in Acker, op.cit.) defines listening as 'the ability to understand and respond effectively to oral communication'. The listening process begins when you hear sounds and concentrate on them. Until you tune into sounds, they go unnoticed; the conscious act of listening doesn't begin until you select those you choose to hear. You choose to listen when (1) you think the message is important, (2) you are interested in the topic, or (3) you are in the mood to listen (Tofanelli, 2009, p.46)

The second function of listening is decoding or interpreting the messages that we receive. Once you have focused your attention on a sound and decided to listen, you begin to decode it. Interpretation is colored by your culture, education, and social frame of reference; the meanings you attach to the speaker's meaning may be quite different from what the speaker intended if your frame of reference is different. (ibid. p.46)

From the above mentioned sources, we can say that listening is no longer considered as a receptive skill, it is also considered as productive in a sense of the process that takes place when decoding and interpreting the message heard/listened to. Within this view, Beck et al. (2009, p.248) consider that people who use effective listening skills improve the communication process, as it allows them to:

- Build trust and respect
- Reduce misunderstanding and then reduce conflict
- Form better relationships
- Develop greater insight into people

- Broaden their knowledge

It is widely believed listening problems encountered by learners in both General English and ESP contexts are similar and are linked mainly to factors that influence fundamental cognitive processes, for example: accents, vocabulary, and the demands of interactive listening that require quick and appropriate responses, Goh (2013, p.58)

To recognize the sounds they hear, and construct meaning from the spoken text, all second language listeners need three types of knowledge: knowledge about the language (phonology, syntax, and vocabulary), knowledge about language use (discourse and pragmatic), and knowledge about context, facts and experiences (prior or background knowledge, or "schema"). ESP listening is similarly dependent on knowledge about language forms and vocabulary that directly facilitates the perception and parsing of spoken input. Vocabulary remains a challenge for ESP listeners since each discipline has its body of technical and specialized terms that have to be additionally acquired Goh (ibid., p.59).

4.7.2.1. Listening in EAP and EOP contexts. Under EAP contexts, learners are believed to add other new skills to their respective repertoire particularly in lecture comprehension, learners will need to learn to recognize specific types of discourse cues in extended discourse take notes and integrate incoming messages with information from other sources such as lecture notes and reference materials. These strategies necessitate effort and conscious behaviours; they play important roles in facilitating listening comprehension and overall listening development. These are used for manipulating and transforming the spoken input, managing and regulating cognitive processes, managing emotions and exploiting resources to assist comprehension (Chamot, 1995)

Listening in EAP contexts has captured the attention of researchers and ELT experts over the last three decades, with much of the research focussing on lecture comprehension. However, the same amount of research interest in listening is not evident for (most) other EOP contexts. Of the over twenty professional areas that McDonough (2010) identified, ESP listening for non-academic purposes has yet to attract research in any substantial way. There is therefore still a lack of empirical evidence that could inform listening materials and instruction for specific purposes in the workplace. Belcher 2006 (as cited in Goh, 2013, p.63) has discussed this dearth of research in workplace listening competencies, observing that it is very much a reflection of the overall ESP reality.

A similar focus in ESP listening would help to elucidate internal and external factors (other than perceived problems which have been widely studied to date) that influence successful

listening performance for academic and occupational purposes. In this regard, the following could be considered:

- The ESP learner's listening self - concept could be explored for its effects on listening comprehension, anxiety, motivation, and learning to listen for specific purposes.

- The ESP learner ' s metacognitive knowledge as it relates to both academic - learning and workplace - specific listening situations and beyond could be examined for its role in comprehension.

- The effects of knowledge about language and language use on listening performance could be investigated in different types of ESP listening.

- The way effective ESP listeners combine skills and strategies in one - way and interactive listening events could be described as this can provide valuable insights for teaching.

- More in - depth case and ethnographic studies of individual learners in different learning and cultural contexts could be carried out to provide rich data on how individual learners develop their listening in and outside the classroom.

- Metacognitive instruction in listening for academic and professional/ vocational purposes could be conducted and its effects on lecture comprehension and interactive listening examined.

- The relationship between general second language listening proficiency and ESP listening proficiency could be investigated to examine the interrelationships between the two types of listening.

- The relationship between listening performance in standardized language proficiency tests and listening achievement in ESP courses could help establish how well the former predicts the latter.

- ESP listeners' critical awareness of the way spoken language influences perceptions and understanding could be investigated to support a critical pedagogic approach to ESP listening. (Goh, 2013, pp.69-70)

4.7.3. Speaking skill in ESP. Speaking is one of man's most complex skills. It is a skill which is unique to our species (Levelt, 1993, p.1). Widdowson (1978, p.58) describes speaking as 'an active or productive skill that makes use of the aural medium'. He assumes that clear and distinctive speaking refers to the manner in which the phonological system of the language is manifested.

Actually, ordinary people speak with a purpose either to get a response for a question, for instance, answering to a request, stating a fact, showing empathy and solidarity (condolences, encouragements), etc. Mackey 1965 (as cited in Bygate, 1995, p.5) summarized oral expression as: "Oral expression involves not only the use of the right sounds in the right patterns of rhythm of intonation, but also the choice of words and inflections in the right order to convey the right meaning".

In the above statement, Mackey (1965) refers, though implicitly, that speaking involves the right language usage in addition to language use. That is to say, if the spoken language illustrates the right language rules formation, this does not guarantee the correct meaning intended by the speaker. For example, the sentence 'then, he ate the mouse' would be grammatically and phonologically correct but it seems odd semantically simply because human beings do not eat such disgusting animals. Yet, the same sentence would carry a meaning should it be put into a context where both speaker and listener have background knowledge that the speaker means the scene of the film 'the visitors'; the meaning which a third person would not get if s/he did not see the film. Levelt (1993) claims that speech is not just employing language rules but also knowing how to adjust those rules for an effective communication according to contexts. Hence, speaking is, moreover, one of our most complex cognitive, linguistic, and motor skills.

As corpora become more widely created and distributed, perspectives on learners, learner needs, and curriculum design are changing. Of significance here is the realization that most oral communication in English occurs among speakers who do not share a common first language. Indeed, English in these interactions is a lingua franca "far - removed from its native speakers' lingua-cultural norms and identities." Seidlhofer 2001 (as cited in Feak, 2013, p.35)

For an effective oral communication, Amrik (2003, pp.32-34) states some steps to follow; they are summarized as follows:

1) **Clear pronunciation**: words and utterance should be said clearly and correctly. The speaker, in order to get understood, has to adjust his speech speed, he neither be too fast not too slow.

2) **Brevity:** the speaker ought to make sure that the message is brief without losing its purpose. Too long speech may cause the loss of the message intent.

3) **Precision**: is one factor that makes communication very effective. Instead of saying 'total these invoices as early as possible', it is preferable to specify time and say 'could you kindly total these invoices and bring them back to me in half an hour's time'.

4) **Conviction**: the speaker has to establish conviction in what he says. The lack of conviction may result in a lack of confidence. Careful planning and thinking of the message before formulating it would create conviction.

5) **Logical sequence**: if the ideas of the speaker are well arranged and organized in a logical sequence, his message will be powerful.

6) **Appropriate word choice**: some words have different meanings, so the speaker has to be selective of the words that do not create any kind of confusion to the listener and it is preferable that the speaker uses words that are familiar to the listener.

7) **Avoiding hackneyed phrases and clichés**: hackneyed phrase such as ' I see', ' what I mean', and 'do you follow' may hamper the communication flow. They are used unconsciously but the speaker has to make an effort and exclude them from the speech.

8) **Natural voice:** deliberate affected style in speech may turn the speaker unnatural. A Natural voice is more effective. The most effective speech is that which is correct and at the same time natural and unaffected.

9) **Finding the right register**: registers of educated people differ from those of laymen and it is widely observed that words and expressions used between educated people are less than between uneducated. For this reason, the speaker has to bear in mind this fact and adjust his speech accordingly. An efficient oral communicator tunes in to the listener's wavelength by subtly and perhaps unconsciously, adjusting his vocabulary, loudness, speed of delivery and accent. The good oral communicator is almost multilingual, Amrik (2003, pp.32-34).

   4.7.4. Writing skill. Writing is considered as the most formal skill in communication for some reason mentioned above. In business domains, most written communications are more formal than verbal ones. Hence, Bovee and Thill (2000, pp.90-92) have proposed an audience-centered approach to writing which can be considered cornerstone of writing activities in any business communication. They have described three stages of writing: planning, organizing, and composing and revising.

Further, the writing activity at the work place is sensitive both to the sender and the receiver. Turk and Kirkman (1989, p.2) have discussed effective writing in technical and business communication and stress forming correct attitudes to writing to make it effective and suggest some fundamental steps. While writing, it is pertinent to recall our own experience as readers. They further emphasize that writing is a psychological situation and present "seven point plan' which includes analysing the aim, considering the audience, making a plan, discussing the synopsis, drafting the text, leaving the draft for some time, and finally revising and editing (ibid., pp.36-41). This approach, according to them, virtually, results in effective communication.

Smeltzer and Leonard (1994, pp.112-130) have discussed several dimensions with reference to organizational communication. They come up with twelve steps to guide the writer for a good selection of words and expressions, for clarity, comprehension and coherence. They are as follows:

One: Being precise in the choice of words, as they have denotative and connotative meanings.

Two: Using short rather than long words; simple words are also preferable for they are easy to comprehend and less confusing.

Three: Using concrete rather than abstract words. The former are more specific whereas the latter are much confusing

Four: Avoiding wordiness and using words with economy. Economy of words is a highly desirable feature of business messages.

Five: Eschewing clichés and gobbledygook. Such expressions affect badly the message of the writing.

Six: Using positive words. They create positive stimuli that encourage positive response.

Seven: Using a conversational style. Such style is greatly relevant in business writing. It creates a sense of concern and involvement.

Eight: Using short sentences; they are more understandable to the reader.

Nine: Keeping the active voice and avoiding the passive voice. Active sentences have normal order but passive sentences are reversed.

Ten: Developing effective paragraphs which should be well structured and ordered.

Eleven: Developing coherent paragraphs: coherence in writing is an effect of a well-organized and inter-related paragraph.

Twelve: editing and rewriting: these are two significant steps for a final shape. Editing requires examining what has been written and developing coherence. Rewriting has to do with rewording.

Conclusion

The listening skill in language communication does not differ to a great extent from that under ESP context, and speaking and writing are no exception. These skills have shown to be of a similar importance like the reading skill especially in EOP context which gained much attention in the late 1970s. The ultimate aim of an ESP course has become now communication which is based mainly on speaking and writing.

Ungraded Assignments

1. Listen to the text below and then title it. (Act of skimming).

**Text 1

When the sun shines on the sea, the water gets warm some tiny drops of water rise up to the sky as clouds winds blow over the land and drops of water fall as rain. Some water soaks into the ground but some is trapped and stored for use. Most of water finds its way back into the sea through rivers and drains. There the process starts.

2. In your own words, paraphrase the text by following Smeltzer and Leonard (1994) steps.

**Text 1

People have recorded their thoughts and actions on many types of writing materials for thousands of years. Prehistoric writers drew pictures and symbols on stones and walls of caves. About 4000 B.C., the Sumerians pressed marks into soft clay. Then, they backed the clay. About 3000 B.C., the Egyptians invented papyrus to use for writing. In the 2nd century B.C., parchment, a specially treated animal skin, began to replace papyrus as the chief writing material. The Romans constructed a new kind of book. Instead of long rolls of papyrus or parchment, they made books from wooden boards and tied them together with thongs. After the invention of a brush and a suitable ink, the use of cloth as writing material became popular. The Chinese experimented with making paper. According to their tradition, Ts'ai Lun, a Chinese court official, invented paper in A.D. 105. He used the inner bark of the mulberry tree. Within 500 years, the Japanese also knew the craft of papermaking. The use of

paper spread westward from the far East by way of Baghdad, Damascus, Egypt and Morocco. The art of papermaking reached Europe more than 1000 years after its invention in China. The first major change in the Chinese manual papermaking process came in 1798 when Nicholas-Louis Robert invented a machine to make paper in continuous rolls rather than sheets. As history shows, writing materials have changed dramatically over the past 2000 years.

(Adapted from Caballero, R. 2007. Genre of Discourse: Theory and Application)

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Lecture Nine

Genre and Business Discourse

Description	One of the most important ESP types and which gains much interest by learners is English for business. For this reason, this lecture covers much ground as regards Business genre and business discourse and how business discourse is analyzed based on a genre based approach.
Objectives	By the end of the lecture, students are supposed to be able to: 1. Better understand what is "genre" 2. Grasp the meaning of "business genre" in particular 3. Distinguish between business genre and business discourse.
Potential Difficulties	The term 'genre' might be understood as the French false friend 'genre' which means a type. Although the two narrow meanings are more or less akin, genre in business is somehow closer to rhetoric. The latter is also problematic for its meaning is not entirely grasped by students in their first language.
Prospective Solutions	The teacher has to resort to elucidation of some examples of 'genre, discourse and rhetoric' in the first language. There must be a full understanding of the notion 'genre' before any attempt to move to genre and discourse analysis. A pair work in encouraged as the first attempt to analyze uncomplicated genre types. The teacher monitors and gives a delayed corrective feedback to avoid any interruption.

