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The Effect of Strategic Reading on the Learners’ Proficiency
Case Study: Fourth Year Management Students
at Mohamed Boudiaf University-M’sila

Dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Magister degree in Applied Linguistics and TEFL (Teaching English as a Foreign Language)

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I dedicate this unassuming work to whom I owe love and respect: 
To my dearest parents, and all my esteemed teachers 
To Mr. Seddik Ammari, the previous inspector of English, in M'sila. 
To my brother and my sister. 
To my second family, Brahim, in Bou Saada. 
To my intimate friends: Zahra, Saadia, Malika (Ben Srour) 
To Hanane, Naima. (Bou Saada) 
To Rachad, Hanane (BBA), and Lamia (El Alma) 
To my colleagues Horia, Nacira, Hedia, and Fouzia (Ben Srour) 
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“Wherever there are beginners and experts, old and young, there is some kind of learning on, some sorts of teaching. We are all pupils and we are all teachers”. Gilbert Highet (The Art of Teaching, 1950, in Teaching English Forum, 2003).
The overall aim of this descriptive study which took place at the department of management, at Mohamed Boudiaf University of M’sila is to attempt to ameliorate the teaching / learning of reading skill and the reading comprehension strategies used by fourth year students. Out of 210, 42 subjects (students) was the selected sample, distributed in four branches: Management, Finance, Accounting, and Marketing.

The ability to read in English language is a vital skill since it is regarded an instrument through which those students could comprehend specialised documents related to their field of studies (lessons, texts, and tasks).

Throughout this present study, we have tried to diagnose, describe, and show the core factors and the source of problems which made and brought those students to be poor and less-effective readers, so that to come up at the end, with a petition of some suggestions and recommendations that would appear to extenuate their difficulties and to enhance their abilities.

To this respect, we have opted for interviews and basically questionnaires as data collection tools to get access to the students’ needs, problems in English language in general, and reading courses in particular, their experiences, and their propositions.

The findings of this humble research reveal that the psychological factors have a tremendous effect on this low language proficiency of those students. Lack of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation which in turn resulted from other problems as lack of self-confidence, lack of interest, more reliance on the teacher, and some negative attitudes towards English module are amongst the prominent factors and conditions for that difficult situation.

Results of students’ and their teacher’s interviews and questionnaires indicate toughly that reading comprehension, though important, is a real hurdle for both of them. The teacher herself finds a big difficulty in the appropriate teaching of the reading sessions.

In light of this, and after identification of the problem, we have suggested that taking into account students’ needs, using all stimulant means to boost students’ interest, students’ self-confidence and self-reliance, and training them to exploit the reading comprehension strategies with the good selection of texts would resolve to some extant their problems, hence to improve the teaching / learning of reading comprehension.

The possibility to carry on further researches in the field of reading strategies remains open to include copious subjects such as the effect of strategic reading on learners’ proficiency.
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

A : Answer
BB : Black board
DA : Discourse analysis
EAP : English for academic purposes
E.G. : For example
EGP / GE : English for general purposes / General English
ELT : English language teaching
EOP : English for occupational purposes
ESP : English for specific purposes
L1 : First language
L2 : Second language
NA : Needs analysis
Nbr / no. : Number
PSA : Present situation analysis
Q : Question
RA : Register analysis
Sts : Students
T : Teacher
TESOL : Teaching English to students of other languages
TSA : Target situation analysis
LIST OF TABLES

Table 1: Students’ Attitude towards English Language ........................................... 101
Table 2: Students’ Attitude towards English Speaking-People ................................... 102
Table 3: Students’ View about the Importance of English for their Graduation ........... 103
Table 4: Students’ Attendance in English Lectures .................................................. 104
Table 5: Students’ Performance in English Learning Skills ....................................... 105
Table 6: Students’ Opinions about the Time Allocated to the English Credit ............. 106
Table 7: Students’ Suggestions on the Amount of Time ............................................ 106
Table 8: Students’ Specific Purposes for Requiring English as an ESP course .......... 107
Table 9: Students’ Views on the Importance of Language Skills / Components ........... 109
Table 10: Students’ Reading in English ................................................................. 110
Table 11: Students’ Reading Contents ................................................................. 111
Table 12: Frequency of Students’ Reading in English ............................................. 112
Table 13: Frequency of Students’ Reading in Arabic ............................................. 113
Table 14: Frequency of Students’ Reading in French ............................................. 113
Table 15: Reading Abilities in English ................................................................. 114
Table 16: Students’ Areas of Difficulty when Reading a Text in English .................. 116
Table 17: Students’ Views on Arabic and English Writing Styles as a Source .......... 117
Table 18: Students ’Areas of Difficulty in Writing Styles ........................................ 117
Table 19: Students’ Reading Speed ................................................................. 118
Table 20: Students ’Views on the Causes of Slow Reading ..................................... 119
Table 21: Students’ View on Reading with Purpose ............................................. 120
Table 22: Students’ Reading Purpose ................................................................. 121
Table 23: Students’ Notions on Reading Strategies ............................................. 122
Table 24: Students’ Use of Reading Strategies ..................................................... 123
Table 25: Criteria of Students' Selection of their Strategies .................................... 124
Table 26: Students ‘Strategies to Deal with Reading Problem ................................ 125
Table 27: Students' Strategies for Text Comprehension ....................................... 126
Table 28: Students Strategies for Sentence Comprehension .................................. 127
Table 29: Students ‘Strategies for Word Comprehension ..................................... 129
Table 30: Students' Motivation in English Sessions ............................................. 130
Table 31: Teacher's Role in Motivating Students .................................................. 131
Table 32: Students ‘Views on English Programme Contents .................................. 132
Table 33: Students' Suggestions for the Difficulty of the Content.........................133
Table 34: Relevance of English Contents to Students' Level..................................134
Table 35: Students' Opinion on the Selected Topics..............................................135
Table 36: Students’ Participation in Selecting Texts..............................................136
Table 37: Students’ Attitudes towards the Use of Other languages in English Sessions..136
Table 38: Students’ Views on the Amelioration of English Course Contents.............137
LIST OF GRAPHS

Graph 1: Students’ Attitude towards English Language .................................................. 102
Graph 2: Students’ Attitude towards English Speaking-People ...................................... 102
Graph 3: Students’ View about the Importance of English for their Graduation ............. 103
Graph 4: Students’ Attendance in English Lectures ......................................................... 104
Graph 5: Students’ Performance in English Learning Skills .......................................... 105
Graph 6: Students' Opinions about the Time Allocated to the English Credit ................. 106
Graph 7: Students' Suggestions on the Amount of Time .................................................. 107
Graph 8: Students' Specific Purposes for Requiring English as an ESP Course .............. 108
Graph 9: Students' Views on the Importance of Language Skills / Components ............. 109
Graph 10: Students' Reading in English ........................................................................ 110
Graph 11: Students' Reading Contents ............................................................................ 111
Graph 12: Frequency of Students' Reading in English .................................................... 112
Graph 13: Frequency of Students' Reading in Arabic ....................................................... 113
Graph 14: Frequency of Students' Reading in French ...................................................... 114
Graph 15: Students’ Reading Abilities in English ............................................................. 115
Graph 16: Students’ Areas of Difficulty when Reading a Text in English ..................... 116
Graph 17: Students' Views on Arabic and English Writing Styles ................................. 117
Graph 18: Students’ Areas of Difficulty in Writing Styles ............................................... 118

Table 19: Students’ Reading Speed .................................................................................. 119

Graph 20: Students' Views on the Causes of Slow Reading ........................................... 120
Graph 21: Students' View on Reading with Purpose ....................................................... 121
Graph 22: Students’ Reading Purpose ............................................................................ 122
Graph 23: Students' Notions on Reading Strategies ....................................................... 123
Graph 24: Students' Use of Reading Strategies ............................................................... 124
Graph 25: Criteria of Students' Selection of their Strategies .......................................... 124
Graph 26: Students' Strategies to Deal with a Reading Problem .................................. 125
Graph 27: Students' Strategies for Text Comprehension ............................................... 126
Graph 28: Students' Strategies for Sentence Comprehension ...................................... 128
Graph 29: Students' Strategies for Word Comprehension ............................................ 129
Graph 30: Students' Motivation in English Sessions ..................................................... 130
Graph 31: Teacher's Role in Motivating Students .......................................................... 131
Graph 32: Students' Views on English Programme Contents ....................................... 132
Graph 33: Students' Suggestions for the Difficulty of the Contents…………………………..133
Graph 34: The Relevance of English Contents to Students' Level………………………….134
Graph 35: Students’ Opinion on the Selected Topics………………………………………135
Graph 36: Students' Participation in Selecting Texts………………………………………136
Graph 37: Students’ Attitudes towards the Use of Other languages in English Sessions..137
Graph 38: Students’ Views on the Amelioration of Course Contents……………………138
List of Figures

Figure 1: ESP Classification by Experience ......................................................... 21
Figure 2: ESP Classification by Professional Area ............................................. 22
Figure 3: Semantic mapping / Brainstorming (Personal Attempt) ..................... 80
# TABLE OF CONTENTS

**GENERAL INTRODUCTION** .................................................................................................................. 1  
1. Background of the Study ......................................................................................................................... 2  
2. Aim of the Study ...................................................................................................................................... 5  
3. Statement of the Problem ......................................................................................................................... 6  
4. Research Question .................................................................................................................................... 7  
5. Hypotheses ............................................................................................................................................... 8  
6. Research Design ....................................................................................................................................... 8  
6.1. Selection of the Method .......................................................................................................................... 9  
6.2. Population and Sample ........................................................................................................................ 9  
6.3. Data Collection Tool ............................................................................................................................. 10  
7. Limitations of the Study ......................................................................................................................... 11  
8. Organization of the Research .................................................................................................................. 11  

**CHAPTER ONE : ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES (ESP)** ......................................................... 13  
Introduction .................................................................................................................................................. 14  

**SECTION ONE : A GENERAL ACCOUNT ON ESP** ........................................................................... 14  
1. ESP Emergence ....................................................................................................................................... 14  
2. ESP Definition ......................................................................................................................................... 17  
2.1. ESP Characteristics ............................................................................................................................. 18  
3. ESP Divisions .......................................................................................................................................... 19  
3.1. English for Academic Purposes (EAP) ............................................................................................... 20  
3.2. English for Occupational Purposes (EOP) ........................................................................................ 20  
3.3. English for Science and Technology (EST) ...................................................................................... 20  
4. ESP Development .................................................................................................................................... 22  
4.1. Register Analysis ................................................................................................................................ 23  
4.2. Discourse Analysis ............................................................................................................................... 24  
4.3. Needs Analysis ..................................................................................................................................... 28  
4.3.1. Target Situation Analysis (TSA) ...................................................................................................... 29  
4.3.2. Present Situation Analysis (PSA) .................................................................................................... 32  
4.4. Skills-based Approach .......................................................................................................................... 32  
4.5. Learning-centred Approach ................................................................................................................ 33  

**SECTION TWO : ESP TEACHER AND THEIR ROLES** ...................................................................... 35  
1. Motivating Students ............................................................................................................................... 36  
1.1. Definition of Motivation ...................................................................................................................... 36
1.2. Types of Motivation ................................................................. 36
1.2.1. Intrinsic Motivation ............................................................. 37
1.2.2. Extrinsic Motivation ............................................................ 37
1.2.3. Instrumental Motivation ......................................................... 37
1.2.4. Integrative Motivation ......................................................... 37
2. Specific Roles ........................................................................... 38
Conclusion .................................................................................. 42

CHAPTER TWO: READING COMPREHENSION SKILL ...................... 43
Introduction .................................................................................. 44
1. Definition of Reading ................................................................. 44
2. Nature of reading ..................................................................... 47
2.1. Bottom-up View of Reading .................................................... 48
2.2. Top-down View of Reading .................................................... 49
2.3. Interactive View of Reading .................................................... 50
3. Schema Theory and the Reading Process ................................ 51
3.1. Types of Schemata ................................................................. 52
3.1.1. Formal Schemata ............................................................... 52
3.1.2. Content Schemata ............................................................. 53
3.2. Activating and Building Schemata ........................................ 53
3.3. Applying Schema Theory to L2 Reading ............................... 54
4. Reading Materials ..................................................................... 55
4.1. Definition of Texts ................................................................. 56
4.2. Types of Texts ....................................................................... 57
5. Types of Reading ...................................................................... 58
5.1. Intensive Reading ................................................................. 58
5.2. Extensive Reading ................................................................. 58
5.3. Critical Reading ................................................................. 59
5.4. Silent Reading ................................................................. 59
5.5. Aloud Reading (Reading Aloud) ............................................ 60
Conclusion .................................................................................. 61

CHAPTER THREE: READING COMPREHENSION STRATEGIES .......... 63
Introduction .................................................................................. 64
1. Definition of Reading Strategies .............................................. 64
2. Distinction between Skills and Strategies ............................... 66
3. Types of Reading Strategies .................................................... 67
4. Second Language Reading Strategies Research .............................................69
5. Reading Strategies and Comprehension ......................................................71
6. Teaching Reading Strategies .....................................................................72
  6.1. Teaching Objectives ..............................................................................74
  6.2. Types of Reading Activity .....................................................................75
  6.2.1. Pre-reading Phase Activities ..............................................................76
        6.2.1.1. Setting purpose ..........................................................................77
        6.2.1.2. Activating prior knowledge .........................................................78
        6.2.1.2.1. Semantic mapping (Brainstorming) ............................................78
        6.2.1.2.2. Class discussion .......................................................................80
        6.2.1.2.3. Anticipation (Previewing / Prediction) ........................................81
        6.2.1.2.4. Prediction ................................................................................83
        6.2.1.2.5. Questioning (Reconciled Reading) .............................................83
        6.2.1.3. Vocabulary development .............................................................84
  6.2. While-reading phase activities ...............................................................86
  6.2.2.1. Identifying the topic .......................................................................86
  6.2.2.2. Finding details in a text .................................................................87
  6.2.2.3. Following a sequence .....................................................................87
  6.2.2.4. Inferring from a text (Reading between lines) ...............................88
  6.2.2.5. Recognising the writer’s purpose and attitude .................................88
  6.2.2.6. Recognising discourse features ......................................................89
  6.2.2.7. Transforming information ..............................................................89
  6.2.2.8. Grammar review ...........................................................................90
  6.2.3. Post-reading phase activities .............................................................90
  6.2.3.1. Evaluation ......................................................................................91
  6.2.3.2. Appreciation ..................................................................................92
  6.2.4. SQ3R strategy ...................................................................................92
Conclusion .........................................................................................................94

CHAPTER FOUR: FIELD INVESTIGATION: RESULTS AND DISCUSSION ..........96
Introduction ......................................................................................................97
1. Students’ questionnaire ..............................................................................97
  1.1. Aim of the questionnaire ......................................................................98
  1.2. Administration of the questionnaire ....................................................98
  1.3. Description of the questionnaire ...........................................................98
  1.4. Analysis of the results ..........................................................................101

XIII
2. Teacher’s questionnaire…………………………………………………………139
  2.1. Aim of the questionnaire…………………………………………………139
  2.2. Description of the questionnaire…………………………………………139
  2.3. Analysis of the results………………………………………………………141
  Conclusion………………………………………………………………………150

**CHAPTER FIVE : PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS**………………………………….153

Introduction………………………………………………………………………154
  1. Suggestions and Recommendations…………………………………………154
  1.1. Need for Experienced and Specialised Teachers in ESP………………154
  1.2. Teachers’ Collaboration……………………………………………………155
  1.3. Promoting Students’ Motivation………………………………………156
  1.4. Creating a Healthy Classroom Environment…………………………157
  1.5. Adaptability of English Course Contents to Students’ Abilities……157
  1.6. Teaching Reading Comprehension Strategies…………………………158
  1.7. Increasing Time Amount…………………………………………………158
  1.8. Changing Students’ Negative Attitudes towards English Module……158
  2. Designing Sample Lessons…………………………………………………159
  2.1. Aim and Justification of the Method……………………………………159

**LESSON ONE**……………………………………………………………………160

**LESSON TWO**…………………………………………………………………171

**LESSON THREE**………………………………………………………………181

**ADDITIONAL TEXTS**…………………………………………………………190

Conclusion………………………………………………………………………193

**GENERAL CONCLUSION**……………………………………………………194

**References**……………………………………………………………………196

**Appendices**……………………………………………………………………205

**Appendix A** : Teacher’s interview………………………………………………206

**Appendix B** : Students’ interview………………………………………………207

**Appendix C** : Students’ questionnaire………………………………………208

**Appendix D** : Teacher’s questionnaire………………………………………214

Résumé………………………………………………………………………………219

**Arabic Summary**………………………………………………………………220
GENERAL INTRODUCTION

1. Background of the Study ................................................................. 2
2. Aim of the Study ........................................................................... 5
3. Statement of the Problem ............................................................. 6
4. Research Question ........................................................................ 7
5. Hypotheses ..................................................................................... 8
6. Research Design ............................................................................ 8
6.1. Selection of the Method .............................................................. 9
6.2. Population and Sample ............................................................... 9
6.3. Data Collection Tool ................................................................. 10
7. Limitations of the Study ............................................................... 11
8. Organization of the Research ....................................................... 11
1. Background of the study

Since the new millennium, the necessity to communicate, understand, and share others’ views and experiences has become an evident reality. Today, an international exchange of ideas in different areas attracts a lot of people. Learning about environmental issues such as the thinning of Ozone layer and the global warming, medical topics as “genetic engineering” (Salmani-Nodoushan, 2002, p. 1), and political / economic crises, is important at times even urgent. To meet these ever-changing communication needs, more and more people have extraordinarily specific aims to polish up their language skills. To strike gold, those individuals demanded courses that fall under the heading English for specific purposes (ESP).

ESP areas are various. People want to study English to satisfy their every-day life needs. For instance, chemists, engineers, doctors, lawyers, and businessmen all share one common point that English is their tool to arrive at their targets. So, learning this language is their unique arm to be backed to their road of success.

Flowerdew (1990, p. 326) made it crystal clear that ESP and business English, in particular, is spreading to “hitherto relatively untapped areas; mainly in European countries where they are motivated to develop a single European market”.

Consequently, it can be said that with the current economic urges and the technological developments, foreign languages teaching and learning become a fundamental requirement to reach certain professional academic and personal success. Evidently, the enormous bulk of technical and scientific literature is written nowadays in English, thus being capable to read in this “global language” (Crystal, 2003, p. 1) is vital in secondary and tertiary settings.

Reading is regarded as the most essential ability that the non-English speaking students need. It is perhaps the most investigated and enigmatic language skill. Many people in different fields as linguistics, psychology, and second language researches have been interested in enquiring various issues associated to the scope of reading. The care which is devoted to this life skill is due to the fact that it is so crucial and hence worth to be highly scrutinized. It is mainly through reading that one gets access to the world of knowledge transmitted via ideas, feelings, behaviours, and so on.

Efficient reading in English language, either for general or specific purposes is paramount for better achievements in today's world. However, it is still frequent to find people, in our case students, who are unable to read in “a comprehensive and autonomous way” (Ramirez Verdugo, 2001, p. 1) in this foreign language.
Many students may encounter different problems in their reading comprehension. Some of them are able to deal with these problems in diverse situations thrillingly. They could use some tactics and techniques to overcome the difficulties they met while reading. But some of them are sloppy. They might give up reading at all as they lack self-confidence and certain abilities to repair their reading. Therefore, in such cases, it is the very job of the teacher to provide a healthy atmosphere for his or her learners to practise properly their reading. Teachers may give them a pat on the back.

In another word, teachers play a great role in helping their students to diagnose then to relieve their troubles. With their brain-intelligence and experience, a teacher could do a lot to drive learners toward a positive effective reading. This could be attained through motivating them, creating an awareness of learning flexibility, and setting tasks to develop their linguistic and more importantly communicative capacities. In dealing with these communicative abilities, or as it is labeled “communicative competencies», Oxford (1990,p.8) stated : “All appropriate language learning strategies are oriented toward the broad goal of communicative competence. Development of communicative competence requires realistic interaction among learners using meaningful contextualized language”.

Therefore, teachers’ role in achieving this broad goal of enhancing communicative skills would be pivotal. What is listed above is among the most useful contributions teachers can make to their learners.

Like other abilities, a successful reading depends on a sum of strategies which can be taught to learners, in class. Since comprehension is regarded the main concern in reading credits, teaching strategies is then intensively significant to facilitate it.

Undeniably, comprehension strategies are awarded a special interest as a lot of works have been conducted in this regard. But before dealing with this, notions like strategies, learning strategies, and reading comprehension strategies need to be clarified first.

The key determinant term strategy has been widely defined. Richards and Schmidt (2002, p.515) referred to it as “procedures used in learning, thinking, etc., which serves as a way of reaching a goal”. Clay (1991, cited in Tankersley, 2003, p.90) stated that strategy is “an operation that allows the learner to use, apply, transform, relate, interpret, reproduce, and reform information for communication”. While for Wehmeier (2007, p.1461) the term strategy is said to be “a plan that is intended to achieve a particular purpose”.

3
On her part, and in an amazing work on *learning strategies*, Oxford (1990, p.8) pointed out that “strategies are operations employed by the learner to aid the acquisition, storage, retrieval, and use of information”.

Though she found this “technical definition” useful, she noted that it is insufficient to completely convey “the richness” of learning strategies. She then re-defined them by saying that strategies are “specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations”.

In defining *reading comprehension strategies*, we may quote the one given by Graesser (2007, p.6): “A reading comprehension strategy is a cognitive or behavioural action that’s enacted under particular contextual conditions, with the goal of improving some aspects of comprehension”.

The common sharing points between the illustrated definitions are prime features of strategies. In her words, Oxford said that these characteristics are “control/goal-orientness, autonomy, and self-efficacy”.

Strategies are said to be control/goal oriented in the sense that they are deliberate actions taken to achieve a certain clear purpose. They help learners to be more independent, hence autonomy requires “conscious control of one’s own learning process”. Whereas self-efficacy means that strategies help in enhancing one’s ability to “successfully complete a task or series of tasks” (Bandura, 1997, cited in Oxford, 2001, p.166).

Summing up, using strategies for reading is a vital instrument that would help readers monitor their understanding and accelerate their learning. They could be regarded as currencies at students’ hands to resolve their problems. They are operations that would guide learners to approach texts effectively. So being aware in teaching these strategies would direct students to fruitful reading comprehension practice.

Indeed, relying on a viewpoint asserted by a colleague of mine who teaches English at the department of management, in M'sila University about teaching English generally speaking, and reading comprehension particularly, we have concluded that this skill shapes a barrier for both the teacher and the learner. As she noted, her students are struggling in their reading, i.e. they are less proficient, poor, and slow readers. She added saying that like most teachers at this department, she opts for teaching grammar and some terminology related to their specific field of study.
At this phase, we might think that teaching grammar and vocabulary items detached mostly from their context of situation, where learners and teachers could communicate their ideas, impedes them from being efficient readers.

Though at this tertiary level, ESP students are said to “struggle word for word through a reading text and stumble at every new and unfamiliar item” (Hyland, 1990, p.104). It is hard for them to read in English or understand totally what they read. This inefficient reading manner of our students hampers them from being effective fluent readers. This snail-pace procedure is generally due to the lack of confidence and interest that in turns resulting from teaching / learning methods. Therefore, it is necessary to say that using some strategies might help those learners repair their reading and thus lessen some of their difficulties.

2. Aim of the study

Similar to English for General Purposes (EGP) field, it is crucial for ESP students to know how to read and how to deal with a text independently. Learning to use strategies effectively is essential to get meaning. Readers who are “strategic rarely encounter difficulties in their reading”. (Paris, Wasik, & Turner, 1991, cited in What is strategic reading ?)

In ESP classes what, why, and how to read go hand in hand. Strategic reading is thus used to help students to understand the theme they are about to read, the reason (the purpose), and the manner of their reading, i.e., the methods and techniques used. Consequently, the focal target behind this humble research is an attempt to diagnose, describe, and show up some of the problems met by management students in reading comprehension to come up in the end with some propositions that would reduce them. Difficulties encountered, we think, are due to the teaching method used in this skill which itself reflects and influences the learning one. Reading is a thorny crux in teachers’ and learners’ ways. Simply put, reading shapes a hurdle for both of them, and what teachers give in class may have direct effect on students’ learning.

Getting in contact with our informants, fourth year management students and their teacher, through interviews and questionnaires could help us describe the situation and have a petition of some suggestions that would appear to assist students to overcome their problems and to better their reading. This may be achieved through motivating them, introducing some reading strategies, and devising in the end some model courses which would help in both teaching / learning reading comprehension. So, the objective, in the
end, is to aid those learners to enhance their skills so as to be good efficient strategic readers. This humble work aims at offering teachers as well as students a plethora of pre-, while-, and post-reading strategies (activities) like for instance semantic map, scanning, and summarizing which would seem to lead them to develop their abilities. Teachers can do a lot to steer students towards “efficient independent reading by making a reading task more explicit and helping them concentrate their efforts on specific purposes”. (Hyland, 1990, p.104). We could believe that since the salient motive behind reading in those ESP classes is to seek for information, it is necessary for the teacher to provide the appropriate tools.

It is hoped that our inquiry' findings would be confirmed through further researches associated to the scope of reading strategies, thereby to check their contributions and effects in manipulating some of the reading difficulties and in touching up the reading comprehension skill as a whole. That is, an attempt can be made to investigate the effect of using comprehension strategies on learners’ proficiency.

No kind of generalisation will come true unless a similar research is conducted under the same conditions.

3. Statement of the problem

Through our accompaniment of a colleague teacher of ESP classes at M'sila University, we could assure that technical (specific) vocabulary and grammar tasks consume all her time and efforts. That is, nearly all her teaching is based on these two aspects of English language. As far as teaching other skills, precisely reading comprehension, she said that it forms a hurdle. She had no fair idea about how to teach properly this essential skill. The teacher either declared the lack of reading proficiency among her management learners.

Having a huge amount of lexical items, i.e., basic technical vocabulary related to specific field of their study, and acquiring grammatical structures only, though important, may seem insufficient treatment for those ESP students to be efficient readers.

When teaching reading, most teachers believe that their ultimate objective is to develop the linguistic competence of their learners who themselves bear in mind that their reading difficulties lie mostly on words which they do not understand. When reading a text in English, they have tried to read everything in it with the same word by word method. Learners have acquired, from Arabic, a habit of reading by regression, that is go back to
the beginning of the line when encountering difficult lexical items in any reading passage instead of keeping on reading to grasp the meaning of the salient messages and ideas. Focusing their attention on only one reading technique for all reading matters casts those students into a slow and inefficient reading. The thing that would drive them to boredom.

As discussed above, in reading credits, the main problem stems from the fact that reading classes are usually used to teach language rather than reading. Teachers prioritize the linguistic objective to the detriment of the communicative one. In other terms, grammar and vocabulary are taught as ends in themselves.

Believing that there is a unique appropriate way to read encumbers our students as well as teachers from going further. Hyland (1990, p.104) expressed that “the textual scrutiny can increase the anxiety which inhibits the reading flexibility of many students”. Therefore, it is teachers’ duty not to leave their learners with the impression that reading a text always means apprehending every word. It is after all acknowledged that a set of strategies is indispensable to back them to read purposefully, and so avoid sticking in one way of reading.

Since the golden point in reading comprehension is setting a clear purpose, one might assume that reading involves much more than simply knowing the meaning of individual words. Learners need to develop strategies that would improve their reading. These strategies could lend a hand in enhancing students’ linguistic patterns and communicative skills as well. They can help readers link what they read to personal experience, to information from other text, and also to their world knowledge. Shortly, strategies would ameliorate their reading proficiency. Strategic readers can understand themselves and the world surrounding them.

When reading activities have some purposes from the beginning, the reading process will become less challenging and more efficacious. It is highly important to say that it is teachers’ job to aid their learners “identify those purposes and master the strategies best suited them” (Hyland,ibid.). This means that teachers have to convince students that it is beneficial to vary their techniques according to their purposes.

Being clear, it is the set purpose and the nature of the problem which dictate and determine the type of strategy our students will use.

4. Research question

The question that might be raised here is:
What are the factors or the sources of the problem which impede fourth year management students, at Mohamed Boudiaf University of M'sila, from being good readers?

Or:

What are the reasons and the conditions behind the low reading proficiency of fourth year management students, at Mohamed Boudiaf University of M'sila?

Efficient reading is an essential perquisite for success in today’s world. It is “a means to an end, and not an end in itself” (Hyland, ibid.). It is then fair to say that when teachers train learners to read and establish purpose before hand, the process of reading will be effectual, productive, and pleasing as well. As a result, teachers should use reading lessons not merely to widen the linguistic competence of learners, but also their reading proficiency that help them communicate their ideas.

5. Hypotheses

**Hypothesis one:** We hypothesize that reading is one of the essential pivotal skills which the ESP students need to develop in order to be effective readers. Being so, will avail them in having a good command of English that they will use in their further studies or future careers.

**Hypothesis two:** We also hypothesize that those ESP learners lack motivation, and practice in reading comprehension strategies. They need to acquire the flexibility to adjust their reading strategy to a clear purpose. The burden is therefore on the teacher to motivate his/her students to read, and to provide reading tasks that exploit different techniques, i.e. it would appear that motivating them, for instance, by setting an authentic purpose for their reading, and using various reading strategies, learners might become efficient strategic readers. The use of these strategies could reduce some of the difficulties they encounter while reading an English material, hence they would help in the development of reading comprehension skill.

*If teachers motivate their learners and train them in using various reading comprehension strategies, they would become good proficient readers.*

6. Research design

Any research project needs a design or a plan. Categories of design differ from one research to another in terms of type, nature, and methodological procedures.
6.1. Selection of the method

Though it is assumed that all approaches to second language research involve planned, systematic and disciplinary inquiry, each one has developed its own process. For instance, some researches need a diagnostic descriptive methodology where the researcher is no longer an active involved participant, rather someone who tries to deal with a given phenomenon as naturally occurs as possible, and some researches are more experimental, in the sense that the researcher is a part of the investigation, that is he /she intervenes in a try to control or manipulate a situation.

Seliger and Shohamy (1989, p.113) stated:

"For example, one approach may be concerned with describing second language acquisition behaviour in a natural context, with no manipulation or little intrusion from the researcher. Another approach may consider nature a difficult context in which to conduct an investigation because too many variables must be controlled."

Since the topic in question is to describe and to enquire about seeking ways which would enhance reading comprehension skill of the ESP learners, we think that the descriptive method seems more appropriate.

According to Seliger and Shohamy (ibid.,p.124) “Descriptive research involves a collection of techniques used to specify, delineate, or describe naturally occurring phenomena without experimental manipulation”. This means that the descriptive study is an exploration of an existing phenomenon. Here, no attempt is made to change behaviours or conditions, but to measure things as they are.

6.2. Population and sample

Population is “the entire group, of people that the researcher is seeking information about” (cited in Understanding research,2009,p.88). The author of this article added saying that it is not an easy matter to study an entire population unless a condition is extremely rare. Consequently, “a study will try to obtain ‘a sample’ of that population” (ibid.). This study will be carried out on the fourth year students enrolled in the department of management at the University of Mohamed Boudiaf -M’sila, and their teacher of English. 210 students from four branches: Management, Finance, Accountancy, and Marketing will be given the administrative questionnaire to answer.
Following what is called “systematic sampling” (Salkind, 2008, p. 840) which requires random selection from the target population list, we will choose our sample. In our study, 210 students is this target population. Every fifth (5th) subject would be selected for the sample. This demonstrated, as said above, that the systematic sampling is the selection of names at a given intervals.

In short, from 210, we will choose one student each five so that to represent 20 % (i.e. equal the 1/5). Using a table of numbers, 42 subjects (students) will constitute the sample, so that to give them all the same chance to take part in this study. As a secondary sample, only one colleague teacher accepts to participate in our investigation.

We will attempt to work with those ESP classes, on the one hand, because most Algerian universities have some forms of ESP. At M'sila, the department of English is new. So to seek for feasibility, we singled out our colleague ESP groups. On the other hand, it is believable that the secondary and fundamental education in English is slow and more demanding. For this reason, and for time constraints, we prefer to investigate the university level.

The standing of English as international tongue in today's world describes the imperative need for those ESP students to be conversant with this language that they would use later.

It is also fair to admit that opting for those fourth year ESP students is due to the fact that we can assume they reach a proficiency level in English language, hence their ultimate goal at this stage is searching for information more than something else. And this in turn could mean that their necessity for reading is fundamental.

To put it in a nut-shell, being a demanding process, reading entails time and efforts from the two partners, teachers and students, to be more effective. This requires the greatest responsibility that lies upon teachers' shoulders to render their students with tools and ways to grasp the nettle when confronting some reading difficulties.

6.3. Data collection tools

Gathering the precise information is a paramount step in doing a research. As far as our study is concerned, we select questionnaires and interviews. Interviews are first steps to touch our informants' wider views. They are in forms of broad direct questions aimed at surveying and identifying the problem. Starting with this general initial diagnostic phase, we then get in depth of the matter through questionnaires, in an
attempt to check in details the factors or the reasons behind the low proficiency of fourth year management students in reading comprehension.

Dornyei.Z (2003, p.9) illustrated that “the main attraction of questionnaires is their unprecedented efficiency in terms of (a) researcher time,(b) researcher effort, and (c) financial resources”. For this, questionnaires are regarded as perfect data collection instruments. In our investigation, two questionnaires will be proposed:

The first one will be designed for a colleague teacher to recognise her opinions, problems, and suggestions in teaching English language broadly speaking, and reading comprehension in particular. This questionnaire aims mainly to check the way she approaches her reading classes.

The second one will be administered personally with the help of my colleague to a panel of fourth year management students. It aids to approximate the picture on their views and ideas about studying English as a foreign language, the difficulty they may encounter, English reading materials, types of reading they do in class, or outside , and so on and so forth.

As it has been noted previously, 210 students, belonging to four branches, will be our target population. The questionnaire will be delivered to all of them, with well, average, or low proficiency, in a hope to reach randomness and reliability. Then, every fifth student will be selected to constitute the sample.

7. Limitations of the study

Like any research, this one has some limitations. In teaching reading comprehension skill in ESP classes, sundry factors could intervene. Among which we can state some related to learners as demotivation that is due for example to lack of confidence, lack of interest, and irregular attendance. Others are related to the teacher like lack of expertise, difficulty in class management, and demotivation. Some are connected with administrative constraints such as time span and its distribution.

8. Organisation of the research

This dissertation is divided into two main parts: a descriptive and an empirical part. In the first one, three chapters are devoted for the review of literature. As far as the second is concerned, two chapters are designed for the practical side. In all, this work is of five chapters.
Chapter one of the literature review, provides an overview about ESP as a prominent field of study. An enterprise that involves education, training, and practice. Being as such, teaching ESP is of a paramount importance. This describes the various responsibilities placed upon teachers’ shoulders. ESP teachers generally have a great variety of “often-simultaneous roles, such as researchers, course designers, material developers, testers, evaluators as well as classroom teachers” (Salmani -Nodoushan, op.cit., p.22). Hence, this chapter comprises two sections. The first gives a wide account on ESP, and the second covers the different roles of ESP teacher.

Chapter two sheds light on reading comprehension skill that is viewed as a key factor to advancements and success in a world full of scientific competitions. It starts by the definition of reading, as being a highly complex activity. Next, it considers the nature of reading as tremendously important in understanding how to process textual information. It lists the major approaches which explain this nature; for instance, the bottom-up and the top-down, followed by a talk on the schema theory, as a core element in reading comprehension. Some central issues that teachers should bear in mind when they come to teach the reading skill are also tackled. This includes for example, reading materials which comprises texts and activities. This chapter covers also the main types of reading: intensive, extensive, critical, silent, and reading aloud.

Chapter three deals with and outlines reading comprehension strategies. This includes their definition, classification, and distinction between the most common terms skills and strategies. This chapter traces also some prime issues such as second language reading strategies researches, and the relation between reading strategies and comprehension. It explores the three main phases in teaching reading, which are pre-, while-, and post-reading phase activities.

Talking about the empirical part, i.e., the field work, it constitutes two chapters. Chapter four is devoted for interviews and questionnaires. It aims to describe, analyse, and interpret the results which we obtain from our subjects (students). This chapter contains, too, an analysis of the teacher's questionnaire. Chapter five is entitled pedagogical implications. It sets out some suggestions listed as a result of the field work. It affords and draws out three model lessons where the three previous reading phases are employed. These sample lessons are to help and push the practical perspective of teaching reading skill to ESP learners. This work ends up with reference list, and appendices that comprise both interviews and questionnaires. French and Arabic summaries are naturally placed by the very end of this research.
CHAPTER ONE : ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES (ESP)

Introduction………………………………………………………………………………………………………14

SECTION ONE : A GENERAL ACCOUNT ON ESP .................................................................14
1. ESP Emergence.........................................................................................................................14
2. ESP Definition ........................................................................................................................17
2.1. ESP Characteristics.............................................................................................................18
3. ESP Divisions............................................................................................................................19
3.1. English for Academic Purposes (EAP)...............................................................................20
3.2. English for Occupational Purposes (EOP)...........................................................................20
3.3. English for Science and Technology (EST).........................................................................20
4. ESP Development ...................................................................................................................22
4.1. Register Analysis..................................................................................................................23
4.2. Discourse Analysis...............................................................................................................24
4.3. Needs Analysis......................................................................................................................28
4.3.1. Target Situation Analysis (TSA)...................................................................................29
4.3.2. Present Situation Analysis (PSA)..................................................................................32
4.4. Skills-based Approach..........................................................................................................32
4.5. Learning-centred Approach..................................................................................................33

SECTION TWO : ESP TEACHER AND THEIR ROLES...........................................................35
1. Motivating Students ...............................................................................................................36
1.1. Definition of Motivation......................................................................................................36
1.2. Types of Motivation............................................................................................................36
1.2.1. Intrinsic Motivation........................................................................................................37
1.2.2. Extrinsic Motivation........................................................................................................37
1.2.3. Instrumental Motivation..................................................................................................37
1.2.4. Integrative Motivation.....................................................................................................37
2. Specific Roles ..........................................................................................................................38
Conclusion.....................................................................................................................................42
Introduction

This chapter tends to present a broad view about the specific approach to language learning, ESP. It comprises two sections. The first one is a general account on ESP. Here, we will try to provide a thorough description of this vivid field as being one of the prestigious developments of ELT. Emergence, definition, division, and then evolution of this discipline will be discussed.