Introduction

In this lecture, genre and genre analysis will gain focus since it is still a hot area of debate in the field of ESP in general and in EAP in particular. Genre based approach has been widely tackled in the field of business by ESP researchers. Business, be it academic or occupational has been the centre of attention of ESP experts.

5. Genre

Bhatia (2009, p.387) defines genres as instances of situated linguistic behaviour in institutionalized academic, professional, or other social settings, whether defined in terms of "typifications of rhetorical action," as in Miller (1984), "regularities of staged, goal oriented social processes," as in Martin (1993), or "consistency of communicative purposes," as in Swales (1990) and Bhatia (1993). In similar fashion Dudley-Evans 1987 as cited in (Rothwell, 2000, p. 58) describes genre as:

"A typified socially recognised form that is used in typified social circumstances. It has characteristic features of style and form that are recognized, either overtly or covertly, by those who use the genre. Thus for example, the research article has a known public purpose and has conventions about layout, form and style that are to a large degree standardized."

A genre is a text, either spoken or written, that serves a particular purpose in a society and is composed of a series of segments, called *moves*. Some of the moves in a genre are obligatory, in that they are necessary to achieve the communicative purpose of the genre, whereas others are optional- those which speakers or writers may choose to employ if they decide that those moves add to the effectiveness of the communication but do not alter the purpose of the text (Henry & Roseberry, 1998, p.147). Coulthard (1985) adds that a genre is a recognizable style and therefore can be used in appropriate and inappropriate situations.

In order to provide a workable definition of genre, Swales 1990 as cited in (Bruce 2008, p.29) includes the following defining features:

1) A genre is a class of communicative events.

2) The principal criterial feature that turns a collection of communicative events into a genre is some shared set of communicative purposes.

3) Exemplars or instances of genres vary in their prototypically.

4) The rationale behind a genre establishes constraints on allowable contributions in terms of their content, positioning and form.

5) A discourse community's nomenclature for genres is an important source of insight.

Although all the above definitions represent different ideas about genre they still share the same basic view which is the communicative purpose of the genre and its dynamicity. Hence a genre or discourse type is recognized to employ every aspect of language and context. Cook (1989, p.99) asserts that all or any of the following may be brought into consideration:

1) Sender/Receiver   e.g. technician, child, friend, employer, host.

2) Function   e.g. to obtain information, to attract attention.

3) Situation   e.g. at a party, on the factory floor, in a shop.

4) Physical Form   e.g. folded piece of paper in envelope; large metal board.

5) Title   e.g. Air Ionizer Instructions

6) Overt Introduction   e.g. Listen I want to tell you a joke; this is a story about.

7) Pre-sequence   e.g. Have you heard the one about; Once upon the time; Dear Kim

8) Internal Structure   e.g. abstract+ introduction+ main text+ book list+ notes

9) Cohesion   e.g. high frequency of logical conjunctions: therefore, thus

10) Grammar   e.g. high frequency of subordinate clauses

11) Vocabulary   e.g. archaisms, loan words

12) Pronunciation   e.g. accent, volume

13) Graphology   e.g. handwriting, print, type, dot-matrix letters

5.1. Business English

Lorenzo (2005, p.1) reminds us that ESP 'concentrates more on language in context than on teaching grammar and language structures.' He also points out that as ESP course is usually delivered to adult students, frequently in a work related setting (EOP), that motivation to learn is higher than in usual ESL (English as a Second Language) contexts. McDonough (1984) asserts that people involved in professional tasks are very inclined to talking within group setting. Simply because, he adds, that they have to attend meetings, undertake negotiations and participate in conferences. . "The academic Business English required by students on courses in disciplines such as business, finance, accounting and baking has more in common with the study of other EAP disciplines" (Dudley-Evan & St. John 1998, p.53).

Ellis and Johnson (1994, p.3) state that Business English must be viewed within the context of ESP because, as it shares the important elements of needs analysis, syllabus design, course design and materials selection and development which are common to all fields of work in ESP . Likewise, Business English has much in common with general EFL, but in many ways is very different since the aims of a course may be quite radically different from those of a General English course (Donna 2000, p.2). Business English is special because of the opportunity it gives one to fulfil students' immediate needs for English. In General English classes students' needs are rarely so immediate or urgent (ibid, p.6).Furthermore, Business English involves much more than learning appropriate lexis or even how to write/ speak key texts. It involves the learning of a whole new culture associated with the market system (Dudley-Evan & St. John 1998, p.64)

Yet, according to Whitehead and Whitehead (1993, p.9), Business English is the language of communication in international business and "it is ordinary English, related particularly to business use". Notwithstanding this, Hewings as cited in (Hinkel 2005, p.101) notes that, although the interest in Business English has dramatically increased in the last decade (accounting for almost 20% of what foreign students study in the United States; cf. Open Doors, 2002), the Business English research base is still in its infancy and will remain underrepresented in the pages of the journal until it is taught in universities.

In the field of English for Business, Blue (1988) as cited in (Howard& Brown 1997, p. 59) refers to English for General Academic Purposes (EGAP), English for specific academic purposes (ESAP). By extension, we can talk of Language/English for General Business Purposes (LGBP) and Language/English for Specific Business Purposes (LSBP). English for General Business Purposes is abbreviated as EGBP and ESBP stands for English for Specific Business Purposes.

5.2. Business Discourse and Communication

Bargiela-Chiappini et al. (2007, p.3) see the scope of business discourse studies as a vast area of research aimed at telling us how people in business organizations achieve their organizational and personal goals using language. It goes without saying that business organizations carry out their operations and deals via communication. It is the sole channel for business objectives being direct or indirect.

According to Murphy et al. (1997, p.4), communicating effectively in speaking and writing is a highly valued skill. It is a 'need' for every individual in a business organization. Organization will be paralyzed without open and effective communication. Locker (1989, p.6) stated that organizations spend 70% to 85% of their work time in communication activities as an essential part of their working. Similarly, Smeltzer and Leonard (1994, p. 91) point out that managers spend about 75% of their time communicating.

5.3. Genre - based Approach to Business Discourse Analysis

Researchers in the ESP field are much more interested in English use in academic and professional setting. Their ultimate aim is communication. The main argument in favour of the use of genre analysis in teaching LSP is that it provides non-native speakers with the linguistic and rhetorical tools they need to cope with the tasks required of them. It is also an important resource for the LSP teacher and materials writers. (Dudley- Evans, 1997, p.56)

Also, Research into English for business purposes is more patchy, but there is nonetheless a growing interest in investigating the genres, the language and the skills involved in business communication (ibid, p.15). This trend came into being after the realization of the existence of the intra and extra linguistic levels that are related to genre analysis. Now, it is claimed that focus on studies of registers of a language gains less interest. Thus, the language used in the professions has moved from being characterized in terms of syntactic or lexical choices to characters of the textual presentation of the different contexts.

It is widely observed that business communication takes place via spoken discourse more than written one (texts). However, generally held views consider the analysis of the spoken genre has been largely neglected. This is because the spoken mode is dynamic and more fluid than the written communication. In addition to that, the spoken business genre is not memorized and cannot be reviewed for analysis.

Early analysis of business genres was applied, a great deal, on written faxes, mail letters, and application letters. Yet, with the rapid development in communication, electronic mails have become largely used in business correspondence, and thus email messages are now the center of genre analysis attention.

In a similar fashion, Dudley-Evan & St. John (1998, p.53) add that most English-medium communications in business are non-native speaker to non-native speaker (NNS-NNS) and the English they use is International English, not that of native speakers (NS) of English-medium countries such as the UK and Australia. Guy and Mattock (1993) as cited in (Dudley-Evan & St. John, ibid, p. 54) termed this type of communicated English "Offshore English".

Van Horn (2009, p. 622) said that it is because of the vitality and importance of Asia in global commerce, the use of English in business in Japan, Korea, China, south Asia, and Southeast Asia is the source of comment and curiosity. Whereas in Africa, Huenemann (1987) confirms that China's major trading partners are Algeria in addition to other African countries like Egypt, the Sudan, and Nigeria. China is becoming fully integrated into the world economy with impressive profit potential and the low cost base of a Chinese workforce, global organizations are strengthening their operations in China, and those who are not there yet are rushing to enter the Chinese market (Wiles, 2003, p.383).

5.3.1 Discourse and genre analysis in ESP. According to Cook (1989), two types of language are under study. The first deals with how rules of language work whereas the second type is interested in language in use (communication). The latter kind is called *Discourse*. Widdowson (1979, p.108) adds that communication is called for when the language user recognizes a situation which requires the conveyance of information to establish a convergence of knowledge, so that this situation can be changed in some way. This transaction requires the negotiation of meaning through interaction. I refer to this negotiation as discourse. Hence, discourse is a communicative process by means of interaction (ibid).

Canale and Swain (1980) as Cited in (Nunan 1989) introduced the notion of four components of communicative competence, namely grammatical, discourse, sociolinguistic and strategic competence. In effect, the most significant element is discourse and text

competence which Brown (1994, p.228) defines as the ability "to connect sentences in stretches of discourse and to form a meaningful whole out of a series of utterances". The situation that interests us, then, concerns the structure and function of language beyond the sentence level, i.e. the way in which people use either spoken language (typically referred to as discourse) or written language (typically referred to as texts) in a coherent and meaningful way. Widdowson (Op. Cit) equally propounds that discourse may be overt and reciprocal, e.g. conversations, or covert and non-reciprocal, such as written language. One might ask in what way does the study of the sentence differ from the study of discourse or texts? We shall try to provide a broad historical perspective on this question

For the greater part of this century, until about the mid 1960s, mainstream linguistics focused on the formal structure of language. Syntax was the main focus of study and linguists were primarily concerned with examining the grammatical rules on the sequence of linguistic units within sentence boundaries, that is, "characterising well-formed versus deviant sentences" (Stubbs 1983, p.129). The largest linguistic unit of analysis was the sentence. Language use beyond the sentence (e.g. chunks of language, such as paragraphs, conversations, lectures, entire written texts) was considered to be too variable and open-ended to be studied in a scientifically proper way.

During the late 1960s, a growing number of linguists challenged this formal, structural view of language. Many linguists felt that language could not be explained solely in terms of grammatical rules. Besides, language as an instrument of communication occurs not in isolated sentences but in sequences of sentences embedded in a sociocultural and communicative context, as well as in a linguistic context. And so the boundaries of linguistic inquiry were widened to include real language- hence discourse/texts.

In studying language use beyond the sentence, analysts argue that although discourse is not as tightly rule-governed as sentence structure, it is not an ad hoc collection of sentences strung together. The fact that we can distinguish between coherent and incoherent discourse implies that there is structure and organisation underlying discourse. In fact, we seem to be guided in our use of language by cognitive, linguistic and discourse principles and strategies, by norms of interaction and by general knowledge of how the world works. Some of this may be culture specific, some universal. It is such matters, as reflected in the suprasentential (beyond a sentence) organisation of discourse, that discourse analysts seek to uncover and explain.

The disciplines within linguistics which tend to focus on the suprasentential aspects of language use are discourse analysis and text linguistics. Brown and Yule (1983, p.26)

describe discourse analysis as being concerned with "what people using language are doing, and accounting for the linguistic features in the discourse as the means employed in what they are doing". Text linguistics can be seen as that branch of discourse analysis that delimits its enquiry to the properties of written discourse (i.e. texts) that contribute to the overall well-formedness or coherence of texts.

If the primary aim of formal linguistics has been to characterise well-formed versus deviant sentences, then one of the primary aims of discourse/text analysis is to characterise well-formed versus deviant discourse/texts. A central notion that has emerged in this regard is the rather complex and elusive one of discourse connectivity: what constitutes coherent (well-formed) discourse? Cook (1989, p.38) replies that 'we are moving towards a position in which we shall be able to examine the structure of discourse both in terms of surface relations of form, and underlying relations of functions and acts. Now, the attention should be focused on *speech act theory*, which according to Cook (1989, ibid), provides us with a means of probing beneath the surface of discourse and establishing the function of what is being said.

Taking genre, after Swales (1985), Bhatia (1991, p.154) proposed first in his article sales letters as an example of genre analysis of business communication. He clarifies that this genre differs from typical classroom writing situations. Initially, genre analysis was conducted on academic written texts; it started with Swales' article introduction, to abstract, methods section, thesis discussion, etc. yet, the genre analysis approach was equally relevant to the analysis of the texts in business, professional and occupational contexts (Malmkjær, 2002, p. 206). Taking genre, after Swales (1985), Bhatia (1991, p.154) proposed first in his article sales letters as an example of genre analysis of business communication. He clarifies that this genre differs from typical classroom writing situations.

Building on Swales' Move-step analysis, Bhatia (1991) proposed the cognitive structuring which is made up of moves, strategies, and their ordering. Bhatia stressed the cognitive nature of genre of a sales promotion letter taken from the UNDP-Government of Singapore Project in Meeting the Needs of Business and Technology. He gave an example of an analysis of a Standard Bank letter. The seven moves are:

1. Establishing credentials
2. Introducing the offer
    i. Offering the product/ service
    ii. Essential detailing of the offer
    iii. Indicating value of the offer

3. Offering incentives
4. Referring to enclosed documents
5. Inviting further communication
6. Using pressure tactics
7. Ending politely.