The second one concerns ESP teacher and their roles as a crucial issue in this practical endeavour. In this section, we will try to deal with motivation for it is a critical force in teaching / learning settings, then in a go to describe what teachers can do to maintain it in class, some of different roles will be explained. This includes for example their roles as course designers, and evaluators. In addition, outside class, teachers have other specific duties to fulfil, like being negotiators, and researchers. Simply put, this chapter spots light on the theoretical and the practical perspectives of ESP.

SECTION ONE: GENERAL ACCOUNT ON ESP

This part discusses some of the historical and the theoretical pillars of ESP. It covers its emergence, definition, divisions, and development.

1. ESP emergence

In actual fact, most people get certain that English language is the passport to across all continental borders. It is the means which opens doors into the world. Hasman (2000), noted that English helps in expanding minds to new ideas.

Being considered the most prevalent “‘global language’ ” (Crystal, 2003, cited in Farrell & Martin 2009,p.2) and “‘the international language’ par excellence” (Lee Mckay, 2002, p.5), English has positioned itself on the throne. Hence, realising the fact that keeping abreast to the latest scientific and technological developments, many countries have felt the urge to require efficient access to such prestigious language through which they could achieve advancements in various fields.
Nowadays, the information age has replaced the industrial age. (Hasman, ibid.). That is to say, our world has lived a transfer from industrial production to “information-based goods and services” (ibid., p.4). This in turn could mean that English is used for lots of purposes than ever before. More and more people have become fond of learning this common medium of communication. This interest is due to the fact that they learn English not only for the sake of language itself, rather they have more extrinsic motives such as the need to perform occupational duties, or to further studies. Therefore, a new trend in language learning that focuses on specific purposes has been flourished. The role and the choice have fallen, as stated above, to English since it “has gained ascendancy in international science, technology, and trade”. (Johns & Dudley-Evans, 1991, p.297). The same opinion is raised by Farrell and Martin (ibid) saying that English has acquired the title of “the world's leading language” because it is the language used for business, politics, and academia.

What has been said so far could be summarised in Hasman’ words (2000,p.4) when stated:

> English is divesting itself of its political and cultural connotations as more and more people realise that English is not the property of only a few countries. Instead, it is a vehicle that is used globally and will lead to more opportunities. It belongs to whoever uses it for what-ever purpose or need.

Consequently, learning English for special intentions and demands has been at the heart of a new direction in language teaching. Say it otherwise, in the late 1960's, there was a language teaching shift from “serving up students with literature regardless their aims or interests” (McDonough,1984, p.4) to a recent approach that focuses primarily on learners’ specific needs. Being one of the most prestigious developments in English language teaching (ELT) realm, English for Specific Purposes (ESP) has become a fashionable field. The newly born concept of ESP has expanded throughout the world with a stirring haste. Notably, and according to Hutchinson and Waters (1987), this quick spread of ESP is due to three core factors: the demands of the Brave New World, a revolution in linguistics, and a focus on the learner. The first of these common reasons is related to two crucial historical periods that gave birth to ESP. On the one hand, the end of the Second World War in 1945, brought with it “an age of enormous and unprecedented expansion in scientific, technical and economic activity on an international scale” (Hutchinson & Waters, ibid.p.6).

The post World War left the USA strong, mainly economically speaking. For this, the role fell to English. This means that English is no longer the language of prestige, rather it has become the key “to the international currencies of technology and commerce”.
Therefore, a new wave of people started learning English for their own specific purposes, as being businessmen, doctors, or students. These categories significantly know what they need English for.

On the second hand, there was “the Oil Crisis of the early 1970's resulted in western money and knowledge flowing into the oil rich countries”. (Gatehouse, 2001, p.2).

English thus becomes a big concern, the language to reach this money through knowledge, i.e., as a result of commercial pressure, a lot of people felt the need for effective English courses with definite goals called thus (ESP).

Say it shortly, from these two historical causes which breathed life to ESP, English has become “subject to the wishes, needs and demands of people other than language teachers” (Hutchinson & Waters, op.cit. p.7, cited in Gatehouse, ibid.).

The second reason seen as having a great impact on the emergence of ESP was a revolution in linguistics. As opposed to the traditional structural approach favoured by most linguists, a new approach began to emerge in the late 1960's and early 1970's focused on ways in which language is used in its social context. This implies that the new studies shift the interest from describing the rules of language usage, grammar, to identifying the language use in real communication. This transfer has lead to quite important discoveries. The prime finding was about the difference between the spoken and written language forms. For Hutchinson and Waters (1987), the language we use when we speak and write varies from one context to another, in a number of different ways. For example, the language of business differs to a considerable extent from the language of biology or law. Hence, this fact drove many people to think about developing courses for specific groups of learners. Hutchinson and Waters (ibid. p.7) made this simple and clear when they wrote: “If language varies from one situation of use to another, it should be possible to determine the features of specific situation and then make these features the basis of the learners' course”.

The third central factor for the advent of ESP is related to educational psychology. That is, the matter is a bit far from linguistics. Focussing on the learner's different needs and interests was placed at the heart of new specialised teaching/learning programmes. Providing courses that are germane to meet those various needs and interests of learners would have a tremendous impact on motivating them. As a key to effectiveness and success, motivation would thereby help in improving and speeding up their learning pace.
Consequently, emphasising the major importance of learners and their needs leads to a learner-centred approach, which is regarded as one of ESP pillars.

In conclusion, the vital field of ESP comes to light through the three presented weighty factors (Hutchinson & Waters, ibid., 8). All of them seemed to point towards the need for increased specialisation in language learning.

2. ESP definition

As it has been described previously, the milestone of ESP is learners' needs and interests, hence to get off the ground from this guiding principle in this special area, a sum of the wealthy range of definitions could be quoted in the following:

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) described ESP as being an approach rather than a product. They pointed out that the underpinning of ESP is the simple question: “Why does this learner need to learn a foreign language?” (cited in Dudley-Evans & Jo St John, 1998, p.3). They said that the answer to this question relates to the learner, the language required, and the learning context. Robinson (1991, p.3) cited in (ibid., p.3) explained that “ESP is normally goal-oriented, and that ESP courses develop from the needs analysis which aims to specify as closely as possible what exactly is that students have to do through the medium of English”.

A common starting and sharing point between the above definitions is the primacy of need in ESP. Once more, it could be noted that learners and their specific needs come at the centre of any ESP credit. For more discussion of what ESP means, we might also quote Hyland (2007, p.391) when she said: “English for Specific Purposes refers to the language research and instruction that focuses on the specific communicative needs and practices of particular social groups”. Apparently, this statement would seem to join the viewpoint voiced by Smoak (2003, p.27) when expressing that “ESP is an English instruction based on the actual immediate needs of learners who have to successfully perform real-life tasks unrelated merely to an English class or exam”.

Having a glance on these two last definitions, ESP is considered “a needs-based and task-oriented approach” (ibid.). Accordingly, the relation between needs assessment and task performance in ESP is fascinating to trace. Having a well command of English use, than
only usage, and learning by doing, i.e., performing tasks and practices which correspond
with learners' needs, is of a paramount significance.

In this respect, teachers should revamp their English for specific purposes courses to bring
them in line with the communication needs of their students. This fact is clearly cited in
Munby's definition of ESP (1978, p.2) when explained: “ESP courses are those where the
syllabus and materials are determined in all essentials by the prior analysis of the
communication needs of the learners”. Within this framework, it can be said that syllabus
and material designers moved from structural methodological models to communicative
ones. That is, the interest was in language as a means rather than an end in itself.

Having a fair look again at the previous illustrated definitions and more others,
though share some common features, they are not so obvious. From the outset, ESP was a
source of contention. Even today, a lot of researchers interested in this vibrant field are at
odds, i.e., there is a considerable ongoing debate as to how to specify what exactly ESP
constitutes. (Anthony, 1997; Belcher, 2006; Dudley-Evans & Jo St John, 1998)(Cited in
Brunton, 2009 :2).

Dudley-Evans and Jo St John (1998) put forward a modified definition for ESP. It is under
the sub-heading of:

2.1. ESP characteristics

The definition posited by Dudley-Evans and Jo St John (ibid.) is truly the stretching
of the one postulated by Strevens (1988), in terms of absolute and variable characteristics.
The view that is also appeared in the work of (Anthony, 1997; Brunton, 2009; Gatehouse,
2001).

According to Dudley-Evans and Jo St John (ibid.:4) in terms of absolute and variable
characteristics, ESP is defined as follows:

- **Absolute characteristics:**
  1. ESP is defined to meet the specific needs of learners.
  2. ESP makes use of underlying methodology and activities it serves.
  3. ESP is centred on the language (grammar, lexis), skills, and discourse appropriate to
     these activities.

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

Among other definitions, Mohan (1986, p.15, cited in Brunton, 2009,p.3) wrote that ESP courses focus on preparing learners for “chosen communicative environments”. As for Graham and Beardsley (1986) cited in Brunton (ibid.), learners' purpose should be taken into account. Fiorito (2005,p.1) showed that ESP “concentrates more on language in context than on teaching grammar and language structures”.

To conclude, the wide range of definitions given to the concept ESP denotes that this vibrant field was and still be an area of debate. Even today, researchers hope to come up with a clear sharp definition of what ESP means, and what it includes.

3. ESP divisions

While general English language teaching tends to go towards an indeterminate destination, “setting sail through largely uncharted waters” (Basturkmen,2006,p.9), ESP aims to speed learners through a clear direction. Over again, it is offhanded to say that the unrivalled velocity of ESP is due to the fact that this branch concerns at first sight to prepare people to accomplish their daily life duties and tasks. That is to say, ESP is crucially a practical endeavour. It is understood to be about adapting learners to use English within “academic, professional or workplace environments” (ibid.,p.17).This implies that like most branches of TESOL and applied linguistics (Dudley-Evans & Jo St John 2001), ESP is divided often into various types. Many researches speak about two or three top divisions. Robinson (1991) cited in Javier Romo (2006) described two great distinctions: English for academic purposes (EAP), and English for occupational purposes (EOP), with English for science and technology (EST) cutting across the two of them.
3.1. English for academic purposes (EAP).

It speaks for itself. It refers to the English language required in educational contexts. It is the case where language is needed by students to pursue their studies, usually at university, or it may be at school level. In the first setting, English language plays a leading role in getting access to the huge amount of information related to students' specialist area. Supported by an expanding bulk of publications and research journals, there is a growing awareness that students including native English speakers, have to take on new roles and engage with knowledge in novel ways when they enter university. They find that they need to write and read unfamiliar genres and take part in new speech events (Hyland, 2006). EAP then begins with learners and situations. While in the second setting, English is taught at schools, as in most countries all over the world.

3.2. English for occupational purposes (EOP)

It refers to studying English for “professional purposes” (Dudley-Evans & Jo St John, op.cit.), i.e., it is related to individuals who need to use English as a part of their work. This could include for instance, doctors, engineers, business people, and hotel workers, who are in a daily contact with tourists from every corner of the globe.

3.3. English for science and technology (EST)

Another prestigious classification that stands under the umbrella term of ESP is English for science and technology (EST). Indeed, this branch was regarded for a long time synonymous to ESP itself. It is directly linked to scientific English, i.e., a great emphasis is put on contents of scientific language. EST is either academic (educational) where school and university students in different parts of the world study subjects as Maths, Physics, and Chemistry, or occupational where for example, oil workers, and engineers express their need to learn English. Therefore, it might be said that EST has contributed to the development of ESP since scientists and technologists acquired English to be able to deal with linguistic tasks common to the nature of their professions. Celce-Murcia (2001) cited in Javier Romo (op.cit.) went on to classify EST as a branch of EAP, along with English for business and economics (EBE), English for medical purposes (EMP) and English for the law (ELP).
In a thorough grasp, the writer showed that there are a myriad of other sub-divisions in the second ESP branch, (EOP). She listed two branches under it: English for professional purpose (EPP) and English for vocational purposes (EVP). These two branches are subdivided in turn into more categories.

Concomitant with the progress of scientific and humanistic paradigms, there is a creation of new human knowledge used by more “specific people in specific setting through specific language to carry out specific tasks”. (ibid., p.21). This fact could express the detailed classification of ESP proposed above by Celce-Murcia.

In conclusion, the two main areas of ESP, i.e., EAP, AOP could be presented in the following figures (called also tree diagrams).

---

**Figure 1: ESP Classification by Experience.**

*(Cited in Dudley-Evans & Jo St John, 1998:6)*

In this first figure, ESP is divided according to when courses take place. In EOP type, they can be taken either before (pre-experience), during (simultaneous), or after (post-experience) their specialists training. Whereas EAP, is further divided into a specific discipline and a school subject course.
Specific discipline-based credits are often taught at the tertiary level; however, school subject EAP are taught at primary and secondary levels of education. Again, school subject course is either independent where English is offered as a foreign language, i.e. English for instance is a subject in its own right, or integrated in which it is a medium of learning other subjects, i.e. means of integration.

![Diagram of ESP Classification by Professional Area](attachment:image)

*Figure 2: ESP Classification by Professional Area.*
*(Cited in Dudley-Evans & Jo St John, 1998:6)*

In this second tree diagram, EAP and EOP are classified according to discipline or professional area. It seems to be related with the detailed description set forth by Celce-Murcia, formerly.

### 4. ESP development

As it is mentioned earlier, ESP is not a new area of research in the teaching of English language (Holden, 1977; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, cited in Shi, 2006), rather it has undergone many phases of development. For Hutchinson and Waters (1987), the major and the most potent ones are register analysis, rhetorical (discourse) analysis, needs analysis (TSA), skill-centred analysis, and learning centred-approach, in this order. These approaches which considered as main language offshoots have a profound effect on ESP.
4.1. Register analysis (RA)

Approaches to linguistic analysis for ESP involve not merely a change in methods, but also a change in ideas. The latter consists of what is to be included in language and its description (Robinson, 1991).

Amongst the earliest stages in ESP developments was the one focused on vocabulary and grammar (the elements of a sentence). The stage which took place during the 1960's and early 1970's, was called register analysis. Hutchinson and Waters (ibid.) traced the origin of this term in ESP to the works conducted by Halliday, McIntoch, and Strevens (1964), Ewert and Latorre (1969), and Swales (1971). They expressed that the prime motive behind register analysis was “the pedagogic one of making the ESP course more relevant to learners' needs”. (ibid., p.10).

That is to say, this trend is based on the premise that language varies from one individual to another. It also changes according to diverse purposes where it is used, i.e., from one context to another. For instance, the language of mechanical engineering is different from that of management or medicine.

The aim of the analysis of discourse consists primarily of identifying the grammatical and lexical features of such register. The purpose of doing so, was to organise ESP courses which were more relevant to the learners' linguistic needs. The goal was to focus on the language forms learners would commonly come across with their field of specialization, and to reject those that were not relevant to their desideratum.

Again, Hutchinson and Waters (ibid.) went on mentioning that in the syllabus that would be produced by this type of analysis, “high priority” is given to those language forms that students are likely to meet in “their science studies and "low priority to forms they would not meet”.

In their parts, Dudley –Evans and Jo St John (1998, p.21) seem to share and follow the same track. They wrote that the assumption behind register analysis, which focussed on ‘lexicostatistics’,¹ was that “while the grammar of scientific and technical writing does not differ from that of general English, certain grammatical and lexical forms are used much more frequent”.

This in turn leads us to say that the formal features of a register in science and technology are not distinctive to one register. They could also belong to language in general and could be found in many other registers. Hutchinson and Waters (ibid., p.31) clarified this fact by

¹Lexicostatistics, a name given by Swales (1988:1) (cited in Dudley-Evans & Jo St John, ibid.).
putting: “...But the important point is that even if particular registers favour certain forms, they are not distinctive forms. They are simply drawn from the stock of the grammar of the language”.

To conclude, register analysis is an approach that focuses on the analysis of specific texts to determine and identify the linguistic forms and structures most frequently used. This means that it operates only at words and sentences level. It does not go much deeper. This and some other drawbacks constitute a severe wave of criticism held on register analysis, and hence paved the way to the second stage to emerge.

4.2. Discourse analysis (DA)

Having serious flaws, register analysis as a research procedure was withdrawn. This gave birth to the discourse or rhetorical analysis as being the second phase of ESP development. As described by Hyland (2007), discourse analysis is probably the most important term in ESP land. A notable thrust of research under the leading lights: Selinker (1972), Widdowson (1976), and Trimble (1985) is commonly linked to this movement.

Contrary to the first approach, which may be described as a sentence-driven, the second discourse analysis approach shifts attention to the level above the sentence. It pledges itself to the description of how sentences are combined to each other to produce a desired piece of language with a specific meaning. This approach indicates how language is functionally realised. Weiyun He (2002, p.1) wrote: "Discourse analysis is concerned with the contexts in and the processes through which we use oral and written language to specific audience, for specific purposes, in specific settings”.

According to Hutchinson and Waters (op.cit.), cited in Hasseli-Songhori (2008), discourse analysis concentrates on how sentences are used to perform different communicative acts. Say it otherwise, this approach emphasises the importance of language units higher than a sentence in terms of their functioning in a context. This is clearly showed in Weiyun He’ view (ibid.) when noting that under this approach language is not simply “a self-contained system of symbols, but more importantly a mode of doing, being, and becoming”. This turning point in linguistic realm; from linguistic semantic to pragmatics, was an attempt to find new boundaries beyond the sentence level.

The view discussed here, was developed under what is known speech act theory (Austin, 1962; Searle, 1969, 1979). The responsible for raising interest in pragmatic meaning was the
philosopher Austin (Thomas, 1995, cited in Basturkmen, 2006:48). His ideas about language are gathered in his famous book *How to Do Things with Words* (1962). Austin's main concern was that we do not use language just to state things, but to perform actions. In his work, he emphasised the point that we need to understand how people communicate effectively. He noted that an utterance consists of three elements, i.e., he distinguished three types of speech acts:

(a) *Locutionary* (propositional), the actual words uttered. It is named the literal level.
(b) *Illocutionary*, the intention underlying the utterance. It is the implied level.
(c) *Perlocutionary*, the effect of the utterance on the hearer's thoughts, feelings, and actions. It is the consequence of the implied act.

It is said that the illocutionary acts interest speech act theorists most (Akmajian, Demeres, Farmer, & Harnish, 2001), as they are central to linguistic communication. Austin cleared that our normal conversation are composed in large part of “*statements, suggestions, requests, proposals, greetings and the like*”. If we perform perlocutionary acts as “*persuading*” or “*intimidating*”, we do so through performing illocutionary acts like “*stating*” or “*threatening*” (Akmajian et al., ibid., p.395).

This idea would distinguish between the so called direct and indirect speech acts. The first of these notions is described under the umbrella term *performatives* brought up by Austin. With his leading principle “*saying is doing*”, he set a list of verbs that have performative functions such as: “*name, affirm, declare, bet, apologise, assert, forecast, predict, announce, insist, and order*” (Finch, 1998, p.168). By these verbs, messages are directly transmitted to the hearer. If the speaker does not use these performatives, it is then the case of indirect speech acts.

For Finch (ibid., p.169), much of our communication is done through these indirect messages. In defining the term, the author put: “*An indirect speech act is one which we perform whilst performing a direct one*”.

Revealingly, to better illustrate the three speech acts mentioned above, we may quote the example given by Basturkmen (2006:48). In a workplace situation, one could say “*I am busy*” (the locution), meaning you are disturbing me (the illocutionary force or intention). The visitor (the hearer) disappears and gives apologise for the interruption. (the perlocutionary effect). This example implies that speech act descriptions are firstly interested in the communicative intentions of individual speakers or writers. They are defined by the purposes for which the speaker uses the language, for instance, making requests and apologising.
In conjunction with Hatch's opinion (1992, cited in Basturkmen, ibid.), speech acts are determinant features in pragmatics, the study of speakers' intention and meaning, when they use a particular language in context. Therefore, speech act theory analyses the role of utterance in relation to the behaviour (the reaction of speaker/hearer in their interpersonal contact. Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000, p.3) declared that in our daily life interaction, people share and communicate their ideas, emotions, and attitudes. They said: “...We construct and maintain our positions within various social contexts by employing appropriate language forms and performing speech activities to ensure solidarity, harmony, and cooperation, or to express disagreement or displeasure, when called for”.

Applied to ESP, describing language use based on the communicative purposes people hope to accomplish and the way to do so (how to use language to achieve those purpose), is of paramount importance. ESP instruction seeks to single out the speech acts (also named functions) used in target environments, and the language exponents preferred by members of those environment (Basturkmen, op.cit.). Put it in different words, ESP has embraced the idea of functional explanation of language.

Bloor and Bloor (1986, p.22-23) cited in Basturkmen (ibid. p.47) mentioned:

One thing that ESP, in conjunction with a great deal of recent research into the language of special field and genres, has shown that the most important factor for the effective use of the language is that the learner has command of the ways in which the grammar of the language works to perform specific functions in specific contexts.

This view means that D.A commits itself to describe and analyse language in context, i.e. language use. The base of this discourse description is the utterance rather than the sentence. Utterances are sequences of words written or spoken in specific contexts, while sentences are sequences of words conforming, or not, to the grammatical rules for the construction of phrases or clauses (McCarthy, 2001), hence, the key concept here is investigating the communicative abilities of the language user utilises to perform specific functions (acts) more than their linguistic ability. This leads us to show again that DA involves reference to concepts of language in use, language “above or beyond the sentence”, language as meaning “in interaction”, and language in “situational and cultural context” (Trappes-Lomax, 2004, p.134).

In a survey made to collect what teachers say when they write about discourse analysis, Balacco, Carvalho and Shephered (2005, p.123-124) reported, for instance:
Teacher 1:

...discourse analysis is not a method, but a way of describing.

Teacher 2:

...Therefore, I can say that discourse analysis classes have given me insights into how texts are structured beyond sentence level, how talks follow regular patterns in different situations, how discourse norms differ from culture to culture.

Teacher 3:

...It made me become aware that not always what people want to say is what we understand from their speech.

Teacher 4:

...One such area is discourse analysis, which is interested in language use, in how real people use real language, as opposed to artificially created sentences.

Thus far and matched to ESP, we may say that DA approach is concerned with the characteristics of some illocutionary acts of scientific discourse like definitions, descriptions of experimental procedures, statements of findings, summarising, and so on. In practice, a “Rhetorical Process Chart” (Hutchinson & Waters, op. cit, p.11) set forth by Trimble (1985) represents this approach. It aims at helping educationalists and curriculum designers identify level of discourse within texts, i.e. it tends to generate materials based on function as: defining, describing, instructing, etc. To attain this objective, a great deal of works has been conducted. “The English in Focus Series” (OUP, the best representative of DA, and a number of ESP textbooks, aimed at developing an awareness of how sentences are combined in written texts in order to produce a particular meaning (Allen & Widdowson, 1974, cited in ibid:35). They cleared that ESP students need courses through which they could recognise how sentences are joined and used to perform adequately some rhetorical functions in specific communicative settings. That is to say, some well known publications have been used to assist science learners to deal with the type of text they will need in their studies, by explaining how meaning is created and how language is used to clarify, describe, compare, organise, identify, etc.

To close, and by way of balance, Hyland (2007, p.396) viewed that discourse analysis has been greatly influenced by “systemic functional linguistics” (Halliday, 1994). It is a language theory that focuses on the relationship between language and functions used to perform in social contexts. In this respect language is regarded as “a set of systems from which the users make choices to most effectively express their intended meaning”. This
guiding principle seemingly fits with ESP’ aims “to demystify the academic and professional genres that will enhance or determine learners’ career opportunities” (Hyland, ibid.).

4.3. Needs analysis (NA)

In its third stage of development, ESP shifted its attention to target situation analysis (TSA). Before going in depth to discuss this, it is important first to have a look on needs analysis, as being a core element in ESP area.

As stated before, ESP is a discipline which based on the proposition that all language teaching programmes should be tailored to the specific learning, and language use needs of identified groups of students (Ajideh, 2009). Evolving in the 1970's (West, 1988) cited in Haseli-Songhori (2007), needs analysis (also termed needs assessment) has become a defining feature of ESP course planning. In a such territory, the growing awareness of course designers that it is learners’ purpose for learning rather than the specialist language is the driving force which leads to the rise of this approach. That is to say, what is an unquestioned fact is that ESP credit has to be needs-driven (Brunton, 2009, p.4).

Erwin (2004, p.1) described the primacy of needs when said: “Giving students what they need, and getting what you want”. Dudley –Evans & Jo St John (1998), in their turn, made it crystal clear that NA is the corner stone of ESP. For Hyland (2007, p.392), it is a crucial link between “perception and practice”.

Being as such, NA helps ESP to keep its feet on the ground. Teaching syllabi and pedagogical equipments should be therefore built on an assessment of needs, functions, and purposes for which English is required. Curricula and materials are likely to be motivating for learners who do not acquire language for its own sake, rather to smooth the path towards greater efficiency in educational and occupational environments. This means that those students do not need to learn English detached from their real world, instead it is integrated into a subject matter area necessary for them (Fiorito, 2005).

To get back to the matter in hand, the focal point in ESP is its centrality on the notion of needs. However, a question can be raised: What makes ESP then different from General English? , since courses in the second field are also based on a perceived need of some sort. According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p.53), the answer to this rational question
is “in theory nothing, in practice a great deal” So, what is truly distinctive and new here is not the existence of these needs per se, but the “awareness of such needs” (ibid.).

As a result, course developers have to be on the ball, i.e. teachers as course planners need to become aware of their learners’ needs so as to provide instructions that correspond with such necessities. Having the ability to specify what learners need English for, then basing their teaching /learning processes on this, is the first job teachers should fulfil in ESP sphere. Realising the art of dealing is half of the battle.

Needs analysis is the process of establishing the what and the how of the course (Dudley-Evans & Jo St John, 1998, p.121). For Gupta (2007, p.15), needs assessment is a diagnostic process that relies on “data collection, collaboration, and negotiation to identify and understand gaps in learning and performance, and to determine future action”. She went further by giving examples of actions that could be taken after a needs assessment. These may include providing better information, engaging appropriate people, enhancing work design, supplying essential tools, and implementing training on learning programmes.


4.3.1. Target situation analysis (TSA)

It follows from the above accounts that there was a shift in NA directions. In its earliest stages, need analysis was chiefly concerned with the linguistic and register analysis. As Dudley-Evans and Jo St John (1998, p.122) explained, needs were defined as “discrete language items of grammar and vocabulary”.

The term target situation analysis was first introduced by Chambers (1980) who mentioned that TSA means “communication in the target situation” (ibid., p.29) cited in Haseli-Songhori (op.cit.).

With the publication of the most thorough Munby’s syllabus design (1978), needs analysis places learners and their needs at the heart of any teaching curricula. Learners are usually seen as the best judges of their own needs and wants because they know what they can and cannot do with the target language. They can realise as well what language skills are most important (Chan, 2001).
Through the extensive framework of Munby, the English language teaching world begun to recognise that “function” and “situation” were also vital (Dudley-Evans & Jo St John, op.cit.). This point ensures that ESP courses impart the key communicative skills most useful to those learners in their class or in their chosen carriers. Put it in another way, a kind of correlation between what students learn in class and success in their future professions would become paramount in ESP (Bouzidi, 2009).

Being a distinctive experience, the work of Munby (op.cit) increased the voices of a lot of researches who stated that it marked a watershed in ESP development. Munby introduced what is called “communicative needs processor (CNP) which comprises some questions about key communicative variables as topic, participants, and medium which can be used to identify the target language needs of any group of learners (Hutchinson & Waters, ibid: 54). This signifies that in the CNP, a consideration is given to a wide range of parameters likely to affect learners’ communication needs. Eight parameters are suggested by Munby (1978) in his CNP, the source of his approach to needs analysis. According to him, the processing of these parameters gives a detailed account of particular communication need. He classified them as:

1. **Purposive domain**: This category establishes the type of ESP, and then the purpose that the target language will be used for, at the end of the course.
2. **Setting**: It comprises both the physical, and the psychological setting where English will be used. The first one specifies the spatial and temporal aspects of the situation, and the second one particularizes the different environments in which English will be utilized.
3. **Interaction**: This parameter identifies the learner’s interlocutors. It also predicts the relationship between them.
4. **Instrumentality**: This specifies the medium, i.e., whether the language to be used is written, spoken, or both, the mode, i.e., if the language is in a form of monologue, dialogue or any other, and the channel of communication, i.e. whether it is face to face, or something else.
5. **Dialects**: Those which learners will have to understand or produce in terms of their spatial, temporal, or social aspect.
6. **Communicative event**: It states what the participants will have to do productively or receptively.

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2 The parameters specified by Munby (1978) are cited by Haseli-Songhori (2006, p.6). Most of them are quoted word for word.
7. **Communicative key**: It is the manner in which the participants will have to do the activities comprising an event, e.g. politely or impolitely.

8. **Target level**: It is the level of linguistic proficiency at the end of the ESP course. It can be changeable according to various skills.

The rationale behind Munby's model is to find as Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p.55) stated “what the learner needs to know to function effectively in the target situation”. This means that the above mentioned CNP is to track down the linguistic form which a potential ESP learner probably uses in their divergent situations found in their target environment.

Like any approach, Munby's model has been criticized. For Hutchinson and Waters (ibid:60), a distinction should be made between target needs and learning needs. In dealing with the target situation, the ESP course developer asks: "What does the expert communicator need to know in order to function effectively in this situation?"? This information may be considered in terms of language items, skills, strategies, and subject knowledge. But, what the analysis is unable to show is “how the expert communicator learnt the language items, skills and strategies that he or she uses”. (Smith, 1984, cited in Hutchinson & Waters, ibid., p.61). This means that studying and analyzing what people do is insufficient since it tells nothing about how these people learnt to do. In all, the major interest of ESP process is not in “knowing” or “doing” but in “learning” (Hutchinson & Waters, ibid.). They see it a bit senseless issue to base a course design on only the target objective, but needs, potential, and constraints should also be considered. For them, the shining jewellery, i.e., what matters most, is the learning situations itself, not just the starting point or the final destination.

In looking at the practical aspect of needs analysis, i.e. gathering information about target needs, it could be said that this may require more than simply identifying the linguistic features of the target situation, but other ways are also proposed by Hutchinson and Waters (1987). This includes namely questionnaires, interviews, observations, data collection, and consultations with sponsors and learners.

To carry on discussion, target situation is not the sole approach to interest the need analysts. As an adjunct to it, present situation analysis (PSA) was suggested.
4.3.2. Present situation analysis (PSA)

If target situation analysis attempts, on the first hand, to establish what learners are expected to be like, by the end of the language course, present situation analysis on the second hand seeks to identify what learners are like, at the beginning of the course. That is, what learners have already known. When the future destination which the learner hopes to get or arrive at is to be established, the starting point needs to be clarified and determined first. This is what PSA offers.

Present situation analysis was first termed by Richterich and Chancerel (1980) cited in Haseli-Songhori (2007:10). They noted that for identifying learners' needs, three core sources of information are taken for granted. They listed:

- The learner himself, i.e. levels of ability.
- The language teaching establishment, i.e. its views on learning and teaching.
- The user institution, i.e., the learner's place of work and its resources, financial and technical.

They found that needs analysis is a continuous process which is not restricted to the beginning of the course, because new needs may occur even after the course has been developed.

So far, it can be said that NA is a fundamental stage in ESP course design, yet it has several approaches like TSA, and PSA. This fact is probably due to the debate raised to agree on a clear definition of the notion needs.

To terminate the talk about NA, with its two forms, it is remarkable that this approach did not bring something new because its analysis of learner's need still focused on the surface linguistic features of target situation. This would parallel what has been tackled in the two former stages of ESP development, RA and DA. Therefore, a call is made to analyse the deep structure of language. The step that smooths the path for the coming phase.

4.4. Skills-based approach

The fourth stage of ESP gives interest to the mental processes that underlie the language behaviour. i.e., this skill-centred approach to ESP focuses on the development of skills and strategies learners need in order to acquire a second language. Under this approach, it is not the language per se to be highly considered, but the thinking processes.
The most significant contributions to this approach are the works of Grellet (1981), Nuttall (1982), Alderson and Urquhart (1984) on reading skill. The leading point behind skills-approach is that the deep processes of interpreting and reasoning are common to all languages, and what makes the difference is the external or the surface forms. Emphasis should be put then on the underlying interpretive strategies that help learners to cope with the surface structure. For instance, in reading skill, these strategies enable the learner to extract the meaning from the context, and to determine the types of text by using visual aids (Hutchinson & Waters, op.cit.), so this leads to understanding the surface forms, and developing the reading skills more than mastering the language itself. To put it simple, the primary purpose of this skill-based instruction is to learn the specific language skills. In this syllabus, learners are expected to be able to group the linguistic competencies (pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary) together into generalised type of behaviour, such as listening or reading for the main idea, writing well-formed paragraphs, or giving effective oral presentations (Tarey, 1988).

Derived from the cognitive learning theories, learners in this approach are described as “thinking beings” (Hutchinson & Waters, op.cit. p.14). To make it crystal clear, the principal idea of this approach is that we learn by “thinking about and trying to make sense of what we see, feel, and hear” (ibid., p.43). That is, opposing to the behaviourist view of learning which presented learners as passive recipient of information, the cognitive approach sees learners as active processors of it.

4.5. Learning-centred approach

Making a flash back to the most important characteristic feature of ESP course design, NA, it may be found that all the stages outlined so far have witnessed some limits. They are all concerned with the description of language use, albeit this latter is only a part of the story. Whether to start from the first approaches, the case of register analysis where the emphasis was put on the surface forms, or the last approaches of skills and strategies in which the underlying processes are analysed, the core element in all is to describe what people do with language. Nothing is said about “how people learn to do what they do with language” (ibid., p.63). Hence, there is a need to know about the process of learning.

To sum up the principle behind learning-centred approach, we could quote the view voiced by Hutchinson and Waters (ibid., p.14):
...Our concern in ESP is not with language use, although this will help to define the course objective. Our concern is with language learning. We cannot simply assume that describing what people do with language will enable someone to learn it....A truly valid approach to ESP must be based on an understanding of the process of language learning..

Recognising well the focal point expressed in the above account, one can ask: Is there any difference between learning-centred, and the common used term learner-centred? The answer to this fundamental question is indeed given by Hutchinson and Waters (ibid.: 72). According to them, the underpinning of learner-centred approach is that learning is totally determined by the learner, as if teachers are all excluded. It is mostly a mental process. However, learning is not only this. It is a process of negotiation between individuals and society. It should be seen in the context in which it occurs. Thus, in the process of learning, there are more other factors to be included, the learner is one of them. The learning-centred approach’ avowed aim is to maximise the potential of learning situation, i.e. compared to the previous skills-approach, this one commits itself to look beyond the competence that enables someone to perform something. What really concerns this approach is to seek “how someone acquires that competence” (ibid., p.73)

To conclude, in this initial section, two prime elements in ESP territory have been tackled, learners and approaches. For the first, we have tried to shed light on learners’ specific needs, and various paths and processes they go through while learning. For the second, we have illustrated that ESP teachers have at their disposal a plethora of approaches. What is recommended is to choose the most adequate. However, some of people favour the combination of numerous approaches in a way to apply what is called an eclectic approach that would neatly fit with ESP teaching / learning objectives.

What is coming in the next part seems to be closely matched with what is described up to the point. How to put theoretical things into practice shows the greatest responsibilities lie on ESP teachers 'shoulders. Their roles to motivate their learners for example through recognising their needs and wants, setting objectives ,and selecting materials based on these needs ,will be discussed in the following.
SECTION TWO: ESP TEACHER AND THEIR ROLES

An ESP teacher is first of all a GE teacher. What makes the difference is that, after gaining the main characteristics of GE teacher, ESP teacher has to acquire other additional capacities needed to deal with the academic or occupational settings. Attaining these objectives is not an easy matter in fact, since the teacher has to enjoy a great deal of flexibility to move from one stage to another, and from a first role to a second.

In ESP land, a variety of roles afforded to teachers. This has been outlined and explained by Hutchinson and Waters (1987), Anthony (1997), Dudley-Evans and Jo St John (1998), Gatehouse (2001), Fiorito (2005) and others. However, before discussing these roles and responsibilities, it should be said that the first and the foremost key factor to success is motivation. If teachers themselves are not motivated, or unable to create or speed motivation in their classes, the rest of roles would not be completed, and so the teaching / learning processes would be dull. Additionally, having an eye bird-view on those roles which ESP teacher should fulfil, it may be noted that they are all overshadowed under the umbrella of the single term motivation. Take it for granted, setting goals beforehand, and selecting or producing materials, for instance, are motivating in their turns for learners.

When we talk about motivation, we do in fact refer to the interpersonal contact between teachers and learners within the classroom world. Erwin (2004:5) stated that teacher-student relationship could really exist when two conditions are met:

- The teacher has the knowledge and desire to impart information skills to his students.
- The students are interested in learning knowledge and skills that are being offered.

From these two points, we have to consider that teachers ‘motivation has momentous bearings on students’ “motivational disposition and more generally on their learning achievement” (Dornyei, 2005, p.115).

Briefly, success breeds success. Thus this crucial psychological feature would be our starting issue in this second section.
1. Motivating students

As noted above, students are the real deal of both teaching and learning processes. Despite the fact that motivation, most of all, comes from learners themselves, the teacher’s role in increasing it is undeniable. Some of what teachers can do to keep interest alive in their classes; will be in the upcoming discussion of roles of ESP teacher. Before so doing, it is better to have a look on motivation as such, because it is amongst the important individual variables that significantly affects language learning success and progress.

1.1. Definition of motivation

Motivation is viewed as the reason that stimulates and spurs someone to do something. Quite natural and simple, people often enjoy doing something they like and they are good at, and not to enjoy things they detest or bad at. In learning, motivation is regarded as the learners’ enthusiasm, attitude, and willingness to acquire a second language.

The thriving area of motivation inspires a lot of educational psychologists who offered copious definitions to this term. The following are some figures:

Woolfolk (2004, p.350) defined motivation as “an internal state that arouses, directs, and maintains behaviour”. All of us understand how one feels when he/she is motivated. What energizes and directs our behaviour could be “drives, needs, fears, goals, social pressure, self-confidence, interests, curiosity, beliefs, values and more” (ibid., p.351). The same definition seemingly offered by Feldman (1997) when wrote that motivation is factors that direct and energize behaviour.