Bhatia assumes that writers do not necessarily follow the above moves in that order. Sometimes there may be two or more moves in one paragraph or two or more paragraphs consist of one move.

5.3.1.1. Email as a medium of business genre. Initially business letters were written in a particular fashion and in a particular structure. It was generally observed that business correspondences were sent to recipients via snail mail and if urgent, through a telegram. Yates and Orlikowski 1992 as cited in (Loudhailer- Salminen & Kankaanranta 2008, p. 57) describe the history of business letters starting from the mid-19th century; according to them, the business letters at that time were documents aimed at external individuals or firms in order to manage and document the business at hand. In addition to this shared substance, they were characterized by a distinctive format (e.g. the positioning of data, inside address, salutation, complimentary close) and style of language (distinctively polite phraseology); in those days the shared communication medium was pen and paper.

Nowadays, the influence of globalization on commerce and industry and with the emergence the English as the language of technology, science and trade, forced non native English users to alter their business communication and resort to English as a lingua franca in their new business correspondence. The rapid advances in electronic technology affect the speed of business communication; pen and paper connections have witnessed a drastic reduction and the era of faxes and emails has been brought into play.

We shall now examine the email as the swiftest medium of correspondence nowadays. The email has now overtaken paper correspondence and fax as the main mode of communication between companies. As email is often characterized by a relatively informal style and sometimes very brief messages, this is more usually the case between individuals who are either native speakers of the language or have had frequent contact with each other, and who can therefore judge how informal they can be (Littlejohn 2005, p.13)

Hence, we presume that with the rapid change in business communication, there must be a change in business genre. Louhiala- Salminen and Kankaanranta, (op.cit.) show that at the

end of the 20th century, the new technologies have influenced the 'genre systems' of written business communication. That is, the genre of a letter differs from that of a fax which in turn differs from that of the email. The balance of the entire genre system has changed and business correspondence has changed to electronic message exchange.

Conclusion

Genre is a socially recognized text style or form; either spoken or written. Business genre has become an interesting area of research all around the world. Genre-based approach to business discourse analysis has become of a paramount importance in ESP teaching/learning under both EAP and EOP setting. Discourse and communication have formed the ultimate aim of business English research. Emails, for instance, still enjoy the status of one of the best media of correspondence for business purposes.

Ungraded Assignments

1. Say which moves has the writer of the email followed or skipped according to Bhatia's Model?

**Email 1

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Lecture Ten

Genre and Business Writing

Description	In addition to business genre and business discourse illustrated in the preceding lecture, in this lecture; the following elements are presented: business writing, business negotiations and the language of buying and selling under both EAP and EOP contexts.
Objectives	By the end of the lecture, students are supposed to be able to: 1. Better understand genre 2. Conclude the difference between genres of business writings 3. Extract the link between business genres 4. Analyze the business genre under EOP and EAP setting.
Potential Difficulties	Students may not well grasp the CARS model of Swales since they are not acquainted with academic research yet.
Prospective Solutions	In this case, a brief introduction to academic research will be presented in addition to a reference to APA style as regards abstract and introduction writing. This may pave the way to the students to analyse properly an academic abstract.

Introduction

As previously mentioned in lecture nine, business English is considered as a virgin area of research and thus business communications have become of a paramount importance. Business genre; be it spoken or written got much interest from researchers. Because spoken genres are not always easy to maintain, ESP experts embark on analyzing business writings. One amongst the writings that were greatly analysed is business negotiations. The language of haggling over the price and buying and selling has become the centre of attention.

5.4. Genre Analysis on Business Writing

As far as genre analysis in specialized academic areas is concerned, swales 1990 as cited in (Malmkjær, 2002, p.206) argues that genre analysis should be concerned with the difference between, for example, medical journal editorials and medical journal articles, which are part of the same register, but constitute different genres, and he also mentions in this context differences between legislative prose, legal textbooks and legal case reports.

Swales (1990) was concerned with genre analysis of the academic article. He sets out his Creating a Research Space (CARS) model of analysis of the pattern of article introduction. The model consists of three main moves which in turn consist of several steps:

Move 1 Establishing a territory

Step 1 Claiming centrality and/or

Step 2   Making topic generalization(s)

Step 3   Reviewing items of previous research

Move 2. Establishing a niche

Step 1A   Counter-claiming   or

Step 1B   Indicating a gap   or

Step 1C   Question-raising or

Step 1D Continuing a tradition

Move 3. Occupying the niche

Step 1A   Outlining purposes

Or **Step 1B** Announcing present research

Step 2   Announcing principal findings

Step 3   Indicating RA structure

Figure 5.1: A CARS Model for Article Introduction

The above model introduced by Swales, has influenced the development of genre analysis and the teaching of academic writing within EAP. The approach of move analysis to text analysis was clearly established through the work of Swales (1990).

The ultimate aim of such an analysis is to describe such a genre for pedagogic application either for academic or professional settings. Bhatia stresses the fact that one should have some basic information about a) the linguistic aspect about this writing task; to which applied linguists give**s** primacy. Such concern was initially regarded as register analysis and more recently applied discourse analysis, b) the sociological concern which helps the analysis to understand how a particular genre defines, organizes and finally communicates social reality. This aspect reveals that the text does not hold the intended meaning on its own, but that it is an ongoing process of negotiation of several issues such as social roles, group purposes, professional and organizational preferences and even cultural constraints, c) the psychological – cognitive or tactical aspect which emphasizes the cognitive structuring typical to a particular area of inquiry. This aspect of analysis largely offers insightful answers to questions like: "why do people write the way they do?"

Bhatia (1991) also provides a comprehensive investigation of any genre one would wish to consider for analysis. The analyst, after choosing the aspect of the genre on which he wishes to concentrate, should follow some or all the following steps during the procedure:

 - First, one needs to place the text intuitively in a situational context by looking at one's prior experience, the internal clues in the text and the encyclopedic knowledge of the world that one already has.

- Second, one needs to refine that situational- contextual analysis further by:

A. defining the speaker/writer of the text, the audience, their relationship and their goals;

B. defining the historical, social, geographic, politic, philosophic, and occupational placement of the community in which the discourse takes place;

C. identifying the network of surrounding texts and linguistic traditions that form the background to this particular discourse;

D. identifying the topic /subject /extratextual reality which the text is trying to represent, change or use, and the text's relationship to that reality. (ibid, p.155)

 Just after overcoming the above steps, the analyst then decides at which level(s) the most distinctive or significant features of language occur and carries out the appropriate analysis. The concentration would be on one or more of the following linguistic realizations:

1) lexico-grammatical analysis of surface features, which was initially associated with register analysis and has to do with the analysis of lexis and grammar used in that genre type.

2) The study of the text-patterning or textualization in a particular genre, i.e. to study the aspect of conventional language use that indicates the way restricted values are assigned to the various aspects of language use.

3) Study of regularities of organization in genre, which reveals how the overall message in structured in order to communicate the intention of the author. This may answer the question why that particular genre is structured the way it is.

Researchers have not come to a precise definition of genre structure. According to Yates and Orlikowski as cited in (Nickerson, 2000, p.42) *structure* refers to devices such as lists in written texts and an agenda in a meeting. In applying this in a useful way to organizational genres, *structure* may best be defined in term of text conventions, i.e. those aspects of form which contribute to the *physical layout* of the genre. It is therefore distinct from the *discourse structure* which refers to the internal textual organization of the genre.

5.5. Business Negotiations

 Negotiation is considered broadly as one of the prominent sub-generic types of business discourse. Steele and Beasor (1998, p.3) attempted to arrive to a workable definition of

negotiation. They see negotiation as a process through which parties move from their initially divergent positions to a point where agreement may be reached.

When people want to do something together – buy or sell an item, make a business deal, decide where to go for dinner- they need to use some sort of mechanism for reaching an agreement. Negotiation is one name for a variety of joint-decision making processes, although people use such terms as making a deal, trading, bargaining, dickering, or (in case of price negotiation) haggling. (Cohen 2002, pp. 2-3) Haggling is sometimes called *dickering* or *hardball bargaining*. It is a stylized variant of the compromise strategy, often with some competitive tactics and collaborative tactics thrown in for good measure (Lewicki & Hiam, 2006, pp.181-182).

The willingness to haggle varies across cultures. People from Latino, Asian, and Middle Eastern countries tend to be more conformable with haggling as a method of setting price; it is the usual way of conducting business in many countries where bargaining is more than just agreeing on the price. There is a social value to it. It involves relationship building. (ibid, p.182)

To haggle over a price, follow these suggestions:

o It is all right to ask for a price break, but be prepared for the possibility of being told no.
o Haggle only if you reasonably expect to buy the item. Once you begin to haggle with the other party, you usually are creating the expectation that you will consummate the deal if you can agree on the price.
o Be polite but firm, it is poor form to be pushy.
o Sales are good places to haggle. Items are on sale because sellers want to get rid of them. Sometimes they simply want to get them out of inventory so they don't have to pay storage costs- so you may be able to get the price tag down even further.
o Haggling is usually possible when there is no posted price. If you have to ask how much something is, the chances are you may be given a different number than the last buyer was. This is a good time to consider haggling.
o It is easier to haggle in stores where you are a regular customer than in ones where no one knows you.

o It is much easier to haggle in a small store, where you can talk with the owner directly. In larger stores, the clerk probably has no authority to make a decision about whether a price or service can be changed.

o It is often easier when you are going to pay in cash rather than with a credit card, which costs the owner when you use it. It is easier to haggle for merchandise that is marked down or on closeout sale. You might simply be able to haggle for a cash discount as compared to paying by check or credit card. (ibid, pp.182-183)

The five main steps of negotiation are:

- compromise
- bargaining
- threat
- emotion
- logical reasoning   (Cohen 2002, p. 8)

These five steps can be used separately or combined together so as to attain the goal of the negotiation. Cultures throughout the world have their individual means of achieving movement from the other party. In Britain, many show a preference for compromise, whereas it has been noted that the countries of Eastern Europe and the Far East tend more to use emotion and threat. The Germans are renowned for employing logical reasoning and the Americans enjoy bargaining. (ibid).

5.5.1. Discourse of business negotiation. It goes without saying that any two speakers of different language involved in a conversation would use a language that is common to both of them. This language is called *lingua franca*. For instance Algerians with Kuwaitis would tend to talk in Standard Arabic for a full understanding. Scottish with Welsh would use Standard English as a lingua franca. In the field of business, people, all over the world, are inclined to resort to English as a lingua franca for interpersonal communication.

Lingua franca emerged to suit the common purposes of interaction among people in a variety of "societal structures", e.g. empires, states, countries, peoples, tribes, or groups so they might be able to produce something jointly or to buy and sell goods (Rehbein, 1995, p.67).

5.5.1.1. Communication in buying and selling. In general, buying and selling is characterized by a buyer obtaining something that the seller possesses, e.g. the seller delivers commodity in return for a certain amount of money from the buyer (price). The seller is

interested in obtaining the highest price possible, the buyer is paying as little as possible (ibid, p.69)

Though there exists a conflict in aim between buyer and seller, they both tend to seek a point of gathering as a compromise that benefits both parties. On the one hand, the seller should be tactful to get a profit from selling and without losing his customer and, on the other hand, the buyer should be cautious to get the desired goods at a suitable price.