For Jordan, Carlike, and Stack (2008, p.154), the word motivation comes from the Latin “movere” which means “to move”. They see then that motivation refers to “the set of factors that move people so that they respond”.

Richards and Schmidt (2002, p.343) put it as “the driving force in any situation that leads to action”. Generally, they and other psychologists distinguished between four types of motivation.

1.2. Types of motivation

The most commonly known types are:
1.2.1. Intrinsic motivation

It is the internal motives by which people “participate in an activity for their amusement, not for the reward they will get” (Feldman, op.cit., p.280). Richards and Schmidt (ibid.) described it as “enjoyment of language learning itself”. Another definition was given by (Deci & Ryan 1985; Reeve, 1996; Ryan & Deci, 2000, cited in Woolfolk, op.cit., p.351) who explained that intrinsic motivation is “the natural tendency to seek out and conquer challenges as we pursue personal interests and exercise capabilities”.

From the presented definitions, we could say that intrinsic motivation after all comes from needs, drives, curiosity within students themselves, i.e., their inherent inner interest.

1.2.2. Extrinsic motivation

It is driven by external factors as “parental pressure, societal expectations, or academic requirements” (Richards & Schmidt, op.cit.). In this type, language is not learnt for itself, but for other outside forces. It relies heavily on “incentives (positive reinforcement) or punishment (negative reinforcement)” (Erwin, op.cit., p.6). Hence, compared to the first type, this one is characterized by a tangible reward.

1.2.3. Instrumental motivation

It speaks for itself. It is defined as the desire to learn and use language as an instrument (a means) to reach certain goals, for example, having a job, reading foreign newspapers, or passing exams. Instrumental motivation mirrors learners' determination and zeal to satisfy some useful purposes. It is therefore oriented to more practical concerns.

1.2.4. Integrative motivation.

This type is characterised by the willingness to be like a valued members of the language community (Richards & Schmidt, ibid.). Integrative motivation imparts learners' desire to identify themselves through particular socio-cultural features of the language being learnt, i.e., within this kind, learners aim at language in order to communicate with people of other communities (cultures). For instance, those who live in foreign countries
hope to be integrated in these societies. That is, their learning language is moved by integrative reasons.

The prime objective to deal with motivation and its types is to emphasise the positive role of ESP teachers in boosting their learners' motivation, fostering their learning, and getting in their world. The matter is not so facile; however, it would be possible. Petty (2009, p.44) wrote:

Motivation is regarded by experienced and inexperienced teachers alike as a prerequisite for effective learning, and the greatest challenge that many teachers face is to make their students want to learn. If students do not want to learn, their learning efficiency will be so low that they may learn virtually nothing. If you know how to motivate students, you can hugely increase their learning rate.

Hence, some of what teachers could do to motivate their undergraduates to learn effectively, will be explained below under the heading:

2. Specific roles

To motivate their students to learn, ESP teachers may have a surfeit of ways. Quite often, they do not only teach in class, but they are also involved in other activities. Being so, they are called ESP practitioners. This term is used firstly by Swales (1985, cited in Hutchinson & Waters, 1987:57). Dudley-Evans and St John (1998, p.13) mentioned that ESP practitioner has four key roles namely “collaborator, course designer and material provider, researcher and evaluator”. By way of balance, Fiorito (2005) spoke that ESP teacher needs to play various roles. It is their responsibility to organise courses, set objectives, create learning environment, and evaluate students. In a discussion about an ESP course for business students in China, Gao (2007, cited in Brunton, 2009, p.7) mentioned that when planning an ESP course, the primary issue is the analysis of learners’ specific needs. Other issues include: “Determination of realistic goals and objectives, integration of grammatical functions and the abilities required for future workplace communication, assessment, and evaluation”.

The sum of all these roles puts the teacher in a manager status. Managing is first of all creating the conditions for students to be interested in learning or performing, and then providing the structures, strategies and activities that would animate quality learning and quality performance (Erwin, 2004).
Put it differently, essentially, teachers have two major roles in classroom. The first role has to do with the social side of teaching. It is the very job of the teacher to provide conditions under which learning takes place. The second is “the task-oriented side of teaching” where teachers convey knowledge to their learners, through various means. (Wright, 1987, p.51-52)

As noted formerly, what make the distinction between the GE and the ESP teacher to emerge are the extra-key roles suggested by Dudley- Evans and St John (op.cit). So, to meet the specific needs of learners and to adopt methodologies and activities of the target discipline, the ESP practitioner should call for field specialists’ help. That is, they need to work closely and collaboratively with a group of expert people in the specialist area. This implies that ESP is an integrated field which involves many participants like learners, teachers, administrators, sponsors, and subject specialists. Hence, at this stage a kind of cooperation through which the ESP teacher embodies his/her role as negotiator (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987:164) is recommended. Playing this role and being in a team teaching would help ESP teachers to get aware of the language difficulties and problems their students may encounter. Bynom (2000, p.38) showed the importance of team teaching, even between the teacher and students themselves when wrote: “The experience of team teaching allowed the ESP teacher to become part of the dynamics of the classroom and to experience the kind of difficulties the students face”.

Once more, if collaboration with experts is too demanding or not possible, ESP practitioner should do it with their learners. ESP adults have well defined goals. This prompts them to actively participate in ESP courses designing. To this point, teachers need to arrange learners to have a degree of autonomy, control, and responsibility. As Kaur (2007, cited in Brunton, 2009, p.7) said: “When ESP learners take some responsibility of their own learning and are invited to negotiate some aspects of the course design…. they feel motivated to become more involved in their learning…”.

Creating a learning environment, giving students a say in class, listening to, and valuing all their contributions, even incorrect, are paramount features in teaching. Teachers need to teach “assertiveness techniques” (Jordan et al., op.cit,p.164) that would build up students' self-confidence and self-reliance. They are expected to make a rich atmosphere in classes where communication and negotiations take place. They are also supposed to provide help and remediation, if necessary. ESP teacher might be the only English speaker available to their learners. Because students see them as a helpful and beneficial resource, they continue to use this ingenuity as they progress (Bynom, op.cit.).
The type of courses where students’ views are taken into account is called “flexible negotiated course”. It allows room for a change based on feedback from learners (Nunan, 1988, cited in Dudley-Evans & St John, op.cit., p.153). Here, students welcome the opportunity to air out their views and even to have some control over what they are taught. Consequently, teachers can boost students' motivation by engaging them in the process of course development (Erwin, op.cit.). Offering a useful curriculum is one important way to help students meet their needs.

Concerning the second role allocated to ESP teacher as course designer and material provider, we can say that GE teacher is required to do the same, too. The first step that teachers need to start with is to set objectives, either for lessons or materials. One of the main tasks of teachers is to plan for attainable goals and outcomes. Without having clear short term-goals, students would become demotivated. According to Xenodohidis (2002) cited in Brunton (op.cit. p.6), “goals should be realistic; otherwise, the students would be demotivated”. So, it is necessary for teachers to underline their purposes. Students require frequent reminders of what their teachers are teaching them. Teachers need to sell what they are teaching (Petty, op.cit.:47). In a thorough description, Basturkmen (2006:133) examined broad five objectives in teaching ESP. They are as follows:

- To reveal subject-specific language use.
- To develop target performance competencies.
- To teach underlying knowledge.
- To develop strategic competence.
- To foster critical awareness.

As for materials, they refer to everything designed specifically for language teaching and learning. For example, course books and authentic materials such as recordings and newspapers articles which are primarily exploited for teaching purposes. Dornyei (2001) cited in Brunton (op.cit.) stated that having a clear purpose behind materials also promotes motivation. Despite this, selecting materials is one of the crucial controversial topics in ESP, and one of the problems that teachers strive.

For Hutchinson and Waters (op.cit., p.165), the notion of “subject-specific ESP materials” does not exist. They favoured materials that cover a wide range of fields. As they aptly said: “There is no grammatical structure function or discourse structure that can be identified specifically with Biology or any particular subject”.
Hence, they argued that the grammatical structures, functions, discourse and skills of different fields are alike. However, other researchers prove the opposite. Anthony (1998, cited in Anthony, 1997, 4) demonstrated the unique features of writing in the field of engineering.

Casting into these paradoxical streams, i.e., between those who defended the existence of subject-specific materials and those who denied it, and with the exception of textbooks designed for some domains as “computer science or business studies” (Anthony, 1997, p.4), ESP teachers are left with no choice than to bring, provide, and develop their own materials. To maintain learners’ motivation, teaching materials have to be varied, interesting and relevant, as possible, to the students’ specific purpose and specific field of activity. It is at this phase that ESP teacher takes the position of researcher.

The last role of ESP teacher, as listed earlier, is evaluator. According to Dudley and Jo St John (op.cit:17), this function requires both evaluating course design and teaching materials. The type of evaluation could be done either during or after the presentation of course. They wrote: “It is important to follow up with students sometime after the course in order to assess whether the learners have been able to make use of what they learned and to find out what they were not prepared for”.

Since teachers wait feedback from their learners, they have to be aware of the amount and the type of the feedback produced. Additionally, as they give feedback to their students, teachers ought to provide encouraging and positive one. In spite of this, many researchers have noted that this final role of evaluator is the one which ESP practitioners have neglected most to date.

The illustrated roles are amongst the important responsibilities and tasks teachers need to do in order to sustain interest, curiosity and thus motivation alive.

In brief, motivation is the engine that drives the learning process, however most ESP teachers find it challenging as they struggle to get what is needed and appropriate. Being overloaded with more activities and roles with the lack of some experience and knowledge in ESP areas, many teachers meet various problems in their career. It is therefore advisable that some sorts of training programmes would help in reducing their troubles.
Conclusion

In this present chapter, we have intended to give a general overview of some theoretical issues related to ESP. This comprises the three pivotal reasons of its emergence: the demands of a Brave New World, a revolution in linguistics, and a focus on the learner its definition as a vibrant field of ELT based on needs of students, its characteristics, its divisions (EAP, EOP, EST) and then its development. This latter shows in a thorough description the copious approaches linked to ESP; namely, register, discourse, and needs analysis, followed by skill-based approach as well as learning-centred. All of these five instructions have something in common that is needs, the milestone of ESP.

In an attempt to move from the theoretical issues to the practical ones, we have devised a second part where we have spoken about motivation, as being a crucial issue of any teaching / learning processes. Then, to show how this motivation could be attained, i.e., to talk about some of what ESP teachers should do, in class or outside it, to motivate their learners, we have tried to deal with and describe teachers' roles. Motivation plays a central contribution in effective teaching / learning. To reach this effectiveness, teachers need, for instance, to vary contents and techniques that best suit their students' needs and wants. Similar to any other branches in ELT, ESP should not confine itself just with specific terminology and some grammatical points, but other language aspects and skills are necessary, too, in order to achieve fruitful outcomes. This includes, for example, reading through which specific vocabulary items and grammatical structures are exploited. So, the forthcoming chapter will deal with reading comprehension skill, as one of the important dexterities in ESP realm.
CHAPTER TWO: READING COMPREHENSION SKILL

Introduction ................................................................................................................. 44
1. Definition of Reading ............................................................................................ 44
2. Nature of reading .................................................................................................. 47
   2.1. Bottom-up View of Reading ........................................................................... 48
   2.2. Top-down View of Reading ........................................................................... 49
   2.3. Interactive View of Reading ......................................................................... 50
3. Schema Theory and the Reading Process .............................................................. 51
   3.1. Types of Schemata ....................................................................................... 52
      3.1.1. Formal Schemata .................................................................................. 52
      3.1.2. Content Schemata ................................................................................ 53
   3.2. Activating and Building Schemata ............................................................... 53
   3.3. Applying Schema Theory to L2 Reading ....................................................... 54
4. Reading Materials .................................................................................................. 55
   4.1. Definition of Texts ....................................................................................... 56
   4.2. Types of Texts ............................................................................................. 57
5. Types of Reading ................................................................................................... 58
   5.1. Intensive Reading ....................................................................................... 58
   5.2. Extensive Reading ....................................................................................... 58
   5.3. Critical Reading ......................................................................................... 59
   5.4. Silent Reading ............................................................................................ 59
   5.5. Aloud Reading (Reading Aloud) ................................................................. 60
Conclusion .................................................................................................................. 61
Introduction

In the former chapter, we have mentioned that ESP is used where English is learnt with some specific vocational or educational purpose in mind. It concentrates more on language in context than on teaching grammar and language structures. That is, the focal point in ESP is the ability of learners to use what they learn in class right away in their works or studies. Being capable of doing so, would be motivating for those learners as they could interact and communicate with other people all over the world, i.e., ESP students should know English because it is the international actual means of exchanging information and experiences. To achieve this goal, either oral or written communication is required. Reading is perhaps the most important ability they need to develop since without which they could not get access to this knowledge. Briefly, being able to read in English language is their instrument towards attaining their vocational / educational purposes or interests. Reading skill, after all is vital for ESP students.

Chapter two centres upon this skill, as being core and pivotal for those university learners. It starts with definition of reading; which is not simply an understanding of a set of words or sentences, but a complex operation which integrates more capacities. Then, it moves to explain its nature, which greatly helps in apprehending how to process textual information, along with its well-known approaches; the top-down and the bottom-up. We cannot speak about reading skill without reference to schema theory and the major role it plays in activating learners’ prior knowledge. A talk about this theory and its relation with L2 reading takes place in this chapter, which constitutes at last some important topics such as reading materials and reading types.

1. Definition of reading

As a point of departure, we may say that providing a more precise operational definition to reading is not a facile matter, because as a receptive skill, reading is an area that can be regarded from diverse perspectives, in respect to the complexity of the process itself.

First, it can be viewed from a socio-cultural vista. Reading helps in the socialization of individuals as they learn more about their, and others’ societies and cultures. Second, it can be discussed from a psychological point of view, for reading develops the psychology
of people through close contact with the outside world. It also helps in shaping one’s affective aspects. Third, it can be seen from a philosophical and an educational angle where reading plays a critical force and a major role in widening one's knowledge in various disciplines related to philosophy and education. Finally, reading can be observed from the cognitive perspective in regard to the complex operations occurring at the level of this language skill.

From this account, it can be said that there is a new vision to understand and describe reading. A shift from considering it as a passive skill, in its first old approaches, to an active one in which a reader's mental abilities are highly included. This is clearly seen in the definition afforded by Grellet (1981,p.8), who stated that reading is “an active skill constantly involves guessing, predicting, checking, and asking oneself questions”. Therefore, reading is not; as most of us may think, a simple passive process in which words are attached in a linear relationship uttered and understood one at a time.

Reading can be described as the process of extracting meaning from printed or written material. That is, the ability to decode meaning from graphic symbols. The reader starts from the graphic code, through decoding he/she could reach meaning. In the reading process, the identification of the graphic symbols as well as the interpretation into meaning are both crucial.

As it has been mentioned, there was bit confusion about the nature of reading, among those interested in this scope. At first, it was seen as a visual process where the prime concern under study and analysis is the ability to decode the written words, in which eye movement, perceptual span and letter shapes considered the core characteristics of the whole affair. However, later on, this view have been altered since human thinking and understanding are taken into account, i.e., both visual and non-visual information and features are stepping stones in the reading operation.

Nuttal (1982,p.4) in her definition of reading put: “…. In reading, the main purpose is the extraction of meaning from writing. Our business is with the way the reader gets a message from a text”. According to her, the main concern in the process is the way of extracting, i.e., decoding the message transmitted by the writer. In other words, what is important for her is the procedure of grasping messages.

Again, in reading, the identification of the graphic symbols (deciphering), and then interpreting them into meaning, are two necessary paths towards comprehension. This implies that reading is a mental cognitive operation that requires an interrelation between
language and thought. From the psycholinguistic perspective, reading is a process where the reader brought into a closer contact with the ideas of a writer who is “actually distant in space and time”. (Davies, 1995, p.1).

For Goodman (1988, p.12), the reader has to make sense of the text read, so that to extract the piece of information needed, he defined reading as: “...A psycholinguistic process in that it starts with a linguistic surface representation encoded by a writer, and ends with meaning which the reader constructs. There is thus an essential interaction between language and thought in reading.”

To sum up, in recent researches, reading is mainly considered a cognitive activity that requires a certain amount of thinking on the part of the learner. Say it otherwise, reading is viewed as a close connection and interaction between the reader, as an active participant, and the text or the written message. Reading therefore implies a strong relationship between the syntactic structure and the meaning extraction. Shortly, the reader moves from printed texts to thinking and meaning guessing. This seems to be the same view raised by Widdowson (1979, cited in Carrell, Devine & Eskey, 1988, p.56) who described reading as an interactive process. He noted:

*The reading process is not simply a matter of extracting meaning from the text, rather it is one in which the reading activates a range of knowledge in the reader's mind that he or she uses, and that in turn may refined and extended by the new information supplied by the text.*

Goodman (1967, 1976, 1988) and other researchers such as Smith (1971, 1988, 1994), who favoured the top-down approach to reading, called the above definition “the psycholinguistic guessing game” (ibid., p.57). Hence, he and many others have suggested that reading is basically “concept-driven”. They have formulated tenets of “communication theory” based on the fact that the reader produces hypotheses about the message of the text, then samples textual cues to confirm or reject those hypotheses Clarke, 1988, cited in Carrell et al., ibid., p.115).

To conclude, according to those who defend the psycholinguistic concepts, reading is an active mental private process which involves an interaction between the reader and the text. Grabe (1988) cited in Carrell et al. (ibid., p.56-57) named this an “interpretive process”.

46
2. Nature of reading

Beyond a shadow of a doubt, it is one’s ability to access the most effective information at the right time, for the right purpose, using the right way, that increases their capacity to be successful. Not everyone process information in exactly the same way, or procedure. Consequently, the nature of reading process differs from one to another. This nature constitutes several approaches which show how to well extract and benefit from the information given in a text.

Tierney and Pearson (1994, p. 496) cited in Villanueva de Debat (2006, p. 8) mentioned: “If teachers understand the nature of reading comprehension and learning from a text, they will have the basis for evaluating and improving learning environment”.

From this statement, it might be said that understanding how people learn to process textual information is of a paramount importance in teaching this life skill. In point of fact, dealing with the nature of reading simply means tackling the various approaches, named models, to process information in reading. These approaches have been complied and researched by many behavioural and cognitive scientists for many decades.

The boom of the 1960’s in the field of reading process was not merely a coincidence, it was firstly a consequence of the whole climate of language researches held in respect to the various methods and studies, in which some of them were carried on and others were ended up, and secondly a result of the advancements in psychology, basically in its study of mental processes that pushed further understanding of the way meaning extracted. Focus was put then on the psycholinguistic map drawn by Smith (1991, 1994) and Goodman (1967, 1988), in which hidden cognitive aspects of reading were given a high status, the fact which was not previously discussed. Therefore, the study of reading process increased remarkably and different models were presented to explain what is really going on when people read.

Practically speaking, this variety and disparity of models (approaches to reading) is to offer educators and teachers opportunities to choose top of the top methods and techniques for their students, thus to improve their reading lessons. Researches have yielded that the major approaches to explain the nature of learning to read are the bottom-up processing and the top-down, with a third one which could be considered an amalgam of both, that is the interactive view of reading.
2.1. Bottom-up view of reading

This model is based on the idea that all letters in the reader's visual span must be considered prior to the recognition of their meaning when they form a string. The bottom-up approach to reading was influenced by the behaviourist psychology of the 1950's, under which language is seen as “a response system that human acquire through automatic conditioning process” (Omaggio,1993:45, cited in Villanueva de Debat ,2006,p.9). Hence, the main interest of the behaviourist philosophy was the study of the printed form as a stimulus for a word recognition response. The thing that restricted the reading process, so no examination of the mental side was adventured.

The fact of being derived from behaviourist ideologies could denote that this model was based on the audio-lingual method which sought to form second language “habits” through oral drills, repetitions, and error corrections (ibid.).

Nowadays, the essential method connected with this approach is phonics (ibid,p.9), where the learner matches letters with sounds in a defined sequence. Say it differently, under this approach, also termed “skill-based approach” (Baker,2008,p.23), researchers explained that beginning readers (children) benefit from direct instruction about the letters, syllables, and corresponding sounds of English (Johnston & Watson ,2003 ; Rose,2006). Consequently, this model elucidates that reading process starts with the basic elements of language, i.e. letters and phonemes (speech sounds). During their practice, readers blend individual sounds into words, and they are ultimately able to recognize and pronounce them in reading text (ibid.).

What is stated above would join the viewpoint of Cough (1972, cited in Davies,op.cit.:58) who saw that sequence of processing starts from letters, to sounds, to words, to sentences, and finally to meaning.

Therefore, this conveys that reading could be presented as a linear process by which readers decode a text word by word, linking the words into phrases then sentences (Gray & Rogers,1956 , in Kucer 1987,cited in Villanueva de Debat,op.cit.:9).

According to this view, language is just a code. Readers are passive decoders who need only to identify graphemes and convert them into phonemes. Nothing has to do to know what goes on in the human mind.

In the practical dimension, the bottom-up model in teaching is of little guidance. Learners are exposed to activities that focus on recognition and recall of lexical / grammatical forms stressing on the perceptual and decoding abilities. Regarding grammar, emphasis is laid on the identification of ellipsis and conjunctions, and their functions
within sentences. As for lexical forms, vocabulary development and word recognition have taken the lion's share to successful bottom-up decoding skills. This approach gives no room for the reader's knowledge. It bases itself mainly on the building blocks of sounds and words.

To conclude, as it has been noted at the beginning, this model describes reading as the ability to decode written words. It involves primarily mechanics of reading in which the visual processing is highly required.

2.2. Top-down view of reading

The shortcomings detected under the umbrella of the previous approach, gave rise to a novel model which supposed to enlarge the sight of what the reading process includes. During 1960's, a paradigm transfer occurred in the cognitive sciences. That is to say, the new trend appeared as an alternative of the bottom-up model was a cognitive theory. It stressed the mind's innate capacity for learning. This second recourse was provided in the field of psycholinguistics, emphatically in the work of Smith (1971) and Goodman (1988). Their model passed over the great emphasis placed on the syntactic level under the first approach, and insisted on cognitive perspectives as a major substance so that to be distinguished from Cough's model.

This approach is described in a revolutionized fashion basics and tenets in the reading process. Say it otherwise, this new cognitive or top-down processing changed completely the conception of the way students learn to read (Goodman, 1967, Smith, 1994, cited in Villanueva de Debat, op. cit). According to the mentalists’ view, reading is a process of bonding information given in a text with the background knowledge, Schemata, of a reader which they bring to the act of reading. We therefore say that there is a kind of interaction or a dialogue between the reader and the text (Grabe, 1988 cited in Carrel et al., op.cit, p.56). Reading is looked at as a cognitive activity which implies a certain amount of thinking on the part of the reader. In light of this, reading is not a mechanical process, but “purposeful and rational”. In sum, Smith (1994:2, cited in Villanueva de Debat, op.cit, p.10) wrote: “Reading is a matter of making sense of written language rather than decoding print to sound”.

49
Similar to the first model, this one is either criticized. Its centrality on predictions denies to some extant its applicability in other areas, like phonetics in which learners need only letters and sound knowledge. Besides, this model was regarded complex for teachers who attempt to seek for simple methods. The cognitive theory of learning to read is, too, rigidly carped for its reliance on L1 beginners study to explain the reading behaviour of adult readers. In other words, in its onset, this model afforded new explanatory power to know how human acquire their first language (L1), so that to get access to L2. At this stage, there are some uncertainties about the application of the model on L2 readers since they lack the needed ability to extract meaning directly as they do in their L1 by virtue of its mastery. That is, why they rely heavily on words and letters' decoding to reach text comprehension. Eskey (1988) cited in Davies (op. cit., p. 62) explained this point claiming that the model “... has resulted in many useful insights, but lack of attention to decoding problems has, I think, produced a somewhat distorted picture of the true range of problems second language readers face”.

2.3. Interactive view of reading

To start with, it is necessary to point out that the key term interactive here does not basically refer to the interaction occurred between the reader and the text, as emphasized by schemata theorists; however, it means the interaction, the integration, and the combination of both bottom-up and top-down approaches used to describe the reading process. Many researchers were inspired by this interactive nature. The most prominent figures were (Rumelhart, 1977, 1980, 1984; Rumelhart & McClelland, 1982; Stanovich, 1980, 1981, 1986). Some of their works and studies were based on the reader, some on the text's features, and others on strategies of interpretation (Cele-Murcia & Olshtain, 2000: 19). This statement is akin to the one propounded by Eskey and Grabe (1988, p. 224) when they mentioned: “An interactive model of reading assumes that skills at all levels are interactively available to process and interpret the text. Such a model subsumes top-down and bottom-up strategies”.

They argued that this interactive model incorporates the use of background knowledge, expectations, and context. It also embodies, as Eskey and Grabe added, the following:

- Notions of rapid and accurate recognition of letters and words.
- Spreading activation of lexical forms, and
- The concept of automaticity in processing such forms.
In regard to this view and the above account, the interactive approach acknowledges that both the top-down and the lower level skills are essentials for fluent and accurate reading. It stresses that as “*the bottom process becomes more automatic, higher-level skills will become engaged*” (Villanueva de Debat, op.cit., p.13).

The automaticity of this interactive process requires both the recognition of linguistic units and the interpretation of lexical items which depend on the context. So, this model places a great emphasis on comprehension rather than on selection or prediction of words.

Under this approach, terms such as *top-down* and *bottom-up* are simply emblems or metaphors used to refer to the complex reality of reading. *Top* is significance to higher order mental concepts, as the knowledge and predictions of the reader, while *bottom* refers to the physical written text (Eskey & Grabe, op.cit.:223).

To summarise, the celebrated figures of the interactive model evince that the effective and successful reading necessitates both processes integrating simultaneously, i.e., a balanced inclusion of bottom-up and top-down processing skills is entailed to understand the nature of reading.

As a proponent researcher in this psycholinguistic perspective of reading, Rumelhart (1977, 1980, 1984) focused on the idea of schemata, in which the reader makes use of his knowledge to clear matters. For this, we will next discuss this notion as being a focal element in studying the reading process.

### 3. Schema theory and the reading process

The concept of *schema* or *schemata* goes back to the researches done by the Gestalt psychologists like Wertheimer, and his assistants Kohler, and koffka in 1912 (cited in Anderson & Pearson, 1988:38) though the term has gained greater currency with the work of Bartlett (1932) cited in Nunan (1991:68) who elucidated that schemata is extremely important particularly to second and foreign language learners. For Nunan (1991, 201, cited in Villanueva de Debat, op.cit., p.10), schema theory is based on the notion that “*past experiences lead to the creation of mental frame works that help us make sense of new experiences*”. This implies that the knowledge we have in our mind is organized into interrelated patterns which are built from our past previous experiences and which assist us to make sense of new present or future experiences. That is to say, these patterns allow us to anticipate what we might do in a given context (Nunan, ibid.). Therefore, what Nunan stated could mean that past and new experiences will be joined under schemata model. The
latter reflects how human knowledge is stored in memory. Anderson (1994:469,cited in Villanueva de Debat,ibid.) argued that: “A reader comprehends a message when he is able to bring to mind a schema that gives account to the objects and events mentioned in a discourse”.

This conveys that a reader's call of information is influenced by their previous knowledge which they will use to grasp the message. Hence, comprehension at this phase is an activation of learner's schemata to explain what is presented to them.

According to Anderson and Pearson (op.cit.p.37) comprehension is interaction between old and new information. They put:

To say that one has comprehended a text is to say that she has found a mental "home" for the information in the text ,or else she has modified an existing mental home in order to accommodate that new information.

Consequently as mentioned above, a learner schema will restructure itself to fit and harmonize new information as that information is added to the system (Omaggio, 1993, cited in Villanueva,op.cit.).

3.1. Types of schemata

Supporters for the schemata theory, distinct between two types: formal and content schemata. Carrell (1984, cited in Villanueva de Debat,ibid.) said that the knowledge about the structure of a text, added to the knowledge of the subject matter enable the reader to predict events and meaning. These two kinds of knowledge are the following:

3.1.1. Formal schemata

They have to do with the reader's knowledge of language and linguistic elements in addition to knowledge about text constructions and genres. That is to say, it refers to the difference exists between texts. Knowledge of various genres and organizational structures can help reading comprehension. For instance, readers need to differentiate between the formats of scientific articles, letters, essays, and stories. Hence, being able to grasp this will boost their interaction and comprehension of the text read.

When readers bear in mind that introduction, theory, methods, results, discussion and conclusion (Villanueva de Debat,ibid.) are the main sections in a research article, it will be easier for them to understand the content of the text read.
If readers are not familiar with such structures, teachers should introduce and develop them, as they would improve their students' reading ability. In this type, more interest is also given to syntactic and lexical knowledge as superior factors for efficient reading. Overemphasis is placed here on learning language, and on having as much knowledge as possible about it in order to be able to read. Cooper (1984) for example compared between readers who are trained in language and those who are not, to assume that the difference between them lies in each group's knowledge of vocabulary. Students' capacities to parse sentences are also considered in this type of formal schemata.

To sum up, this kind refers to the reader's knowledge of various rhetorical structures of texts.

### 3.1.2. Content schemata

It refers to the message and the topic of a text. This type, indeed have raised too much interest in the field of psychology and education. Content schema is the background stored information in one's memory. Readers need to have knowledge about the content of the message (text) to be able to understand it. This illustrates, as mentioned before, that the importance of schema theory appears in the integration of old and new information. Anderson's view conveys that reading becomes efficacious process when readers get familiar with the topic (content) read, i.e., naturally, they have a general tendency to read familiar texts compared to unfamiliar ones. This would have beneficial effects on their reading ability.

### 3.2. Activating and building schemata

It may happen that readers come to class with little or no schema that is pertinent to a text comprehension; hence, it is the teacher's role to activate or rebuild it so that to help better understanding. Factors as readers' age, gender, experience, and culture can be well considered if teachers want to select motivating readings for their students. Again, when readers find it an impediment to understand a given text, the teacher must be ready to engage in building new background knowledge as well as activating the existing one.

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3Anderson (1994:469) (cited in Villanueva de Debat, ibid., p.10)
When discussing the pre-reading activities which aim at building this background information, followed the top-down processing, Carrell et al (1988, p.248) put: “Pre-reading activities must accomplish both goals: Building new background knowledge as well as activating existing background knowledge”.

Stevens (1982, p.328) added saying that “A teacher of reading might thus be viewed as a teacher of relevant information as well as a teacher of reading skills.” (cited in Carrell et al., ibid.).

Researchers in schemata's field see that the greatest difficulties students face in comprehension could be attributed to the lack of background knowledge. If a mismatch lies between students' cultural contexts, and the one presented in a text, they will certainly fall in problems. This means that they lack “the culture-specific background knowledge” necessary to process the text in a top-down manner (Villanueva, op.cit., p.11). As a result, the teacher's role is paramount to activate and build schemata. How this could be achieved will be tackled bellow, and more thoroughly in the next chapter, in teaching pre-reading strategies.

3.3. Applying schemata theory to L2 reading

Activating and building students' schemata is central in reading comprehension classes. So, teachers have a plethora of tasks to do in order to arrive at this goal.

Broadly speaking, extensive amounts of research opinions and suggestions exist regarding the teaching of reading skill, notably the one provided by Carrell, Devine, and Eskey (1988). Carrell et al.’collections supplied a theoretical frame work and a certain empirical studies showing how schemata are implicated in reading comprehension. They explained that after the primary role of selecting appropriate texts, which should correspond with students' needs, abilities, and preferences, the teacher has been conferred a procedure that comprises three stages of activities typically used to activate and build learners' schemata as pre-reading, during/while-reading, and post-reading activities (Villanueva de Debat, op.cit.). These strategies (activities) are to be discussed in some details in the forthcoming chapter, but we can just touch on few glances on each.

- **Pre-reading phase activities**: At this stage, the teacher needs to have their students think, write, and discuss everything associated with the theme of the text.
- **During-reading phase activities**: This phase requires the teacher to guide and monitor the interaction between the reader and the text.
• **Post-reading phase activities**: It helps in evaluating students’ ability of interpretation.

To epitomize, the three stages are serviceable in the activation and the construction of schemata; however, *the pre-reading stage* deserves special attention, because it is during the first contact with the text that students’ background knowledge is freshened.

4. **Reading materials**

The jumping-off point to discuss reading materials is to note that the reading behaviour is not an isolated unit of structure, rather it is an amalgamation of different factors all interacting to produce reading. In defining the reading comprehension process, McShane (2005, p. 72) quoted the one presented in the Rand Report, *Reading for Understanding*, where this skill was described as: “*The process of simultaneously extracting and constructing meaning through interaction and involvement with written language*”.

This imparts obviously that without written materials (texts), there is no reading. The above reference to *extracting* and *constructing* is to stress both the importance and the insufficiency of the text as a determinant of reading comprehension. Thus, as said before, comprehension entails the reader, as an active participant who does the comprehension, the text, as a comprehended material, and the activity, as practiced element.

According to Snow (2002) cited in McShane (ibid.), in considering the reader, the reading process involves all the capacities and knowledge he/she brings to the act of reading. As for materials, it is broadly constructed to include any printed or electronic text. Meanwhile, activities, purposes, processes, and consequences associated with the act of reading are also accounted.

Material development in ESP is a problem faced by most of teachers. While it may come true that a successful teacher can make almost any set of reading materials work in class, it is apparent that the adequately conceived exercises drive the teacher to work more efficiently with students to overcome some of their reading problems.(Ajideh, 2006). For Hutchinson and Waters (1987), materials should stimulate learners to learn, in our case motivate them to read. Though providing materials is a challenging task, teachers need to bring those which are appropriate for their students’ proficiency level, interests and needs, i.e. they should be
relevant. Good materials are those which include, for example, selected interesting texts, and effective agreeable and amusing activities that would allow students to exploit their existing knowledge and to create new ones. Materials so that have to be flexible and systematic, since the choice is much more dependent on each group of students' situation. Because in our modest investigation, we are concerned with ESP students, we may assume that materials need to be linked with their specific area of study. They should provide more practice in language skills rather than merely linguistic forms.

As we have referred to before, texts and activities' selections are two paths towards efficient teaching and learning. Therefore, concerning the text, it is regarded as a seductive structure which brings people to the reading world.

4.1. Definition of text

Texts are the raw material of any reading process, since without which there would be no reading at all. As essential written piece, a text is widely defined. According to Halliday and Hassan (1976:1-2) cited in Davies (1991, p.85):

... A text is a unit of language in use...and it is not defined by its size...A text is best regarded as a semantic unit: a unit not of form but of meaning. A text has a texture and that is what distinguished it from something that is not a text. It derives this texture from the fact that it functions as a unity with respect to its environment.

In a further definition, they added saying: “Texts are characterized by the unity of their structure and the unity of their texture” (Halliday & Hasan 1985/1989, cited in ibid.).

To balance both definitions, it can be noted that a writer's purpose behind writing a text, i.e. the meaning to be extracted by the reader, a text cohesion that is termed texture complemented by the second item structure, are essential for a clear definition of texts. Structure denotes that sentences, out of which a text is formed, are organized in a chronological chain recognized by the reader. Texture, refers to the linguistic links between sentences. (Davies, ibid:86).

As for the second important element in reading, activities need to serve up all the students with mixed levels. They should be varied in a way to lead students to more fruitful learning, because this would also broaden the basis of teachers training through introducing them to novel techniques.

Hutchinson and Waters (op.cit., p.107) wrote:
Materials help to organize the teaching-learning process, by providing a path through the complex mass of the language to be learnt. Good materials should, therefore provide a clear and coherent unit structure which will guide teacher and learner through various activities in such a way as to maximize the chances of learning.

In reading comprehension credits, students are supposed to practise some sorts of activities which aim to develop their reading skill, either those related to language components, or those to communicative skills.

4.2. Types of texts

The analysis of text types is of a great value because it helps in determining both the reader's purpose and strategy. In reading, one may get in contact with a letter, a newspaper, a novel, an electronic message, a play, a conversation, a picture, or a table. Hence, a text can be written, spoken, or even visual.

Broadly speaking, texts are of three types: literature, mass media and every day texts. They can also be categorized according to their writing styles and purposes. These kinds of texts are typically used in classes. Namely: descriptive, narrative, argumentative, and expository. At this stage, we are not going to provide a thorough definition of each type; however, we can only touch on a few considerations of some of ESP texts. Specialized students may read a text either related to their academic studies or their future careers. We can list, for example:?

- Academic texts (course book, journals).
- Lecture handouts / University prospectors.
- Magazines / Periodicals (E.g. Economist, New Scientists).
- Examination papers / Notices.
- Company brochures / Company regulations / Faxes.
- Instruction booklets / Application letters / E-mail messages.

To close, a reader, a text, and an activity are fundamental ingredients in the reading process. The variety of text types convey that there is no one standard text that should be handled in a sole way. Different texts require different ways of reading. Students are

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4 Some of these examples are taken from: Chan (2001:22)
consequently expected to have a kind of flexibility to move from one type to another using numerous techniques and strategies.

5. Types of reading

Reading differs in style from one individual to another. The term style here can refer to the type of reading introduced by a reader to accomplish their process successfully. A reader could approach one text differently. That is they might use various techniques within the same text according to purpose in mind, while we may find many people use one identical method in reading a text. It may happen also that different individuals can apply different ways when dealing with either one, or various texts. This view could be backed by Grellet (1981, p.17) who said: “One of the most important points to keep in mind when teaching reading is that there is no one type of reading but several according to one's reasons for reading”. This illustrates that types of reading are not an agreed upon point in the literature of reading.

On the whole, reading falls into two major categories: intensive and extensive. Other kinds are also tackled by many researches such as El Mutawa and Kailani (1989), and Davies (1991). They are critical, silent, and aloud reading.

5.1. Intensive reading

It is named study reading. It is a classroom activity carried on under the supervision of the teacher (El Mutawa & Kailani, 1989). It is basically concerned with short texts analysis. This means that intensive reading focuses on new words, structures, expressions, functions, pronunciation, and cultural insights. By doing intensive reading the reader seeks for details. Grellet (ibid., p.4) called it an “accuracy activity”. So since the quantity of comprehension should be intense or extreme, the reading speed should be dilatory.