Hasan 1989 as cited (in Chimombo and Roseberry 1998, p.81) states that in conversations involving buying and selling, moves or move complexes may be repeated. She referred to this as *iteration of elements.* Taking into consideration obligatory, optional, and iterative moves of structure, Hasan was able to show the allowable limitations on move structure variation in conversations about buying and selling.
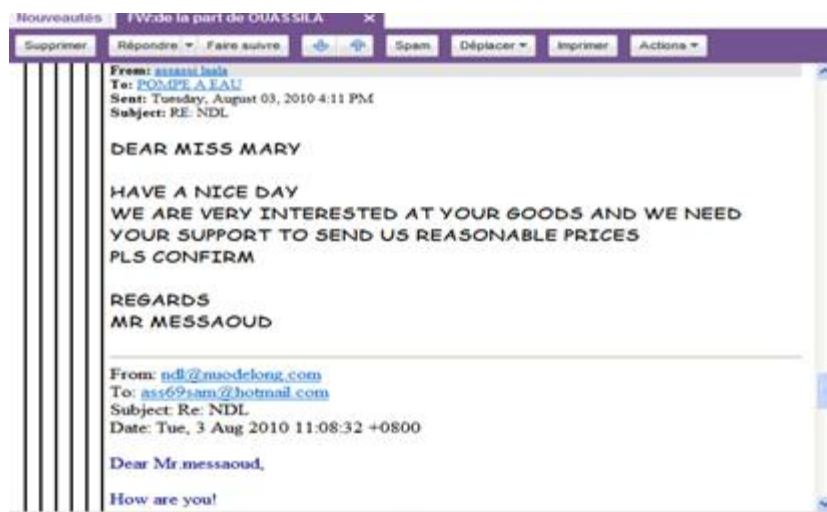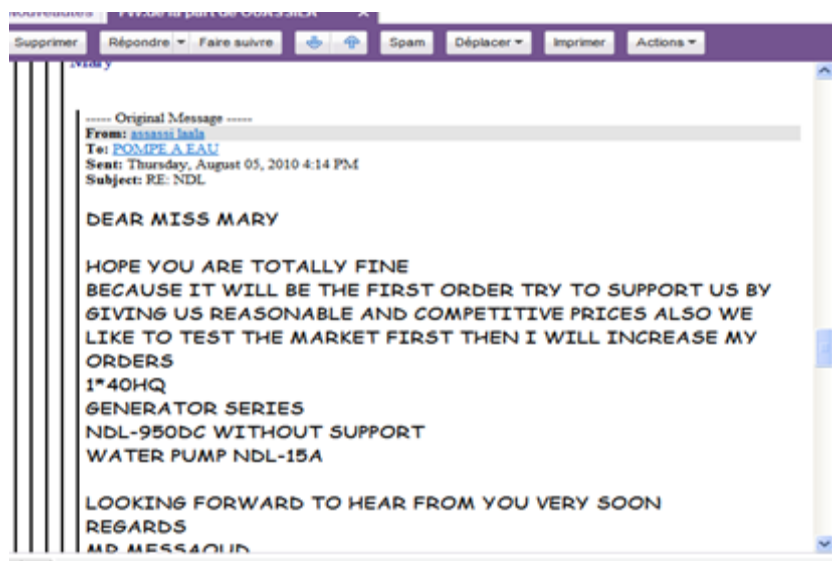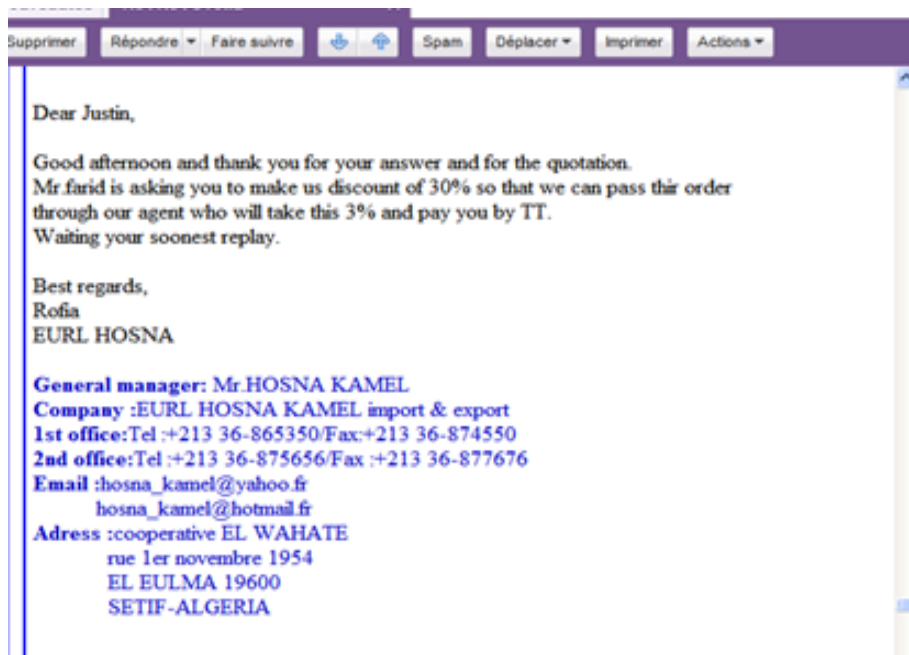
Conclusion

Genre based approach to business discourse has been coined with Swales (1990) and Bhatia (1991). The work of the previously mentioned researchers has been, for years, significant in the field of EBE. While Swales has emphasised ESP research articles and abstracts under EAP, Bhatia has shifted attention to   less formal ESP settings, mainly EOP. Considerable work and research was implemented for business purposes.

Ungraded Assignments

1. Which steps have been followed by the writers according to Bhatia's genre analysis?

2. What goes right/wrong in the emails 1-3?

**Email 1

**Email 2


```
------ Original Message ------
From: assassi laala
To: POMPE A EAU
Sent: Thursday, August 05, 2010 4:14 PM
Subject: RE: NDL


DEAR MISS MARY

HOPE YOU ARE TOTALLY FINE
BECAUSE IT WILL BE THE FIRST ORDER TRY TO SUPPORT US BY
GIVING US REASONABLE AND COMPETITIVE PRICES ALSO WE
LIKE TO TEST THE MARKET FIRST THEN I WILL INCREASE MY
ORDERS
1*40HQ
GENERATOR SERIES
NDL-950DC WITHOUT SUPPORT
WATER PUMP NDL-15A


LOOKING FORWARD TO HEAR FROM YOU VERY SOON
REGARDS
MR MESSAOUD
```

**Email 3


```
Dear Justin,

Good afternoon and thank you for your answer and for the quotation.
Mr.farid is asking you to make us discount of 30% so that we can pass thir order
through our agent who will take this 3% and pay you by TT.
Waiting your soonest replay.

Best regards,
Rofia
EURL HOSNA

General manager: Mr.HOSNA KAMEL
Company :EURL HOSNA KAMEL import & export
1st office:Tel :+213 36-865350/Fax:+213 36-874550
2nd office:Tel :+213 36-875656/Fax :+213 36-877676
Email :hosna_kamel@yahoo.fr
        hosna_kamel@hotmail.fr
Adress :cooperative EL WAHATE
        rue 1er novembre 1954
        EL EULMA 19600
        SETIF-ALGERIA
```

3. Analyse, according to CARS model the following abstract.

"The current study aims at identifying the needs of El Eulma business professionals in learning English. Investigating needs and data collection of the research in the informal setting (Dubai Hypermarket in El Eulma business district) casts much credit to the worth of the work. The study was exploratory in nature and established a theoretical framework for ESP and EOP in general and, Business English (BE) in particular. In the pursuit of our aim and in order to find out solutions to our questions, the research is based upon a hypothesis that the basic aim behind learning English is for business sake and thus speaking is the most emphasized skill to learn. The hypothesis was tested after having obtained the research findings. Primary data were collected through questionnaire survey and interview protocol so as to point out the needs of business professionals in learning English. Secondary data were gathered via business emails writings analysis in order to depict which business genre in utilized in business communication. Research findings have come to reveal that General English is similar in importance to Business English. That is, the reasons behind learning English are both business and social survival. Results highlight also the fact that the communication skills are required for business or social related situations with an emphasis on productive speaking and writing. The study suggests some recommendations to design a specific curriculum for Business English. The recommendations aim at equipping the learners with essential English needed either in the work place or in social settings."

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Lecture Eleven

ESP Curriculum –Part 1

Description	The ultimate aim of any needs analysis under ESP is to design a curriculum for a particular group of learners. This lecture falls into this spectrum. It starts with a thorough definition of a curriculum and then presents two well-known types of the curriculum, Tylor and Taba models
Objectives	By the end of the lecture, students are supposed to be able to: 1. Well grasp what a curriculum is 2. Extract the similarities between the first two curricula 3. Depict the main dissimilarities between the presented curricula
Potential Difficulties	Students may find the theoretical framework much daunting and cannot decide which model is suitable to their prospective learners.
Prospective Solutions	An assignment designed by the teacher may be helpful in depicting the main differences between curriculum models, the learners and settings. The teacher works with the students in a whole class task due to time constraints. Corrective feedback is given immediately before moving a step further. A full understanding of each model is compalsory at this stage.

Introduction

A response should be first provided to some inquiries before making any decision about a course such as a the reason behind developing a particular curriculum and 'what for' learners should learn a particular subject ; what 'elements of content' to be chosen as an inventory of a course; what pedagogical means and procedural sequences would be used to achieve the defined goals, aims and objectives, the sources of materials and means to present the content, and finally the population for whom the curriculum is designed; teachers and learners. Once the answers are apparent enough, the selection of curriculum type comes to light. In this lecture, we embark on providing a definition of curriculum and then cite two main types which first appeared; Rational (Tylor) and Taba.

6.1. Curriculum Defined

In the third lecture, it was clarified that ESP is an approach to language teaching which aims to meet the special needs of particular learner (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987) this means that the ultimate goal of the work done either by ESP teachers or materials developers is concerned with designing appropriate curricula, syllabi or courses for those learners.

Second-language curriculum development has become increasingly complex since the advent of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) during the 1980s. In various countries,

school curricula increasingly take into account learners' present or predicted communication needs, the kinds of things they are likely to want to say, read, or write in the target language. An important feature of any design or process of development is that it be flexible enough to adapt to the situation it is intended for. This is essential that designers and people responsible for implementing a design should be aware of taking suggested techniques and methods as law. They should rather look to the intent or aim of the design and be flexible in the way they achieve that. In effect this means that curriculum developers have to reflect on the different aspects that deal with curriculum development.

The purpose of NA phase is to gather enough information so that designers can make informed and responsive decisions, first about whether an instructional intervention is needed, and, if so, what type of content should be learned, its sequence, media delivery, instructional strategies and tactics that would be appropriate for a particular audience in a given context (Seel & Dijkstra 2004, p.172). However, curriculum design is not simply a procedural or a technical response to problem solving. It is an act that is made *in situ,* that is, on the spot, by a practitioner employing deliberate thought (McKernan 2008, p.57).

For a genuinely comprehensive awareness about learners, learning needs, and course objectives, an NA will comprise three elements:

1. The range of communication and language required in the trainee's present and future professional roles.
2. The current ability of the trainee in terms of language and communication.
3. The actual objectives of the course.

Therefore, a formula (by using 1,2, and 3 of above sequences): 1-2=3, can be applied to find out the contents of the course but student's needs $(1 - 2)$ will not always be equal to 3 or the actual objectives (Brieger, 1997, p.88)

With the above development constraints in mind, this chapter purports to the review of literature with the theoretical background of the study related to curriculum models, frameworks, design and evaluation are presented.

Within this scope this chapter presents information on:

1. **Groundwork:** that part paves the way to a better understanding of major themes pertaining to the research subject:
- Syllabus,
- Curriculum and finally

- difference between curriculum and syllabus,

2. **Curriculum Theory:** Gives background information about curriculum models.

3. **Curriculum Practice:** Gives background information about curriculum development frameworks and criteria for ESP curriculum design and evaluation.

Before going on, one might find it plausible to make a distinction between a curriculum, course and a syllabus, though the term curriculum itself seems, to many people, rather confusing. However, Print (1993, p.3) contends that any institution that offers an educational program to learners employs a curriculum of some form. In most cases, "course" is commonly used interchangeably with "curriculum". The latter is considered as a course or set of courses. There is no reference to relevance, performance, effectiveness, or learning – just a set of courses. Nevertheless, the confusion usually lies between syllabus and curriculum.

Candlin 1984 (as cited in Nunan, 1988, p.3) states that curricula are concerned with making general statements about language learning, learning purpose and experience, evaluation and the role relationships of teachers and learners. According to Candlin (1984), they will also contain banks of learning items and suggestions about how these might be used in class. Syllabuses, on the other hand, are more localized and are based on accounts and records of what actually happens at the classroom level as teachers and learners apply a given curriculum to their own situation. These accounts can be used to make subsequent modifications to the curriculum, so that the developmental process is ongoing and cyclical.

Likewise, syllabus is normally a document which lists the subjects, and contents outline with broad time allocations. Functionally a 'syllabus' is generally unidimensional in the sense it merely presents the content or the subject matter to be studied. In the syllabus there is no indication of implementation strategies. But the 'curriculum' is three dimensional because it takes into account the following factors:

1) The needs of the students; 2) the content; and 3) instructional methodology (Tejomurty, 1994, p.36). Chandra and Sharma (2004, p.78) add that the relationship between curriculum and syllabus is made very clear by the foregoing description of the aims of curriculum. Curriculum is not merely syllabus, because the former is only verbal, book-oriented and theoretical, while the latter is not. Yet, "in its narrowest sense, curriculum may be synonymous to syllabus" (Richards& Renandya, 2002, p.70)

In sum, what one might conclude is that curriculum covers the whole educational program with its content and methods deployed whereas syllabus is only concerned with units of the programs which put a focus on a part of the content. First and foremost, it is important for us

to be clear what perception we have of curriculum. The most common perceptions of curriculum expanded substantially from the types suggested by Glatthorn 1987 (as cited in Print, 1993, p.4) may be described as:

- *"The ideal or recommended curriculum*: what is proposed by scholars as a solution to meet a need and consequently perceived as the most appropriate curriculum for learners.

- *The entitlement curriculum*: what society believes learners should expect to be exposed to as part of their learning to become effective members of that society.

- *The intended or written curriculum*: what organisations develop for the learners in their educational systems and what should be taught by the teachers in that system. This is often referred to as the syllabus by such organizations and systems.

- *The available or supported curriculum*: that curriculum which can be taught in schools through the provision of appropriate resources, both human and material.

- *The implemented curriculum*: what is actually taught by teachers in their classrooms as they and their students interact with the intended and available curricula.

- *The achieved curriculum*: what students actually learnt as a result of their interaction with the implemented curriculum?

- *The attained curriculum*: the measurement of student learning (usually through a testing process) which reveals the learning acquired by students. Measurement is usually based upon the intended curriculum, particularly at systematic levels, though it may be based on the implemented curriculum at classroom level".

However, what is significant for us is the following:

a) - a formalized course of study designed for learners

b) - Conscious planning that attempts to determine learning outcomes

c) - Some form of structure to facilitate that learning. (ibid., p.4)

Traditionally, educational programmes are perceived as syllabuses. The latter received for a long time much interest in design and implementation. 'Later on, and when educational goals and objectives failed to be met, the call for larger view of educational planning was necessary and therefore curriculum development came to light' (Nagaraj, 1989, p.129). Additionally, it would be also reasonable enough, to understand what curriculum design entails, by having a look at the range of curriculum models deployed by curriculum developers. The latter would tend to use the concepts 'curriculum design, curriculum development and curriculum process interchangeably. Nunan (1988, p.37) seems to make a

distinction between design, development and process as he considers that a curriculum process involves four phases:

2- Design phase

3- Development phase

4- Implementation phase

5- Evaluation phase

Curriculum models may be classified according to a continuum that ranges from rational to cyclical to dynamic approaches of curriculum development (Print, 1993, p.60). Curriculum developers and teachers do not often share the same preference of a particular model. Each has respective good reasons.

6.2. Curriculum Models

Curriculum models are believed to be classified according to a continuum which ranges from the rational to the communicative model. The subsequent sections present the development of models in a chronological order. The best known curriculum theory writers are illustrated with the development of their respective models.

6.2.1. Rational model. The Tyler Model, developed by Ralph Tyler in the 1940's in his classical book 'Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction' in which he wrote originally his ideas for his students to give them an idea about principles for making curriculum. He did not intend for his contribution to curriculum to be a lockstep model for developmentIt is also termed objectives, classical and means-end model (Print, 1993). Around forty years ago, Tyler suggested that a rational curriculum is developed by first identifying goals and objectives, then by listing, organizing and grading the learning experiences, and finally, by finding means for determining whether the goals and objectives have been achieved, Tyler 1949 (as cited in Nunan, 1989). Rodgers (1989, p.27) also calls it the conventional view of curriculum, derived from governmental systems design. It has been perspective and rule-driven. It defines a linear sequence of events comprising formulation of objectives, selection of content, task analysis, design of learning activities, definition of behavioural outcomes and evaluative measures for determining the achievement or non-achievement of these outcomes (ibid.)

With "Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction," Tyler 1949 (as cited in Keating, 2006) assigned some learning to teachers. In addition to just teaching students, teachers had responsibility for achieving a set level of performance. The Tyler model proposed, at the first place, that every educational curriculum has to expand and change to accommodate learning

styles and strategies of students, teaching methods of tutors and to reflect the latest development of information and technologies in certain academic fields.

Also, this model suggested that instructors spend equal amounts of time assessing instructional plans and evaluating student learning. The four sections of the book, as previously mentioned, include sections on establishing objectives, focusing on learning experiences, planning and organizing short-term and long-term instruction tutorials and evaluating student and teacher progress.

6.2.2. Taba model. In 1962, Taba wrote a book entitled « Curriculum Development: Theory and Practice » in which she refined Tyler's curriculum development model. Taba's model is considered as a grassroots approach, inductive and teacher approach. She stressed the fact that teachers are the first to determine the students' needs and then they are the one concerned to design a curriculum for them. In this model, the needs of the students are the foundation stone of this curriculum.

Adding three additional stages that involved diagnosing the needs of the learners as a first step and added the selection and organization of content as additional steps. According to Carl (2009), Taba's curriculum design process contained seven main steps:

1. Diagnosis of the learners' educational needs.
2. Formulating specific objectives.
3. Selection of content based on those objectives.
4. Organization of the content into appropriate levels and sequences.
5. Selection of learning experiences that help the students learn the content.
6. Organization of those learning experiences and,
7. Evaluation of whether the objectives are met.

Taba (1962) advocated the inductive approach to curricula development. By inductive, it is meant that curriculum designers start by the specific and move toward the general approach to design, which is not the case with most traditional educational curricula which begin with the general perspectives and then work down to specific details.

Taba (ibid.) believed that the theory evolvement of curriculum development and a method of thinking about it needs to ask what demands and requirements of culture and society are, both for the present and the future. Curriculum is a way of preparing young people to participate in the culture. It is worth mentioning that both Tyler and Taba models of curriculum are considered objective and rational and they are designed to provide a basis for

decisions regarding the selection, structuring and sequencing of the educational experiences. Also, both Tyler and Taba models encapsulate objective and learner-centered approach which break from the traditional subject centered approach during which the subject matter is the center of the curriculum.

The advantage of this curriculum approach in theory and practice is that it is systematic and has considerable organizing power. What is crucial in the approach is the formulation of behavioural objectives - providing a clear notion of outcome so that content and method may be organized and the results evaluated. Yet, this approach to curriculum design has received much criticism. Though its rationality and simplicity helped in gaining much power and success, at the same time it was criticized of having the following drawbacks (Neary, 2002, p.61):

- "At 'lower levels' behavioural objectives may become trite and unnecessary.
- It is difficult to write satisfactory behavioural objectives for 'higher levels' of learning (even in science and technology).
- The 'affective domain' cannot be assessed adequately.
- Behavioural objectives will discourage 'creativity' on the part of both teacher and learner.
- Behavioural objectives are 'undemocratic' in that they aim to make the result of learning predetermined by outside control.
- Use of behavioural objectives may imply a false division between 'cognitive', 'effective' and 'psychomotor' domains".

Lovat and Smith (1995, p.110) criticized the rational model as being static and undertaking no dynamic changing in the other domains, the fact which would lead other curriculum designers to constantly change in the content. They contend that "They are [rational models] primarily inaccurate because they assume that the curriculum and teaching/learning processes are static, rather than dynamic; linear and sequential, rather than complex and multidirectional)".

By way of consequence, there was an urgent need for an alternative. The latter came to light by looking to curriculum as a process rather than as a product.

Conclusion

Literature has shown that there is no big difference between curriculum and syllabus in the narrow sense. Yet, curriculum may be in its broad meaning a set of theoretical guidelines that form the whole course based on a particular theoretical approach to teaching. In ESP contexts, every particular curriculum fits a particular group or category of learners. The first known

curricula were Taba and Tylor Models which were categorised as static and logical models to curriculum design. The previously-mentioned curricula have been criticised by adherent of dynamic and communicative approaches.

Ungraded Assignment

1. Compare the following curriculum models. The first example is given as a sample.

Curriculum Model	Strengths	Drawbacks	Practicality on Research Context
Tyler Model	.	.	- It is government-driven curriculum where objectives are dictated and followed as they are. - Stakeholders may not be able to write good in-class behavioural objectives. - It can inspire nowadays stakeholders to develop adjusted logical curriculum that meets present learners' needs.
Taba model			

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Lecture Twelve

ESP Curriculum –Part 2

Description	In addition to the common curriculum models previously stated, there have been other models which appeared later such as; cyclical, process, brown and communicative which are demonstrated in this lecture. Each type enjoys some advantages and suffers from pitfalls. Yet, every model can be just perfect to a particular group of learners.
Objectives	By the end of the lecture, students are supposed to be able to: 1. Know the rest of the most common types of curriculum 2. Depict similarities and differences between curricula 3. Link every curriculum type to a prospective group of learners.
Potential Difficulties	Again, students may find the theoretical framework much daunting and cannot decide which model is suitable to their prospective learners.
Prospective Solutions	Assignment designed by the teacher may be helpful in depicting the main differences between curriculum models, the learners and settings. The teacher works with the students in a whole class task due to time constraints. Corrective feedback is given immediately before moving a step further. A full understanding of each model is imperative at this stage. N.B. similar assignment is given in both lecture 11 and 12 which comprises curriculum types and ESP learners

Introduction

Though Taba model came as a refinement to the rational model, it was considered as akin to Tylor's. These two curriculum types were later harshly criticised by wheeler cyclical curriculum in the 1970s which included evaluation at every stage. Yet, this model was no exception; it has been remedied by process and dynamic models which introduced teachers and learners in the process. Afterwards, Brown model came to light as flexible and dynamic type. This model was followed by the communicative curriculum whose first aim is the involvement of the teacher and the learners in the process in addition to view the nature of the language as a communicative tool not as an end itself.

6.2.3. Wheeler cyclical model. This model came as a major criticism to Tyler model for it represents an ends-means view of education. Lawton 1973 (as cited in Nunan, 1988, p.12) suggests that: "One objection to the whole curriculum model based on the four-stage

progression from objectives to content to organisation to evaluation in that this is far too simple. For one reason, it is open to Bruner's suggestion that leaving evaluation until the final stage of the curriculum process is rather like doing military intelligence after the war is over: in other words, evaluation should take place at every stage. This would make the curriculum model a cyclical one rather than a linear model."

Print (1993) was one of the researchers who viewed that this type of models may have been undervalued by many scholars. Typically, it is Wheeler (1974) and Nicholls (1976) who are associated with this model. For this reason, Wheeler (1967) developed a more integrated cyclical model. The latter shares with Tyler model the same main principles such as aims, objectives and goals starting by selecting learning experiences and then going down to the selection of content, taking into account the organisation and integration of learning experiences and then specifies evaluation.

Print (ibid.) adds that cyclical models brought about major difference for that they view the curriculum process as a continuing activity, rather than the static process which the rational models tend to promote. This may be especially important given the dynamic nature of law. However, Wheeler's view of the model has been criticized as being too closely aligned with the rational models. Wheeler's upholds the contention that most curriculum theories which were into play did not work in practice, so he opted to develop his own which was based on logical development. It is most likely that Wheeler's model was criticized for the simple reason that it is based on this adherence to the logical process thus resulting in the view that Wheeler's model is really a rational approach.

6.2.4. Process model. As its name suggests the process model focuses on:

- Teacher activities (and therefore the teacher's role)
- Student and learner activities (perhaps the most important feature)
- The conditions in which the learning takes place.

In sum, this model of curriculum is what actually happens in the classroom and what people do to prepare and evaluate. What we have in this model is a number of elements in constant interaction. It was Stenhouse (1975, pp.4-5) who first introduced one of the best-known explorations of a process model of curriculum. He attempted a cautious definition of process curriculum as follows as suggests that a curriculum is rather like a recipe in cookery:

"A curriculum is an attempt to communicate the essential principles and features of an educational proposal in such a form that it is open to critical scrutiny and capable of effective translation into practice'. It can be criticized on nutritional or gastronomic grounds - does it

nourish the students and does it taste good? - and it can be criticized on the grounds of practicality - we can't get hold of six dozen larks' tongues and the grocer can't find any ground unicorn horn! A curriculum, like the recipe for a dish, is first imagined as a possibility, then the subject of experiment. The recipe offered publicly is in a sense a report on the experiment."

We, to some extent, share Stenhouse the same opinion that a curriculum can vary according to taste. Yet, we would contend that satisfying all tastes is a task has ever been far from complete.

6.2.5. Dynamic model. Most of the curriculum models represent the most commonly used curriculum modes used by teachers. The previously-mentioned rational-objective curriculum models were based on the objectives of the educational programme by the end of the course either set by governments, teachers, sponsors or any other stakeholders, and it is generally top-down approach in nature. Whereas the process model emerges from the child's interests and needs, the dynamic model encompasses the stakeholders' collaborative and interactive deliberation over the curriculum (John et.al, 2012, p.131)

Like the rest of the curriculum designers, scholars tend to look for a model of curriculum which is less complex or at least less convoluted than rational models. One of the main advocates of this model is Walker (1971). Walker's 1971 model consists of the following three phases:

1. The platform
2. The deliberation phase
3. The curriculum design phase (pp. 51-65)

According to Print (1993, p.74), the dynamic model seeks to condemn all other models on the basis that they do not reflect the reality of the development of curriculum in the unique environment of educational establishments. Print (ibid.) as proponents of the model further argues that curriculum development does not and never follow a sequential pattern, so a more malleable approach is not just alluring but unconditionally fundamental.

Further, Print (ibid., p.78) has put forward that this model gives room to curriculum designers to shift attention from solely objectives towards more creative aspects. But by being so creative, it is possible that the developers could mistake or distort what it was that they were originally trying to achieve. In this case, it is apparent that dynamic and rational approaches to curriculum design often conflict for the simple reason that proponents of the

dynamic model would argue that the rational model can never really be effective because of its inflexibility.

Despite the fact that Walker's model was accounted simple and general to curriculum design; it was severely criticized of being not the best example to adopt. In other words, subsequent scholars like Skilbeck(1984), though an advocate of this model, proposed some changes which expanded its scope. Skilbeck (ibid.) devised a slightly new and more complex model than that of Walker's but it keeps the same discipline and essence.

At first sight, the above-mentioned steps in this model seem to be very similar to the cyclical model proposed by Nicholls. Yet, whereas the cyclical model is based on the same core, it is likely to begin with any of the stages according to the educational setting and objectives, however, the dynamic model tends to have a static and a pre-specified point of departure and arrival.