5.2. Extensive reading

This second common type is ordinarily done outside the classroom (at home for e.g.), either to acquire general information or for pleasure.

For Grellet (op.cit.), extensive reading requires longer texts mainly read for pleasure. It is a “fluency activity” which involves global comprehension. Since it has a supplementary role
in enhancing readers' abilities, it is called *supplementary reading*. Its importance lies in reinforcing what a reader already knows. Extensive reading serves as a stance to enlarge their general knowledge.

Following Frank Smith’s slogan “we learn to read by reading”, Nuttall (1996, p.128) argued that extensive reading is a way to foster a foreign language learning. She stated: “*The best way to improve your knowledge of a foreign language is to go and live among its speakers. The next best way is to read extensively in it*”.

To recapitulate, extensive reading is a shift from classroom world into more private one. Nuttall (ibid.) mentioned that there are two core reasons for an extensive reading programme. She put:

... *First, getting students to read extensively is the easiest and the most effective way to improve their reading skill. Second, it is much easier to teach people to read better if they are learning in a favourable climate, where reading is valued not only as an educational tool, but as a source of enjoyment.*

### 5.3. Critical reading

Reading is the perception of a written text. This perception can be totally accepted in terms of form and content, it can be criticized, or it may be rejected. A critical reader is not the one who is simply aware of what the text says, but of how information is portrayed in the text.

Critical reading involves a reader's interpretations and judgments about a text. It is seen as a kind of the intensive reading. It is also described as reading between the lines. This latter means that the reader is supposed to more analyze the meaning behind the author's words.

In short, critical reading requires the study and analysis of the various elements manipulated by the writer like for example, the choice of the content and the language of presentation, so that to apprehend their impact on the extraction of meaning.

### 5.4. Silent reading

It is defined as reading for understanding. It is viewed as a type of intensive reading. Akin to the first kind, it requires the teacher guidance and help mainly in the initial stages of learning. Teachers are supposed to drive learners to be quick readers. Say it in different way, developing the reading speed is a distinctive feature of silent reading.
In terms of activities which aim at enhancing students’ reading rapidity, the skillful teacher could govern this reading with time pressure. The latter enforces students to be fast readers in order to answer their comprehension questions and to do their activities. Types of exercises at this phase are varied. The teacher could supply questions that require yes-no answers, Wh, or multiple choice questions, and inference questions where the information is not explicitly given in the text (Al Mutawa & Kailani, op.cit.). However, what makes the silent reading a hard task to be actually fulfilled in the class, is the inclusion of the teacher in the process. That is, this type is unobservable as students read silently. This in turns makes it difficult to be assessed.

5.5. Aloud reading (Reading aloud)

Another type of reading skill that is used to attain a set of purposes as checking pronunciation, word stress, pauses, intonation, and understanding (Al-Mutawa & Kailani, 1989) is reading aloud. It is also termed oral reading. It is doubtless that this way of reading behaviour is the most visible proof of reading. When one listens to a reader reads a text loudly, they can both see and hear the extent to which this reading aloud coincides with the written form. Hence, it is quite natural to find that oral reading is the most useful practice in both L1 and L2 beginning reading classroom (Davies, 1991). Traditionally, this type was regarded as the essence of “the informal and standardized tests” to measure reading performance (Davies, ibid.p.11).

Being applicable in the classroom, reading aloud is a diagnostic means at the disposal of teachers and researchers. A teacher through their listening to individual oral readings can gather a considerable amount of knowledge about the way readers approach texts, and the strategies they bring and utilize in case of difficulties. Therefore, unlike the silent reading which is more hidden, private and quiet, this oral reading is more observable, analyzable and testable. Factors observed in this reading may include the speed, the fluency, and the degree of confidence, or the anxiety manifested by the reader. The use of copious strategies, like following words or lines with a finger, regression to an earlier piece, or reference to a next one which is not read, is remarkable under this type.

Besides, another element which catches also the attention of many researchers, is the role of oral reading in “miscue analysis” as it helps in observing the errors, their number and the place of their occurrence (Davies, op.cit.:12-13).
Errors or miscue analysis was the prime concern of a lot of teacher-researchers namely Clay (1968, 1969), Goodman (1969), and Weber (1970) who expressed that this analysis involves “the systematic recording and analysis of errors as a source of information about how readers are processing a text”. (cited in Davies, ibid.). They argued that errors are “informative”.

In doing a reading aloud, readers do not pay much attention to what they are reading; however, their main focus is on performing reading as perfect as possible, in an attempt to avoid all mistakes in order to win the praise of the teacher. Hence, they seem not to read for their own sake, but for others. This demonstrates that like these readers are careless about the content of the text. Despite this, we could finally say that oral reading has served many researches which were done on reading scope as it would provide further experiments in this respect.

Conclusion

Reading is a vast field whether in theory or in practice. This chapter is an attempt to spot light on some basic understandings related to this receptive language skill. Needless to say, reading plays a great role in the linguistic, social, psychological, educational, and the sum of these, the cultural level of human beings’ life.

In defining this skill, reading is no longer considered as a passive mechanical activity where a reader is just to decipher a given message in front of them, rather it is a process in which they use the surface and the mental deep aspects of language. This apparently means that reading is a two-fold skill which bins the bottom-up, and the top-down processing. Moreover, the interactive view of reading, which combines the two last processes, is highly appreciated and spared by psycholinguists who describe reading as an interaction between language and thought. Engaging students in discussions to activate or build their schemata is of massive help in reading. Linking what they already know with something new, in front of them, would lead to successful understanding. So, when we deal with reading, we need to refer to other competencies as influential elements. Writing, listening, and speaking are also integrated within the whole process. This means that these various skills are intertwined and any endeavour to hermetically seal off one from the others would lead to serious effects which would prohibit the development of a versatile language competence (Murdoch, 1986).
Reading was and still be the interest of many scholars who agree upon the fact that it is one of the most important skills. Chastain (1988: 218, cited in Alemi & Ebadi, 2010, p. 570) though accepting the importance of reading for meaning claimed that “all reading activities serve to facilitate communication fluency in each of other language skills”. As such, knowing how to read becomes a central issue in teaching / learning spheres, either to be backed or moved by general attentions, or by more specific ones, whether to read, for example, intensively or extensively, readers have felt the necessity of this skill to well perform their educational and professional roles and activities, though they may encounter difficulties during their ways to success.

For ESP students, reading is their tool to the wide range of knowledge available in English, and more vitally to information related to their field of specialization. Students need and thus read documents in economics and business for example, consequently teaching this skill is an important demanding task where teachers are supposed to provide materials (texts and activities, for instance) which are more relevant to their classes' level, wants, and interests. That is to say, texts and activities need to have the right level of difficulty / easiness. Very high, or very low-level contents might be de-motivating to students. So, as Cooper (1980, cited in Abdulghani, 1993) said it, the criteria for selecting topics is students' interests and needs. At this stage, teachers must not cut their students down to size. In reading, many students could meet difficulties, hence, the teacher should not add to the situation, or be sage on the stage and consider them less-proficient, even they really are. Instead, he/she needs to give learners a helping hand to allay some of their problems. The first thing to do is to drive them to reading, i.e. to create interest, and to train students to use some of reading strategies which would contribute in improving their abilities and facilitating their comprehension. By so doing, learners would be able to deal with various texts using various strategies for various purposes. The fact that will be tackled in the following chapter.
CHAPTER THREE: READING COMPREHENSION STRATEGIES

Introduction ................................................................................................................. 64
1. Definition of Reading Strategies ............................................................................. 64
2. Distinction between Skills and Strategies ................................................................. 66
3. Types of Reading Strategies .................................................................................... 67
4. Second Language Reading Strategies Research ......................................................... 69
5. Reading Strategies and Comprehension ................................................................. 71
6. Teaching Reading Strategies .................................................................................. 72
6.1. Teaching Objectives ............................................................................................. 74
6.2. Types of Reading Activity .................................................................................... 75
6.2.1. Pre-reading Phase Activities ............................................................................ 76
6.2.1.1. Setting purpose ......................................................................................... 77
6.2.1.2. Activating prior knowledge ....................................................................... 78
6.2.1.2.1. Semantic mapping (Brainstorming) ......................................................... 78
6.2.1.2.2. Class discussion ................................................................................... 80
6.2.1.2.3. Anticipation (Previewing/Prediction) ....................................................... 81
6.2.1.2.4. Prediction ............................................................................................. 83
6.2.1.2.5. Questioning (Reconciled Reading) ......................................................... 83
6.2.1.3. Vocabulary development ............................................................................. 84
6.2.2. While-reading phase activities ......................................................................... 86
6.2.2.1. Identifying the topic .................................................................................. 86
6.2.2.2. Finding details in a text ............................................................................. 87
6.2.2.3. Following a sequence ............................................................................... 87
6.2.2.4. Infering from a text (Reading between lines) ............................................. 88
6.2.2.5. Recognising the writer’s purpose and attitude .......................................... 88
6.2.2.6. Recognising discourse features ................................................................ 89
6.2.2.7. Transforming information ....................................................................... 89
6.2.2.8. Grammar review ..................................................................................... 90
6.2.3. Post-reading phase activities .......................................................................... 90
6.2.3.1. Evaluation ............................................................................................... 91
6.2.3.2. Appreciation ........................................................................................... 92
6.2.4. SQ3R strategy ................................................................................................. 92
Conclusion ............................................................................................................... 94
Introduction

It is commonly believed that comprehension is the heart of reading. As previously seen, reading has been centre of attention for many people. It was first regarded as decoding, while in the 1970's, the emphasis was on comprehension (Weir & Urquhart, 1998). Reading becomes then an actively engaged and thoughtful process, so a good reader is the one who reads a given text for understanding; however, it may come that many readers do not reach a total comprehension since they could lack the strategies needed to attain meaning. Being aware of the use of reading comprehension strategies would aid students to become more effective readers. Strategies could be taught in class. Hence, it is the very job of teachers to drive their learners to be strategic so that better prepared for tomorrow's world. For ESP students, it is necessary to develop some strategies which would assist them read, understand, and learn key notions found for example in their textbooks, essays, and technical journals. Therefore, ESP learners need to acquire and make use of certain skills and strategies which would help them read and retain their information successfully.

This third chapter attempts to describe some issues related to reading comprehension strategies, one of the reading essentials which concerns a lot of people. This chapter begins with definitions of core notions like learning strategies, and reading comprehension strategies. Then, it covers the three types of strategies: cognitive, metacognitive, and socio-affective. Next, it deals with the various researches done in this area, followed by the major role that strategies play in extracting meaning, i.e., in comprehension of written materials. By the end, this chapter details the three phases used in teaching reading comprehension: pre, while, and post-reading stages, in a way to afford some practical hints.

1. Definition of reading strategies

First of all, and before going into reading comprehension strategies, we could start by defining the key term strategy, and language learning strategies as being a widely studied theme for many years.

In point of fact, the most prominent recent works held on language learning strategies were those published at the beginning of the 1990's, by O'Malley and Chamot (1990), Oxford (1990), and Wenden (1991) (cited in Dornyei, 2005, p.166) where they argued that
the above notion, language learning strategies, reflects “the learners' proactive contribution to enhancing the effectiveness of their own learning”. According to O'Malley and Chamot (1990,p.1), learning strategies are “the special thoughts or behaviours that individuals use to help them comprehend, learn or retain new information”. Oxford and Crookall (1989) defined learning strategies as “learning techniques, behaviours, problem-solving, or study skills which make learning more effective and efficient” (cited in Singhal, 2001,p.1). As for Oxford (1990,p.1) learning strategies are “steps taken by students to enhance their own learning”. Comparing the last two definitions with the first afforded by O'Malley and Chamot, it could be noted that the former one highlights the cognitive aspects of strategies which appear in the use of the term thoughts. This concept differentiates it from Oxford's. O'Malley and Chamot (ibid.) seem to favour Anderson's view. That is, they tried to establish a learning strategy research based on Anderson's (1983-1985) general cognitive psychological theory (cited in Dornyei, ibid: 167). Latter, O'Malley and Chamot (1994) put forward a general definition by stating that learning strategies are “methods and techniques that individual use” (cited in ibid.,p.168). To end up, Cohen (1998,p.4) described learning strategies as being “learning process which are consciously selected by the learner”. He showed that the item selection or choice here is paramount as it is a core distinctive feature of the notion strategy. This illustrates that learners are aware of what they are doing in their reading and this consciousness and awareness is important element in strategy instruction.

Talking about reading comprehension strategies, it may be remarked that a good deal of definitions is also given to them due to the interest raised in this scope. Reading strategies are vital for what they reveal about the way readers manage their interaction with a written text and how these strategies could help in comprehension (Singhal, op.cit.) Lysynchuk et al. defined comprehension strategies as “steps or actions that readers can take to enhance comprehension” (p.460, cited in Kamil 2008,p.840). The National Institute for Literacy provided a similar description and put that comprehension strategies are “conscious plans or sets of steps that good readers use to make sense of text “ (cited in ibid.). For Graesser (2007,p.6), a reading comprehension strategy is “…a cognitive or behavioural action that is enacted under particular contextual conditions, with the goal of improving some aspects of comprehension.”
From the above definitions, it can be pointed out that gaining and using reading comprehension strategies is a tool at a reader’s hands to improve comprehension and get benefit from a text. Consequently, this may be considered a source of evidence that good readers are those who know, when, how, and why to use conscious actions to repair their misunderstanding. In discussing efficient reading, Nuttall (1998, p. 44), mentioned that to be efficient means to use the least effort to get satisfactory results. She wrote “…we want students to use their time and energy to best effect”. This implies that what really matters is the deliberate actions taken and done by a reader to ameliorate their learning. They need to redirect their time and efforts properly to fruitful outcomes.

The current researches in second language reading which have emphasized readers’ strategies, agree upon the fact that the starting point for the development of strategy-based approaches is to consider what good readers do, whether experienced or not in reading, mainly when confronted with textual difficulties (Wallace, 1992).

As it has been noted before, it may seem peculiar that strategies are conscious and selective actions taken by the reader to allay some of his/her problems. For Wallace (ibid.), triumphant readers can for example trespass unwanted words, predict form the context, and carry on reading if they feel unsuccessful in decoding a word or a phrase.

To conclude, reading comprehension strategies indicate how readers conceive a task, how they make sense of what they read, and what they decide when they do not apprehend the meaning (Singhal, op. cit.). In brief, reading strategies are procedures used by the learner to develop their reading comprehension and to resolve some of their hardships. Actually, this subject of comprehension strategies could not be discussed without clarifying comparatively the common confusion made between the two words: strategies and skills.

2. Distinction between strategies and skills

According to many authors like Grabe (1988) and Nuttall (1998), the two items are interchangeably used. But for Weir and Urquhart (1998: 96), a kind of general distinction needs to be underlined in order to clear up that obscurity. They stated the following tips:

- Strategies are reader-oriented, skills are text-oriented. In this respect, they made a flash back to a list cited by Ciper and Davies (1988) in which out of nineteen reading skills, twelve were classified as text-based; for example, understanding conceptual meaning, while seven were put as reader-oriented as interpreting a text by going outside it.
• Strategies are conscious decisions taken by the reader, skills are unconsciously employed. Put it differently, skills are automatic, contrary to strategies which are conscious.

• A core feature of strategy is known as problem-solving, i.e., a strategy is used as a reaction or a solution to a sudden problem occurred in reading. A strategy is thus the way a reader uses to get rid of his /her failure.

In sum, the difference drawn by Williams and Moran (1989:223, cited in Weir & Urquhart,ibid.) may recapitulate the previous possible notes. They wrote: “A skill is an ability which has been automatised and operates largely subconsciously, whereas a strategy is a conscious procedure carried out in order to solve a problem”.

3. Types of reading strategies

To discuss types of reading comprehension strategies is to refer directly to the broad classification afforded to language learning strategies themselves. As it has been said, strategies arena is vast .Many researches demonstrated how learning strategies can help students ripening and fostering their language proficiency. For reading comprehension, teachers as well as learners could benefit from the numerous learning strategies so that to improve this critical skill. Thereby, the categorization of reading strategies is very akin, to the one of learning strategies. Oxford (1990) divided learning strategies into two broad classes .She presented them as direct strategies ,which themselves include memory strategy, cognitive ,and compensation strategies .Indirect strategies consist of metacognitive ,affective ,and social strategies. In a thorough description, she went on by indicating how these six strategies are further subdivided into nineteen strategy sets.

In their turn, O’Malley and Chamot (1990, cited in Dhieb-Henia, 2006) suggested a simple classification. They mentioned that learning strategies are of three major sorts : cognitive , metacognitive, and social/affective .

• Cognitive strategies

One of the most important strategic processes is cognition. In its broad sense, it refers to "the acquisition , storage, transformation and use of knowledge"( Martin ,2003, p. 12). The author mentioned also that this term can be sometimes used synonymous to cognitive psychology.
In reading, comprehension of a written material does not come from scratch, or simply happens mechanically. To elicit meaning and read purposefully, good readers are said to use certain cognitive strategies.

Cohen (op.cit.,p.7) defined them as:

*Cognitive strategies encompass the language learning strategies of identification, grouping, retention, and storage of language material, as well as the language use strategies of retrieval, rehearsal, and comprehension, or production of words, phrases, and other elements of the second language.*

Thus, cognitive strategies are those active operations, in one’s mind; applied to construct meaning from a text. This type consists of manipulating and transferring the language to be learnt. Strategies such as summarizing, paraphrasing, analyzing, predicting, and using context clues (Singhal, op.cit.) are cognitive. Coyne, kame énui, and Carnine (2007 ,p.84 ), listed “finding the main idea, generating and answering questions, and developing concept maps”. Simply put, cognitive strategies are those related to the mental processes of understanding.

**- Metacognitive strategies**

Though cognitive strategies are essential for comprehension, they are not enough. Reading necessitates another set of strategies to assure better understanding. Readers need to know how, when, where, and why to utilize those cognitive strategies. So, being aware and conscious about taking decisions about what is appropriate and what is not can be regarded a sign of successful readers. Metacognitive strategies are labeled “*problem identification strategies*” (O’Malley & Chamot 1990,p.144).

Metacognition is variously defined as “cognition of cognition” (Carrell, Pharis & Liberto,1989,p.647), “the conscious awareness of cognitive process (Bernhardt ,1991, p.52) , and “knowledge about learning” ( Wenden ,1998,p.516, cited in Dhieb-Henia, op.cit,p.3). These definitions share one point that metacognition is knowledge about the cognitive process. Martin (op.cit.p.175) expressed that metacognition is a learner’s “knowledge, awareness” and “control” of their learning. Coyne et al.(op.cit.p.86) mentioned that metacognition is “the ability to manage and control cognitive strategies in a reflexive manner or to ‘think about one’s thinking’.”.
They went further expressing that metacognition differentiates good and poor “comprehenders”. This strategic procedure influences comprehension before, during, and after reading.

Metacognitive strategies comprise arranging, planning, and evaluating aspects of students's learning. Cohen (op.cit.) stated that they deal with “pre-assessment and pre-planning, on line-planning and evaluation, and post-evaluation of language learning activities”. Metacognitive processes also include organization, setting goals, and seeking practice opportunities (Singhal,op.cit.).