6.2.6. Brown's curriculum model. Most of language curriculum models development previously mentioned seem to differ regarding emphasis and main components; they have a common aspect which is the fact that curriculum development process is an ongoing cycle.

One example of language curricula that accounts for time and resources constraints is Brown's (1989, 1995a) because of its simplicity and flexibility. Brown's language curriculum development includes at least six components: a) analyzing needs, b) developing goals and objectives, c) putting appropriate norm-referenced and criterion-referenced tests into place, d) adopting, adapting or creating materials, e) supporting teachers in their efforts and f) regularly evaluating all the other five components in a formative manner (and occasionally in a summative matter), Brown, 1989 and 1995a (as cited in Hudson & Brown, 2002)

Figure *6.1*. Components of Language Curriculum Development (Adapted from Brown, 1995a)
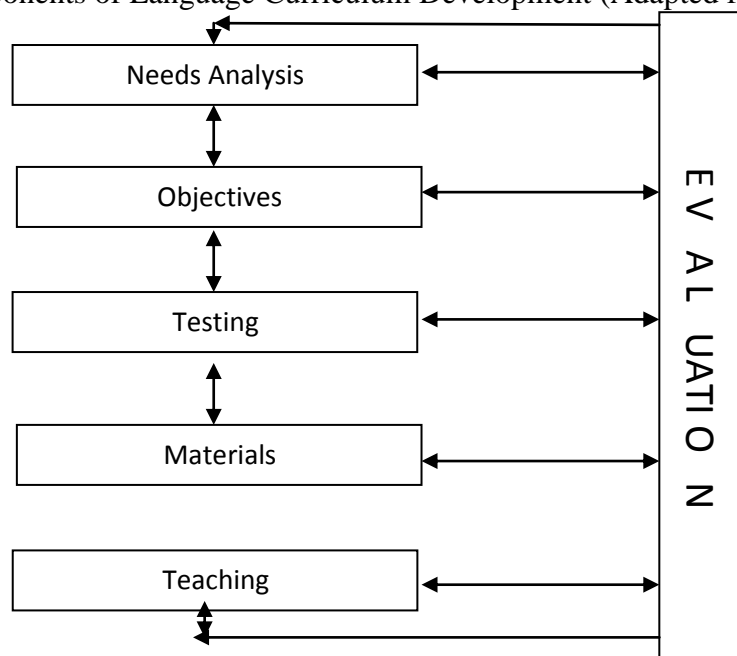
According to Brown (1989, 1995), this curriculum model is a systematic approach to designing and maintaining a language curriculum. It is worth noting that evaluation is integrally interrelated with the other five curriculum components. If one of the components has undergone a series of changes, this will certainly affect the rest of the components and the process as a whole without negatively influencing the process flexibility. The figure above also shows that curriculum evaluation is involved in all phases of development. Starting by NA, Brown (1995, p.36) defined it as "the systematic collection and analysis of all subjective and objective information necessary to define and validate defensible curriculum purposes that satisfy the language learning requirements of students within the context of particular institutions that influence the learning and teaching situations".

Brown (1995a) lists several procedures for gathering information in NA, namely the four broad categories of tests: proficiency, diagnostic, achievement and placement. The latter has been assigned to our population subjects in this study. These tests help in informing NA in several ways.

Regarding materials and testing, Brown (ibid) put forward the most essential curriculum-related questions posed which are:

1. Do the students need to learn the language material or skills outlined in the course objectives?
2. How are the students doing in learning the language material or skills outlined in the course objectives?
3. How much of the language material or skills outlined in the course objectives did the students learn?

4. **Communicative curriculum.** An idealized communicative curriculum draws from three major areas: 'the view of the nature of language as seen by the field of sociolinguistics, a cognitively based view of language learning and a humanistic approach in education', (Dubin & Olshtain, 1986, p.68)

The major difference between a traditional curriculum (based on classical humanism) and a learner-centered curriculum (based on progressivism) is that the latter involves the learners and the teachers in the decision-making process of 'what', 'why' and 'how' to teach. A learner-centered curriculum bases itself on the methodology and the principles of learning-teaching process which are clearly designated to bring about a classroom where an enquiry, activity, discussion, reflection and open-ended personal interpretations feature rather than predetermined objectives, content and mastery level; (Fazili, 2007, p.39)
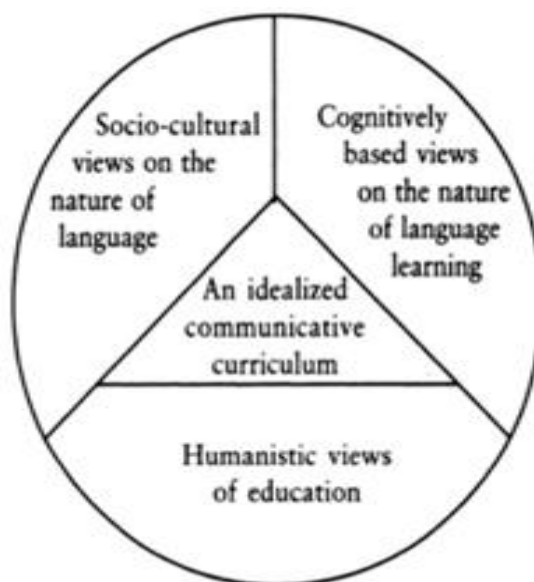
Figure *6.2*. Learner-Centered Curriculum

The outlook of sociolinguistics provides the theoretical perspective on language for communicative curriculum design. Sociolinguistics views language as inseparable from its socio-cultural context (Dubin & Olshtain, op. cit, p. 69). Of consequence to the language teaching profession is the fact that sociolinguistics deals with languages in ways that have far-reaching significance for their teaching and learning, particularly the question: what language do we teach? In terms of our discussion, sociolinguistics plays a vital role in influencing the specification of language content in communicative syllabus (Dubin & Olshtain, 1986, p. 69)

The communicative curriculum defines language learning as learning how to communicate as a member of a particular socio-cultural group. In any communicative event, individual participants bring with them prior knowledge of meaning and prior knowledge of how such meaning can be realized through the conventions of language form and behaviour. The ideas or concepts which are communicated about contain different potential meanings and such potential meanings are expressed though and derived from the formal system of text during the process of communication. Hall et.al (2013, p.10)

Communicative curricula do not look exclusively to a selected target repertoire as specified of curriculum content, for a number of reasons. First, the emphasis on the process of bringing certain basic abilities to bear on the dynamic conventions of communication precludes any specification of content in terms of static inventory language items – grammatical or functional- to be learned in some prescribed ways. Second, the central concern for the development and refinement of underlying competence as a basis for a selected target

repertoire requires a distinction between that target and any content which could be used as a potential means towards it. Third, the importance of the curriculum as a means for the activation and refinement of the process competences of different learners presupposes differentiations, ongoing change, and only short-term predictability in what may be appropriate content. (Hall et.al, ibid., p.20)

Richards (2001, p.20) has given the following five dimensions of language curriculum development:

1. Needs analysis

2. Goals and objectives

3. Syllabus design

4. Methodology

5. Testing and evaluation

Besides being useful in gathering input into the content, design and implementation; a NA can be used in developing goals, objectives and content and hence can "provide data for reviewing and evaluating an existing programme" (Richards, 1990, p. 2). All these elements interact with each other therefore are essential to the process of curriculum development (Brown, 1995, p. 19). All decisions related to language teaching and learning are to be made after an NA is conducted. Only then the language courses can be adjusted to the needs of the learners, and thus, motivate them (Stern, 1992, p. 43).

Curriculum models may be classified according to a continuum that ranges from rational to cyclical to dynamic approaches of curriculum development (Print, 1993, p.60). Curriculum developers and teachers do not often share the same preference of a particular model. Each has respective good reasons.

Conclusion

The lecture has reviewed that curriculum is developed via complex procedure. Given such intricacies, ESP curriculum developers and such as researchers and teachers come to realize that designing a simple, flexible and comprehensive ESP curriculum cannot be an easy task to undertake. Several types of curriculum have been illustrated aiming at selecting the curriculum type that best suits the characteristics of a given group of learners. Yet, the existence of curriculum complexities might be the major reason behind eschewing the development process especially in countries where English is a foreign language like Algeria.

Ungraded Assignments

1. Compare the following curriculum models.

Curriculum Model	Strengths	Drawbacks	Practicality on Research Context
Dynamic/ Process Model			
Wheeler Model			
Communicative Model			
Brown's model			

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Lecture Thirteen

ESP Syllabus

Description	This lecture explains that syllabus can be used interchangeably with curriculum in a narrow sense. It gives a full account of the main syllabus types, learners versus learning, grammatical, functional/notional, and communicative. This lecture also gives account of product versus process; content versus task based syllabus. Yet, syllabus might be, to a great extent, an implementation of the curriculum guidelines into practice (classroom).
Objectives	By the end of the lecture, students are supposed to be able to: 1. Know the most common types of syllabus 2. Depict the similarities between syllabus types 3. Link every syllabus type to a prospective group of learners.
Potential Difficulties	Students may regard theory as insufficient to be good enough to give syllabus guidelines for a group of learners.
Prospective Solutions	The teacher designs a series of assignments by the end of the lecture in order to have a full picture of syllabus, syllabus components and learners' profiles. An example will be illustrated as a sample to follow. Students exchange their answers once they are done and then a correction sheet is given to them for a comparison.

Introduction

A syllabus is an outline and summary of topics to be covered in an education or training course. It is descriptive. Both syllabus and curriculum are often fused, and usually given to learners during the first class session so that the objectives and the means of obtaining them are clear. This lecture will highlight the different approaches to syllabus design and its development over years. Also, how researchers have come to define syllabus according to their perspectives. For instance, leaner-centered versus learning centered approach to syllabus design, structural, functional or communicative approach. Additionally, synthetic or analytic approach which is divided into product versus process-oriented syllabus.

7. Learning versus Learner- Centered Syllabus

According to Hutchinson and Waters (1995), three types of syllabus design are mainly approached. First is language-centered approach which is seen as an undemanding and common to English teachers. It starts its procedures by the learner, identifies the target situation, provides the suitable language and material used, and then evaluates the syllabus items. Being systematic and logic, a language-centered approach is not, however, devoid of a

set of shortcomings. Learners are typically a means of identifying the target situation; they play no more roles during the process and subsequently learners are to perceive only a restricted area of language.

Further, a language-centered process is considered as an analytical procedure of the surface level. Competence is, by no means, taken into consideration during such procedures. For many ESP course designers, it is evident that this syllabus type is still powerful, though, an unacceptable model (Robinson, 1991, p.36)

A Learning- centered approach to course design, in contrast to previously mentioned types, primarily emphasized the being of the learner at every stage of the course design process. Actually, it looks beyond the competence that enables someone to perform, because what is the target is not the competence itself but how someone acquires that competence process (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p.73). The involvement of the learner in each phase would suggest that 'a) the course design is a negotiated process; its components may affect as they may be affected by others. In addition to that, any distinctive nature of syllabus is warranted by the total influence of both learning and target situation and b) the course design is a dynamic process in contrast to language-centered approach'. Needs and resources are not, however, static and fixed; they may, now, undergo a change. Such kind of course design is literally ready to respond to any eventuality of development.

From the foregoing mentioned approaches to syllabus design and how data about learners' needs can be interpreted in favour of designing a comprehensive ESP course, it is apparent that both language and skills-based courses make the course less dynamic and interactive, which is not often the case with a learning-based approach. The latter is regarded as an interwoven procedure, as it is, after all, based on recognition of the complexity of the learning process (Hutchinson & Waters, 1995, p.77).

Syllabuses vary in terms of the content and the details they contain. The reason is that different syllabuses are conceived and designed to suit different purposes. Like approaches to language teaching and learning, syllabus design is inevitably related to, and hence oriented by, philosophical, psychological and methodological constraints (Ennadji & Sadiqi, 1994, pp.135-136. Since there are approaches to teaching methods and curriculum design, there are three main approaches to syllabus design which yielded at least three types of syllabus.

7.1. Structural/Grammatical Syllabus

In the 1960´s the structuralistic approach underlined ELT, so that language learning was totally led by the grammatical domain. The overall knowledge of language rules, structures and patterns became widely known as linguistic competence. Linguistic performance of learners is, thus, conceived as a level at which learners are capable of handling those formal structures and patterns of language. In a description of such a trend to syllabus design, Wilkins (1976, p.2) says: ' in planning the syllabus for such teaching, the global language has been broken down into an inventory of grammatical structures and into a limited list of lexical items'. He, of course, specifies that syllabus designers selected their inventory from these lists according to the following criteria:

1-Simplicity, regularity, frequency and contrastive difficulty for the grammar inventory, and;

2- Frequency, range, availability, familiarity and coverage for the lexical inventory.

7.2. Notional/ Functional Syllabus

In the 1970s, the criteria of the structural/ grammatical syllabus started to be questioned; there was a clarion call towards a shift from structure to meaning. Wilkins (1976) was the pioneer of such change to syllabus approaches. Function and notion are terms generally coined with Wilkins. According to him, a meaning-based syllabus 'takes the communicative facts of language into account from the beginning without losing sight of grammatical and situational factors. It is potentially superior to the grammatical syllabus because it will produce a communicative competence' (Wilkins 1976, p.19). He distinguished three types of meaning as: ideational, modal and functional meaning.

- Meaning that is expressed through grammatical systems in different languages: ideational, cognitive, or propositional meaning;
- Meaning that expresses the speaker's or the writer's attitude: modal meaning; and
- Meaning that is conveyed by the function of an utterance: functional meaning.

He identified also three components of meaning: semantic-grammatical (time, quantity, space), modal (degree of certainty, degree of commitment), and communicative functions (judgement and valuation, suasion, argument, rational enquiry). All these components are, in practice, considered by the notional syllabus whereas the functional syllabus would consider only the communicative functions alone. This is, indeed, one of the shortcomings of Wilkins' approach which he himself admitted and said ' if there is an approximate agreement among scholars on an inventory of semantico-grammatical and modal meaning categories, there is no such solution for the functional ones.

7.3. Communicative Syllabus

The notional/functional syllabus wassoon criticized by some British linguists by merely replacing a set of grammatical items by a list of notions and functions (Richards & Rodgers, 2001).Nunan (1989, p.12) points out that 'among other things, it has been accepted that language is more than simply a system of rules. Language is now generally seen as a dynamic resource for the creation of meaning'. In terms of learning, it is generally accepted that we need to distinguish between 'learning that' and 'knowing how'.

During the1970s, communicative views of language teaching began to be incorporated into syllabus design. The central question for proponents of this new view was, 'what does the learner want/need to do with the target language?' rather than, 'what are the linguistic elements which the learner needs to master? Nunan (1988, p.11). The term *communicative syllabus* is a familiar one to most language teachers. Typically, a communicative syllabus will set out a variety of communicative abilities that the learner should be able to demonstrate at the end of a prescribed course or period of learning (McCarthy & Carter, 2001, p.55).

Whereas notional/functional syllabuses put a focus on learners' needs and perspectives, the communicative syllabus has come to more elaborate emphasis. Munby (1978) was one of the leading figures who introduced the communicative approach to syllabus design. His book provides a model for specifying the syllabus content relevant to the differing needs of ESP learners. He claims that "a specific category of second language participant has specific communicative objectives which are achieved by controlling particular communicative behaviours." (Munby, 1978, p.29). Piepho, 1981 (as cited in Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p.162) discusses the following levels of objective in a communicative approach:

1. an integrative and content level (language as a means of expression)
2. a linguistic and instrumental level (language as a semiotic system and an object of learning)
3. an affective level of interpersonal relationships and conduct (language as a means of expressing values and judgments about oneself and others)
4. a level of individual learning needs (remedial learning based on error analysis)
5. a general educational level of extra-linguistic goals (language learning within the school curriculum).

7.4. Other Types of Syllabus

We can distinguish mainly, according to Nunan (1988), between two types of syllabus: product-oriented and process-oriented

7.4.1. Product oriented syllabus. A product oriented syllabus focuses on the skills and knowledge the learner has to get, in order to communicate in the language. In other words, the focus is on the product (Nagaraj, 2002, p.158). This kind of syllabus is much more interested in content selection and end-product which encapsulates the skills intended to be developed. Product oriented syllabus is widely opted by language-centered adherents. Generally held views agree upon the fact that grammatical syllabuses are product oriented syllabuses in nature. The outcomes of the said syllabus can be, broadly, defined into knowledge-oriented or skill-oriented types. When syllabus planners focus on the former type, they have to list elements and content that learners are expected to master at the end of the course (Dubin & Olshtain, 1986).

Consequently, the distinction between the above orientations of the product syllabus would be of utility as far as language teaching in concerned. While knowledge/ content syllabus is approached without particular analysis needs of learners, it is quite suitable for General English language teaching programmes. Nevertheless, skills orientation to syllabus planning is much more appropriate to teaching ESP.

7.4.2. Process oriented syllabus. In recent years, some applied linguists have shifted focus from the outcomes of instruction, i.e. knowledge and skills to be gained by the learner, to the process through which knowledge and skills might be gained (Nunan, 1988). Now, process syllabuses focus on the learning experiences themselves (Kudchedkar, 2002, p.159). Dubin and Olshtain (1986, p.46) ascribe the following points to process happening:

1. The organization of the language content which brings about certain activities.
2. The role that teachers and learners take during the learning process.
3. The types of activities and tasks in which learners.

At this stage, the notion of *what* learners are expected to know is no more an option, now the shift is towards *how* learners can be able to know what they are expected to know. The focus on the experiential 'process' aspect is presented thoroughly in Breen's ELT Curriculum cited in Nagaraj (2002, p.160). The framework consists of several levels and is summarized as follows:

- Level 1: decisions for classroom language learning: it encompasses participation, procedure and subject-matter; who does what, with whom, on what content, with what resources, when, how and why?
- Level 2 : alternative procedures: are chosen from and agreed upon as a basis for working contract of the classroom

- Level 3: alternative activities: are selected from, on the basis of appropriateness to decisions at level 1
- Level 4: alternative tasks: are selected and undertaken within activities.

At the final level, activities, tasks and procedures are evaluated in accordance to decision made initially.

7.4.3. Content – based syllabus. Using content from other disciplines in language courses in not a new idea. For years, specialized language courses have included content relevant to a particular profession or academic discipline. So, for example, the content of a language course for airline pilots is different from one for computer scientists (Freeman, 2000, p.137).

For this reason, the question of what content to teach to different learners group led to devising a syllabus that incorporates the intended content. The terms content-based instruction (CBI) and content-based syllabus were initially used interchangeably. Content- based syllabus is the one organized around themes, topics and other units of content. Content, rather than grammar, functions or situations is the starting point in the syllabus (Richards, 2001).

Eskey 1997 (as cited in Master, 2000, p.93) labels CBI a syllabus and says:

"The content-based syllabus is best viewed as a still newer attempt to extend and develop our conception of what a syllabus for a second-language course should comprise, including a concern with language form and language function, as well as a crucial third dimension-- the factual and conceptual content of such courses"

7.5. Task-Based Syllabus

Task based syllabus came to light as a shift from emphasis on product to process; now learning is viewed as a process which grows out of the interaction of learners inside of the classroom about prospective real life situations. With task based syllabus, the real world is imported to the classroom. It seems necessary, first, to define the term 'task' and examine its implications in the design of courses and the implementation of courses with learning materials and activities.

7.5.1. Task. One would first embark on highlighting what task exactly means in language teaching/learning before launching to how syllabuses are designed according to tasks selections. In a broader view, Long 1985 (as cited in Nunan, 1988, p.45) provides a definition of tasks – far from language teaching- that entail language and those which are carried out without using language. He contends that a task is: "…a piece of work undertaken for oneself or for others, freely or for some reward. Thus, examples of tasks include painting a fence, dressing a child, filling out a form, buying a pair of shoes, making an airline

reservation…in other words, by "task" is meant hundred and one things people do everyday life."

More narrowly, one of the workable and comprehensive definitions of task is provided by Richards, Platt and Platt (1992, p.373) as they put forward that a task in teaching is an activity which is designed to help achieve a particular learning goal.

7.5.2. Task –based instruction. Task-based syllabus comprises a list of tasks (for example, giving instructions or following directions) that the students will perform. It is argued that tasks provide a purpose for using language meaningfully and that through struggling to use language to complete the task, the students acquire language (Basturkmen, 2006, p.24)

Prahbu 1987 (as cited in White, 1988, p.104) explains:

"Task-based teaching operates with the concept that, while the conscious mind is working out some of the meaning content, a subconscious part of the mind perceives, abstracts or acquires (or recreates, as a cognitive structure) some of the linguistic structuring embodied in those entities, as a step in the development of an internal system of rules."

The performance of meaningful tasks takes place through interaction and meaning negotiation. Ellis (2003, p.3) made a distinction between tasks and exercises. While the former are related to pragmatic meaning, the latter are concerned with semantic meaning. He adds that exercise is 'form-focused' whereas a task is 'meaning focused'.

Hence such kind of task was labelled by Nunan (1989) a communicative task. He clarifies that during such task learners are comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language. As a whole process of understanding, using and producing information, this seems to be processing the information contained in the data by using a number of strategies. 'Focus on meaning' and 'completeness' are aspects which Nunan's (1989) definition shares with Skehan's 1996 (as cited in Mishan, 2005, p.68) '... an activity in which meaning is primary; there is some relationship to the real world; task completion has some priority; and the assessment of task performance is in terms of task outcome.'

## 7.6. Analytic and Synthetic Syllabus

Wilkins (1976) described two basic kinds of syllabus: synthetic and analytic, and claimed that all syllabi lay somewhere between these two poles. Initially people tended to equate synthetic approaches with grammatical syllabuses. However, some applied linguists feel that the term 'synthetic' need not necessarily be restricted to grammatical syllabuses, but

may be applied to any syllabus in which the content is product-oriented (Nunan, 1988, p.28). Wilkins (1976, p.2) contends that in the synthetic syllabus: "The learner's task is to re-synthesize the language that has been broken down into a large number of small pieces".

The analytic syllabuses, in which learners are exposed to language which has not been linguistically graded, are more likely to result from the use of experiential rather than linguistic content as the starting point for syllabus design. Such content might be defined in terms of situations, topics, themes (Nunan, 1988, p.38)

Here, we may conclude that a syllabus addresses the question of what to teach, whereas method answers the enquiry of in which way or how to teach what have been already selected. Nunan (1988, p.52) realizes the fact that with the development of process, task-based and content syllabuses, the distinction between syllabus design (specifying the *what*) and methodology (specifying the *how*) has become blurred. Figure 3.4. below sums up the procedure of designing a syllabus:
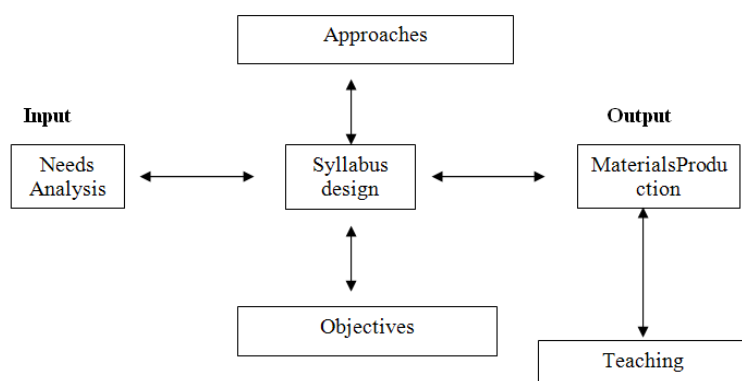
Figure *7.1*. Syllabus Design Procedure

7.7. ESP Syllabus Components

Graves (1996) has put forward a framework of components which is useful for several reasons:

a) It provides an organized way of conceiving of a complex process
b) It sets forth domains of inquiry for the teacher.
c) It provides a set of terms currently used in talking about course development

Table 7.1.

Syllabus Components

Needs Assessment	*What are my students' needs? How can I assess them so that I can address them?*
Determining Goals and Objectives	*What are the purposes and intended outcomes of the course? What will my students need to do or learn to achieve these goals?*
Conceptualizing Context	*What will be the backbone of what I teach? What will I include in my syllabus*
Selecting and Developing Materials and Activities	*How and with what will I teach the course? What is my role? What are my students' roles?*
Evaluation	*How will I assess what students have learned? How will I assess the effectiveness of the course?*
Consideration of Resources and Constraints	*What are the givens of my situation?*

Conclusion

An ESP syllabus usually contains specific information about the course; it is very well detailed and suitable to the learners' needs and objectives. To attain the latter, syllabus might be designed according to various approaches that have to meet the learners' expectations. It can be learner or learning centered, grammatical, discourse-based or communicative. In some other cases, it can be process or product oriented, content and task based approach. Finally synthetic and analytic syllabus will conclude the lecture. The previously mentioned approaches are intertwined; they just differ in the appellation and the perspective they are tackled from.

Ungraded Assignments

1. Based on Graves framework, give syllabus guidelines for the following learning cases:

Example Case 1 (Answer given)

Here is a brief description of students who work as members of sales team for a company that sells video cameras around the world. They frequently speak on the phone to clients and often receive complex orders by phone. They sometimes visit potential customers in different countries and make presentations about the firm and its products. They also have social contact with many clients and they need to feel more confident about talking with them. Their English level is pre-intermediate. Their pronunciation is particularly weak and many words are incorrectly stressed.

Answer:

Determining Goals and Objectives

By the end of the course,

1. students will be able to be fluent in selling products and convincing the client to purchase
2. Students will be able to understand the orders they receive and respond accordingly
3. Students will be able to mark word stress correctly and pronounce vowels and consonants appropriately.
4. Students will speak English for social purposes

Conceptualizing Context

The skills that must be emphasized are speaking and listening,

Cross-Cultural awareness

Grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation

Functional language: giving orders, convincing, asking for permission...etc.

Selecting and Developing Materials and Activities

Course book

Role play

Role cards

Drilling (minimal pairs)

Group work, WC work, pair work

Teacher's role as a monitor or a facilitator

Evaluation

Continuous assessment of listening and speaking proficiency

Comparison of pronunciations and whether there is a progress

Peers evaluation

The level of the activities given (too difficult or too easy

Consideration of Resources and Constraints

Large-size class

Small size class

Available and effective textbooks

Fellow teachers' past experience

Some suggested activities:

- They listen to detailed information and make notes on, for example, numbers and product names. This activity could be done over the phone if one is available to use.

- For homework, they prepare a ten-minute presentation on a work-related subject. In class, they make their presentation and the teacher gives them oral feedback on the language they used. They could also be given a short written feedback form which notes grammar, lexis and pronunciation problems. Later in the course, they could try the task again and see if they have improved.

- The teacher prepares a worksheet listing many words they commonly use in their work. They attempt to mark the stress patterns and to pronounce them correctly.

- Students play a role of meeting with each other, e.g., at a party and chat about topics of interest.

Case 2

Hotel Receptionists

Their level is intermediate, working in a 5 star hotel which receives foreigners from all around the world. They register and help holidaymakers and English is widely used in checking in and out. They have to direct their guests and receive their calls from hotel rooms, room service, laundry, noise...etc.

Hotel receptionists show difficulty in writing confirmation or regretting emails or faxes to their clients. They sometimes resort to some sites of translation to translate letters and emails they receive from English speaking clients.

Determining Goals and Objectives

By the end of the course, Students are supposed to:

....

Conceptualizing Context

....

Selecting and Developing Materials and Activities

....

Evaluation

....

Suggested Activities

....

Case 3

Undergraduates in an Asian Technological Institute

This group of learners needs: to read a relatively small number of textbooks in English, both on general technological subjects and on their own specific discipline. Infrequently, to follow a talk given in English by a visiting lecturer to make use of notes taken from English-language textbooks in their writing (reports, essays, examination questions) in the mother tongue.

Determining Goals and Objectives

By the end of the course, Students are supposed to:

....

Conceptualizing Context

....

Selecting and Developing Materials and Activities

....

Evaluation

....

Suggested Activities

....

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Lecture Fourteen

ESP Practitioner and Learner

Description	In the classroom, ESP practitioner and learners meet and this is why in this lecture a brief description of ESP teacher and learners is presented. The profiles of the ESP practitioner and ESP learners are highlighted in contrast to EGP teacher and learners respectively.
Objectives	By the end of the lecture, students are supposed to be able to: 1. Deduce the similarities between ESP and EGP learner 2. Make the difference between ESP and EGP teacher's characteristics. 3. Be acquainted with the ESP practitioner's roles
Potential Difficulties	Students may not be able to link the profile of ESP learners with the type of syllabus that should be designed.
Prospective Solutions	Real life scenarios will be given to discuss in class or to present as a project. Students work in groups and then mingle to exchange answers and discus with their peers. Immediate feedback will be given from the teacher after each case study to be taken as a model for the rest of cases.

Introduction

In the first and second lectures, we have shed light on several types of needs; mainly linguistic (target) and learning (felt) needs. The latter are as important as the target needs. Learners should be considered at every stage of NA. Perceptions, attitude, and feelings of the learners are now equivalent to the subject matter as regards significance. Hence in addition to meet the learners' linguistic needs, age, motivation and level are also crucial to consider. It goes without saying that only the ESP practitioner who can conduct a relevant NA. This is apparently stated in the section about the roles of ESP teacher which concludes the lecture.

7.8. ESP Learners

Learners' age, attitudes, learning strategies and motivation have been the areas of interest for many research studies conducted in the Arab world and elsewhere (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987; Dudley-Evansand St. John, 1998; Sifakis, 2003; Adams-Smith, 1989; Al-asmari & Javid, 2011)

7.8.1. Age. The old learner is, the more likely he is to have his own definite ideas on why he is learning English. In fact, many ESP learners are adults. For someone who has left secondary school and he is now returning to or continuing his studies of English. The utility of learning English is likely to be more apparent. It is then a question of matching the needs

of the learner as he sees them with his needs as perceived by his teacher. There is likely to be more agreement on needs between teacher and student at adult level since the purposes are more clearly defined. Also, Sifakis (2003) referred to ESP adult learners in terms of age, educational, professional, and social background. He characterized adulthood in terms of age, social status, and a number of values adults possess. In the same vein, Knowles (1990) interpreted adulthood in terms of maturity, ability to make appropriate judgments based on experience, and autonomy. This last characteristic is of particular interest because autonomy prompts adults to make decisions responsibly, and drives their motivation as a key element in their acquisition of language.

He also stated that adults are primarily workers and then learners, whose knowledge has been acquired through experience, but that is not too often the case. Dudley- Evans and St. John (1998) have also stated that ESP courses are usually designed for adult learners at "tertiary level" or for work place situations. These courses may be designed for the learners at secondary school level as well (ibid.). Learning behaviors of adults can be better understood in contrast with pre-adults or adolescents who are dependents and strictly supervised by their parents and teachers. They feel comfortable in this restricted and directed atmosphere of formal schools and universities. . They follow their studies without having a clear objective in their minds. Abbot (1981) called this phenomenon of learning without obvious learning objectives as "teaching of English for no obvious reasons (TENOR)". These TENOR learners do not have high motivation for learning because of the lack of clearly-defined learning needs. The adults have been identified "primarily workers and secondarily learners" (Sifakis, 2003, p. 3).

7.8.2. Level. The balance which has to be maintained between the linguistic and the conceptual level of the learner is perhaps more evident in ESP programs than in general English. The learner may, for instance, be a trained scientist or technocrat able to operate within his field in his own language but not in English. The teacher's task here is to teach language, but the texts he chooses must be significant to the student in their content. This presents problems to the teacher who may be insecure or lacking in specialist knowledge when faced with specialist texts.

7.8.3. Motivation. If it is possible to find out a student's motivation for learning English and match the content of the course to this motivation, the chances of successful language learning are increased. There are two main kinds of motivations, instrumental and integrative. The former stands for the motivation for learning where English is seen as a means to

achieving some practical or professional purpose; whereas the latter is where learners identify with the social or cultural aspects of learning English. that is most ESP learners are adults coming to the class with a considerably high motivation and they usually have academic and professional goals they want to reach through the acquiring or improving their professional and language performance. McDonough (1984) characterizes adult learners as typical ESP learners, and describes them as responsible for their own learning.

Robinson (1991) referred to adults as goal-oriented people who do not want to learn English because they are interested in it, or because of pleasure or cultural reasons, but because they need it as an instrument that will help them reach their study and work goals, and consequently will help them advance professionally. These considerations are important in the development of ESP curriculum. It should be borne in mind that adult learners are almost always voluntarily engaged in the learning process; conscious of their progress, and reflective on their own learning. Curriculum designers are now responsible for succeeding in getting learners more involved in the course and by so doing they have to increase or at least keeps learners' motivation to learning and improving their commitment to fully participate in the course

It is a danger in assuming that an accountant in a company wants to take ESP classes because he enjoys studying English after work hours. In many companies, the manager links a promotion with ESP class overtime. However, a businessman who would like to expand his business would not mind attend classes for the sake of his career progress. In both cases, high and low motivation plays a crucial role in learning success or failure.

7.8.4. True and false beginners. Before attempting to answer this question, it would be plausible enough to make a distinction between two types of beginners; false and true beginners. Gambhir (1996) claims that false beginners have had some exposure to the target language before coming to the class; true beginners have had no such prior exposure. Whereas Willis and Willis (1988) define false beginners as people who have had some experience of the foreign language, and usually some tuition, but who, for one reason or another, haven't progressed beyond elementary level, or have forgotten what they had once learned.

According to Bloor & Bloor (1986) teaching a specific variety of English (ESP) can start at any level including beginners. Moreover, learning from the specific variety of English (for example, English for doctors, English for hospitality), is highly effective as learners acquire

structures in relation to the range of meanings in which they are used in their academic, workplace, or professional environments .

The idea that different varieties of English are based on a common set of grammatical and other linguistic characteristics has been widespread. The idea is reflected in the following quotation from Quirk who argued that learners need to come to grips with basic English before they study English for specific purposes.

Likewise, Beer (2003) claims that in most cases learners already possess some degree of general English competence and are simply seeking additional language knowledge to perform the task already in their native language. Dudley Evans (1998) gives a compromise and asserts that most ESP courses assume some basic knowledge of the language system, but that they can be used with beginners.

7.9. The ESP Practitioner

The question of the role of the ESP teacher is a very important and a controversial one, in many situations the teacher expects or is expected to control the class, to provide information about skills and language, to control the activities, possibly moving into pair or group work for part of the class, but always at the suggestion of the teacher. In these situations the role for the teacher generally matches the expectations of the learners. We define this teacher role as teacher as provider of input and activities.

In other situations, the teacher manages rather than controls. He becomes facilitator or consultant. A development of this is where the teacher knows relatively little about the content or the skill that is being taught in the ESP class, and proceeds by pulling together and organizing the information that the learners are able to provide about the language or skill. This can seem threatening until we realize that our learners do not expect us to have such knowledge. Business people do not expect a business English teacher to know how to run a business. Doctors do not expect English teachers to diagnose, prescribe, prevent or cure illness; they expect some understanding of the patient-doctor or nurse-doctor interactions so they can learn appropriate language. However, a good ESP practitioner will have certain information to impart to the students.

Ironically, although many 'General English' teachers can be described as using an ESP approach, basing their syllabi on a learner needs analysis and their own specialist knowledge of using English for real communication, many so-called ESP teachers are using an approach furthest from that described above. Coming from a background unrelated to the discipline in which they are asked to teach, ESP teachers are usually unable to rely on personal experiences

when evaluating materials and considering course goals. At the university level in particular, they are also unable to rely on the views of the learners, who tend not to know what English abilities are required by the profession they hope to enter. The result is that many ESP teachers become slaves to the published textbooks available, and worse, when there are no textbooks available for a particular discipline, resolve to teaching from textbooks which may be quite unsuitable. Dudley Evans describes the true ESP teacher or ESP Practitioner (Swales, 1988) as needing to perform five different roles. These are

- **Teacher:** is synonymous with that of the 'General English' teacher. It is in the performing of the other four roles that differences between the two emerge. In order to meet the specific needs of the learners and adopt the methodology and activities of the target discipline

- **Collaborator:** One example of the important results that can emerge from such collaboration is reported by Orr (1995). This collaboration, however, does not have to end at the development stage and can extend as far as teach teaching, a possibility discussed by Johns et al. (1988). When team teaching is not a possibility, the ESP Practitioner must collaborate more closely with the learners, who will generally be more familiar with the specialized content of materials than the teacher him or herself

- **Course designer and materials provider:** Both 'General English' teachers and ESP practitioners are often required to design courses and provide materials. One of the main controversies in the field of ESP is how specific those materials should be. Hansen (1988), for example, describes clear differences between anthropology and sociology texts, and Anthony (1998) shows unique features of writing in the field of engineering. Unfortunately, with the exception of textbooks designed for major fields such as computer science and business studies, most tend to use topics from multiple disciplines, making much of the material redundant and perhaps even confusing the learner as to what is appropriate in the target field. As Johns et al. (1991) describe, there have been few empirical studies that test the effectiveness of ESP courses. For example, the only evaluation of the non compulsory course reported by Hall et al. (1986, p.158) is that despite carrying no credits, "students continue to attend despite rival pressures of a heavy programme of credit courses".

- **Researcher and Evaluator**: ESP teaching calls for an extremely professional behavior on part of ESP teachers who need to update their knowledge by remaining

constantly in touch with the research in the various fields of ESP. Relevant literature seems to suggest that ESP practitioners have to actively indulged in action research as well to keep themselves abreast with the ongoing research in the field of ESP.

Conclusion

A growing mass of research has suggested that considering extremely varied nature of ESP teaching, the ESP leaner has been defined according to several characteristics such as age, motivation, level and attitude. Also, the term "practitioner" is being used instead of teacher to emphasize that ESP pedagogy involves much more than teaching. Furthermore, the following five key roles have been identified for ESP practitioners who need to discharge their work as a 1) teacher, 2) course designer and material provider, 3) collaborator, 4) researcher and 5) evaluator. ESP teachers have to bear the extra burden of the content area of the learners. Additionally ESP practitioners have a challenging task because ESP learners may know more about the content than the teachers.

Ungraded Assignments

1. Aja, your net pal from Singapore, is assigned to tutor a group of Eighteen employees aged 21- 50 of different nationalities; Malaysian, Chinese, Iranian, Jordanian and Saudi-Arabian; working for a branch of an American bank.

The English class takes place two hours three times a week after work. **Middle managers'** work entails understanding American customers and drafting letters and reports as well. They studied English terminology at university for one year and they have not practiced English for more than ten years. Only one of them is in line for promotion. **Telephone operators and secretaries** make and receive phone calls from all around the world and they expect to travel to the US for a short period of experience at banks there. They also receive American visitors and have to respond effectively.

Aja is seeking your assistance to overcome the prospective difficulties faced with this group of learners,

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