To summarise, the three types are important as they would be regarded facilitators of reading comprehension of ESP readers, therefore, such strategies should be incorporated within English credits. Teachers need to be attentive enough to these strategies. They have to attempt overtly to teach the readers how to apply like these tricks in actual process of reading (Moghadam,n.d.).

- Social / affective strategies

They are of two-folds. First, social strategies include the actions that learners select in order to interact with others (Cohen,1998). For example, asking questions, cooperating and interacting with others to assist learning. Second, affective strategies serve to regulate emotions, motivations, and attitudes. For example, strategies used to lower one's anxiety and to encourage themselves.

4. Second language reading strategies research

Though much of research in the area of reading strategies has stemmed from first language studies, in reading skill, we will attempt to provide only a review on those which have investigated strategies used by L2 learners.

A great deal of research examined the comprehension strategies used by L2 readers to process a text. Starting from early studies made by Hosenfeld (1977) until the recent ones done by Branteimer (2000), it can be said that most of them engaged in similar activities. Their research process generally consisted of the same elements: A problem statement, a literature review, a sample of participants, measurement' instruments and procedures of data collection, and analysis.(Brantmeir,2001:1).

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5 Examples of strategies are mostly quoted from Oxford (1990,p.17) and Dhied-Henia (2006,p.2).
Added to this, students under investigations were diverse in ages, backgrounds, levels and abilities. Because the experiments were applied in reading comprehension, they differed in both text type and test type (ibid:2).

Since the reading strategies instruction study is very huge territory which could not be covered or described in a few pages, we are going just to tackle some of them swiftly. According to Brantmeier (ibid.:2,3,4,5), the reading strategy researches are listed as: Hosenfeld (1977), Block (1986), Sarig (1987; L1 and L2 study), Barnett (1988), Carrell (1989), Pritchard (1990), Anderson (1991), Block (1992), Raymond (1993), Young and Oxford (1997), Liontas (1999), Schueller (1999), and Brantmeier (2000). Only some of these researches can be discussed.

In a qualitative study, Hosenfeld (1977) used “a think-aloud” procedure (Singhal, op.cit.p.2), to identify and examine successful and unsuccessful readers to find out what types of cognitive strategies they used to process a written text (Brantmeier, ibid.). The study made on 9th grade students who were learning French. The results of this experiment revealed, on the one hand, that the successful reader for example, kept the meaning of the message in his/her mind while reading, read in “broad phrases”, skipped less necessary words, used context to determine word meaning, and had a positive self-concept as a reader. On the other hand, unsuccessful or poor readers lost the general meaning of the passage, read in “short phrases”, rarely skipped words and had a negative self-image (Singhal, op.cit.) and (Brantmeier, op.cit.)⁶.

A decade after, Block (1986) compared the reading comprehension strategies used by the native English speakers, and ESL students who were enrolled in a remedial course at the University level. She worked on non-proficient readers from whom she was able to get information. She came up with two classifications of strategies: general strategies such as anticipating the content, recognizing the text structure, distinguishing main ideas, reacting to the text, and local strategies as paraphrasing, and rereading and solving a vocabulary problem (cited in Brantmeier, op.cit.). Block (1986) found out that language background (of native speakers of Chinese, Spanish and English) did not account for the use of particular strategies.

Carrell (1989) checked the metacognitive awareness of L2 readers’ strategies in both their L1 and L2, and the relation between this awareness and comprehension. Her participants were native Spanish speakers of intermediate and high-intermediate levels.

⁶Examples of L2 reading strategy research are mostly taken from Brantmeier (2002.p.5-11)
studying English as second language in university, and native English speakers learning Spanish as a foreign language in first, second, and third year courses. She concluded that the more proficient and advanced ESL readers perceived “global” or “top-down” strategies as more effective, whereas for the Spanish; as in L2 group, she explained that the less-proficient students used more “local” or “bottom-up” strategies.

Brantmeier (2000) investigated the relationship between reader's gender, passage-content, comprehension, and strategy use. He discovered that gender differences did not affect the strategy use when reading in a second language. This conveys that men and women are alike in using strategies. Brantmeier’s results showed that the effect of gender-based content was seen on the global strategy use, compared to the local one. On the first hand, for instance, in a male-oriented text, males reported using more global strategies than females; however, the distinction is not so sharp. On the second, the two genders reported using the same number of global and local strategies to understand a female-oriented passage. Consequently, this means that the strategies used by the two different genders; men and women to process the two different contents changed only moderately by passage (ibid.).

On the whole, though the numerous second language reading strategies researches may seem somehow contrasting in the methods which they used and the results which they obtained, they undoubtedly would have an effect in enlarging the profile of how strategies could be utilized to develop comprehension, even this is not an easy matter, because each research may have its own criteria for categorizing more / less successful readers.

5. Reading strategies and comprehension

This sub-part describes the relation exists between comprehension and reading strategies. As noted before, comprehension is the golden rule in reading process. The term comprehension is frequently associated with cognitive psychology. It is also mentioned in pedagogical literature (Cohen, 1998). Generally, it is defined as the ability to get information from a text. Despite this broad sense, comprehension was and still be a slippery entity as many accounts were given in this area.

For Sheng (2000, p.13), comprehension is “a process of negotiating understanding between the reader and the writer. It is a more complex psychological process and includes linguistic factors, such as phonological, morphological, syntactic, and semantic elements, in addition to cognitive and emotional factors”.
Urquhart (1987) suggested two assumptions behind the pedagogical view of comprehension. One of them was the fact that “there is such a thing as ‘total’ or ‘perfect’ comprehension of a text” (Weir & Urquhart, 1998 p.86). At this stage, the role of reading strategies is important. In reading, not every student is supposed to reach this total or perfect comprehension. Many learners are, if we can say, slow and poor readers who confront a lot of problems; hence, they need help to repair their reading. One source of evidence is that good readers are those who know when and how to use deliberate strategies to ameliorate their comprehension. The latter dictates on the reader to acquire the ability to go beyond the written words to understand the ideas presented in the text. Good readers have a purpose for their reading. They could make connections between the background knowledge and the new information. Effective readers monitor their reading when the text is not well apprehended, and patch up faulty comprehension if it occurs. Good readers make inferences during and after reading; moreover, they are capable to use predictions and to draw conclusions (Trankersley, 2003).

In sum, since the early seventies, researches in the area of reading have focused on teaching second language students to apply a plethora of language strategies in order to read better, so being mindful and alert in using these strategies would help students to be more effective readers due to cognitive, meta-cognitive and social-affective operations. As a consequence, reading strategies are keys at the disposal of students to enhance their reading comprehension skill as well as to solve some of their failures. It is teachers’ job to abet and avail their students to reach this stage.

6. Teaching reading comprehension strategies

Teaching reading comprehension strategies stems first from teaching reading skill. That is to say, we cannot talk about teaching reading strategies without reference to the scope of teaching reading itself. It may happen that most of us are not aware about the value attached to reading, and some tend to forget or ignore the significance of teaching it. We try to establish that reading is not an unconscious process, rather a conscious one since good active readers use knowledge from divergent sources to extract meanings embedded in written materials. Years ago, there was a controversy over whether to test or to teach reading. At the beginning, many researchers asserted that a great deal of testing went on but little teaching.
In traditional approaches, it was found that a reading lesson was based on the teacher who dominated his class with “no prior discussion or any other kind of preparation, presenting the students with a text which they then read” (Weir & Urquhart, 1998,p.171).

At first, the teacher read the text, students followed with him, he asked then questions and they answered. This way was in fact “an informal assessment” of students' reading performance, i.e. testing (Weir & Urquhart, ibid). However, this view was altered because many aspects of teaching as opposed to testing of reading were introduced. Teaching after that could include more “structural feedback”. Teachers and learners need to justify their responses and choices. They require knowing the way by which they deal with tasks, and using alternative strategies, which might prove helpful (ibid.).

Bernhardt (1991a,cited in Urquhart & Weir,ibid.,p.177), in a wide survey of L2 reading research, argued that “research has not yet firmly established how to teach comprehension...”. This again imparts that researches in L2 reading is a relatively new field. Grellet (1981); Nuttall (1996); Wallace (1988); Williams (1984) ,cited in (Weir & Urquhart, ibid:179) replenished various suggestions for teaching reading. When discussing teaching reading, Greenwood (1981:83) made it crystal clear that when come to teach reading, teachers should bear in mind some important questions like:

1- Does the reading comprehension lesson differ from the end-of-year comprehension test?
2- How can teachers help their learners not merely to cope with one particular text in front of them, but with their reading ability? Can they encourage their students to use reading strategies which will enable them to tackle further texts?
3- Do teachers help their students to read on their own? i.e. teachers should aid their students to be more independent readers. They must avoid spoon-feeding them.

Concerning teaching reading comprehension strategies to L2 learners, as noted before, extensive researches and studies have been made to investigate teaching reading strategies in L1, then some helpful insights and methods have been derived and applied on L2 readers.

For teaching reading strategies in L1, Brown and Palincsar’ method (1989) was considered successful. It consists of the teaching of four reading strategies namely “summarizing, predicting, clarifying, and asking questions” (Moghadam,n.d.,p.3) . Different forms of this method were applied in L2 readers (Carrell ,1990 ;Hewitt,1995, cited in Greenwood, ibid.), but according to Moghadam (ibid.) ,it would appear that the best approach to an explicit
teaching of reading strategies was the one proposed by Janzen (2000) where she perfectly introduced a procedure that purports five stages:

a) General strategy discussion
b) Teacher modeling
c) Students' reading
d) Analysis of strategies used by teachers and/or students when thinking aloud, and
e) Explanation/discussion of individual strategies on a regular basis.

Since teaching strategies is as such, i.e., has a tremendous impact on both learning/teaching settings, in the following section, we will attempt to spotlight on some reading strategies (activities), or classroom tasks which the students need to get trained on, before that we will first have a look on teaching objectives.

**6.1. Teaching objectives**

As known, objectives are the critical ingredients and the road maps for the processes of learning and teaching. Clearly defined purposes point the way forward. In reading comprehension courses, a set of expressive objectives has to be attained by the end of the lecture. The learner is supposed, for example, to be able to:

- Read a range of text so that to identify major ideas, sub-points and supporting details
- Adopt reading styles according to a sum of purposes, and apply numerous active comprehension strategies (as scanning, inferring, and summarizing) properly.
- Establish knowledge of language. For instance, vocabulary items and grammatical structures. This may facilitate the improvement of the reading ability.
- Develop an awareness of the structure of the written texts and a capacity to use, for example, discourse features and cohesive devices which could help in apprehending texts.
- Build a schematic knowledge that would enable the reader to work with the language of the given text to interpret its meaning.
- Take a critical stance towards the content of texts. Good readers are critical thinkers who would be capable to agree, or disagree with the writer's views. They can know when, how, and why things happen.
The presented objectives may seem general to any reading credit. Regarding ESP students, it is said that they read because:

- They seek for specific information. That is, they need information for some purposes and motives.
- They are curious about certain themes. This inquisitiveness stems from their wants and urges.
- They need instructions to perform tasks for their work or their daily life. For example, they read to be able to fill in some forms, to know about how a company works, how to conduct meetings, or how to take roles in conversations.

### 6.2. Types of reading activity

To read effectively and to facilitate their interaction with the text, second language readers need to have access to contents as well as context (Wallace, 1992). At this stage, a kind of thematic knowledge to reach that interaction and then certain interpretation of the text should be acquired by the reader. That is to say, learners need helping tools to relate their pre-existing thematic knowledge or experiences to the text they are reading. Briefly, they may link their past, present, or even future knowledge. The ability of doing so, would be achieved through practicing pre-reading (those which precede the presentation of the text), while-reading (those which accompany the reading of the text), and post-reading (those that follow the reading of the text) activities.

This classification of before-reading, during-reading and after-reading is another way of grouping learning strategies. According to Paris et al. (1991) cited in Koda (2005, p.207), this categorization is based “on time of use”. They made it crystal clear that pre-reading strategies primarily aim at activating the prior knowledge relevant to the text to be read, during-reading strategies assist mainly ideas’ detection through “inferences and cross referring”, and post-reading strategies consist of activities for “reviewing and pondering text content” (ibid.).

More importantly, it is pertinent to note that in each of the above phases, researches do not agree upon the same labels given to each type of activity, since some writers use some names interchangeably, however, others make distinctions. For instance, terms such as semantic mapping and brainstorming may seem alike, but some authors such as Wallace

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7Some of the specific objectives are taken from Civilkiené et al. (n.d.,p.3)
(1992) use them quite differently since they view that brain-storming comes first. It drives later to semantic mapping. The same thing could be said for strategies like previewing, anticipation, and prediction. Greenwood (1981) and Chia (2001) put previewing and prediction akin to each other, while Urquhart and Weir (1998) provided opposite view. They dealt with the two notions separately.

Though recent researches have yielded that training on cognitive strategies leads to short-term improvements in reading performance, and that training on meta-cognitive strategies results in more stable and long-term comprehension gains (Carrell, 1998; Tang & Moore, 1992; Zhicheing, 1992) cited in (Koda, op.cit.:209), we will try to have a look on some activities which could empower cognitive, meta-cognitive, and socio-affective abilities, because, up to this point, we think that they are all together paramount in the reading process.

6.2.1. Pre-reading activities

Broadly speaking, pre-reading activities aim at activating a student's existing schemata and building a new one. They help teachers to have information about what their students already know.

Chen and Graves (1995) defined them as “devices for bridging the gap between the text's content and the reader's schemata” (cited in Villanueva de Debat, 2006, p.11). Pre-reading activities are also names “enabling activities” (Tudor, 1989, cited in Alemi & Ebadi, 2010, p.570), for they supply a reader with “the necessary background to organize activity and to comprehend the material”. The aforementioned author added saying that this could be attained through many experiences among which “understanding the purpose (s) for reading and building a knowledge base necessary for dealing with the content and the structure of the material” (ibid.).

Before starting a reading course, the teacher should set the stage (Tankersley, op.cit., p.95); therefore, preparing students to read is the most intriguing part in the reading process. The prime aim in carrying out any task before they start reading a text is to formulate a kind of positive attitude in their minds as regard the text they are going to read. Put it in different words, the teacher plays a key role in elating their learners to read willingly. So as to achieve this enthusiasm, the teacher should attempt to provide and select interesting texts, though this is not an easy matter, mainly because what seems interesting
for one individual may mean the reverse for another despite having the same age, the same sex, or even the same social backgrounds. It is assumed that the teacher is the best judge to decide the type of topics which appear to be the most appealing to their students. To maintain motivation, teachers need to dedicate themselves from the ground up to help their learners to be more independent efficient readers. This could be attained through training them on various kind of texts. Learners could be moved by being challenged in some way, and by having a purpose to their reading.

In brief, the numerous pre-reading activities could assist students brainstorm, and predict how the new presented information correspond with their old knowledge, thus the teacher has to choose tasks which are relevant, i.e. go along with the text being read. Plenty of activities at this stage could be given to readers. The following are some examples:

**6.2.1.1. Setting purpose**

Establishing a clear purpose is so important for any reading activity. That is, it is necessary for the three phases as it is crucial to the choice of the reading strategy to be adopted; however, it is undeniably true that setting a purpose before reading is a vital prescription to help students to be motivated avid readers. Verily, learners need to be geared up for the reading passage. They would be in a major league if they could underline a reason for their reading, beforehand.

To well benefit from a text, a teacher should prepare their students for reading by establishing a purpose in their mind, i.e. what is highly appreciated at this phase is that learners need to read intentionally. Reading with a purpose not only orients students towards a clear goal, but helps them focus their attention. Thus, a golden rule for any reading activity is that learners should know the drive behind their reading before they actually engaged in the process.

Reading purposes might be general or specific. Students can be asked to answer some questions or to identify the type of a text, for example. The teacher may tell their learners that they are going to read so as to be able to fill in a table, or in a form, to find out the reasons of the latest economic crises, or to learn about the different uses of the credit cards, for instance.

So it is acknowledged that the strategy of reading (skimming, scanning …) to be taken up by the reader is determined by the set purposes for reading.
Researches on teaching ESP denoted that the various strategies employed by the scientists' reading in their fields are tightly connected to the scientists' own agenda, i.e. their purpose for reading (Bazerman, 1985, cited in Dhieb-Henia, op.cit.). As noted before, different objectives dictate different ways and techniques to reading. For instance, reading quickly to get an overall impression of a document, skipping familiar or useless information, and reading carefully when something important is found. (ibid.).

6.2.1.2. Activating prior knowledge

Refreshing students' mind and activating their background knowledge or building a new one can occur in the three stages, but the before-reading phase deserves special attention (Villanueva de Debat, 2006).

To mobilize and elicit the existing knowledge of students, the teacher is supposed to use different techniques. Many authors like Carrell and Eisterhold (1983), Greenal and Swan (1986), and Cele-Muricia (1991), (cited in Alemi & Ebadi, op.cit :570), discussed this point. But, the variety and the wideness of this scope could not dictate upon or force teachers to experiment specific techniques or activities, because they feel free to select them according to the nature of texts as well as to students' need and desire.

According to Alemi and Ebadi (ibid.), the academic fields require more formal techniques. Naturally, many scholars suggested various types of pre-reading stage. Cele-Muricia (1991:225, cited in ibid.) for instance, listed word association and discussion as important tasks in this part of reading process. This seems similar to the classification given by Abbot (1981) who noted that brainstorming, class discussion, and semantic mapping are crucial to activate students’ prior knowledge. The following are some of the pre-reading activities that teachers can bring to their classes.

6.2.1.2.1. Semantic mapping (Brainstorming)

The semantic map (semantic mapping) is considered the first activity which activates students’ existing thematic knowledge of a given topic. (Freedman & Reynolds 1980; Heimlich & Pittelman 1986, cited in Chia 2000).

The teacher can initiate the pre-reading phase by utilizing this activity to illustrate the major points and ideas exposed in a text. This could be done through using some sorts of visual presentations. The term map above stands for an organized grouping of vocabulary
concepts. It denotes what students already have about the subject. It supplies them with a support or a base upon which they could build the new information learnt from their text. Firstly, the teacher starts by telling students the theme they are going to read about, then he/she asks them to think about any associated or related word with it. Say it in another way, learners are questioned to call out or to jot down all what comes to their mind when they hear the topic in hand, i.e. they are invited to give words or concepts which they personally link to that presented key term. After that, the teacher demands grouping the connotations into categories, and naming them. If students encounter blocks or difficulties in doing so, i.e., in categorizing free associations, the teacher may help them through “conducting the discussion with the whole class” (Chia, ibid.). By means of this mapping activity, the teacher can guide his/her class to various kinds of classifications which will help them to deal with the main concepts found in the text (Wallace 1992).

The teacher organizes the ideas given by his/her learners on the board under headings. The diagram (the map) reveals the information elicited from them, the background knowledge on the topic discussed, and represents as well the new gotten information. That is to say that the resulting map is the combination of students’ pre-existing knowledge and the one acquired from the text (Wallace, ibid.). The author put that the illustrated classroom procedure is known as “brainstorming”, a very popular kind of pre-reading task. She noted that this type has many advantages. It frees students to air out their views, and brings their own “content-relevant knowledge”. It opens a window into a general class discussion where all learners can contribute, and none of them feels frightened, or hesitated since any piece of information is welcomed and accepted.

All in all, semantic map or brainstorming activity aids readers to explore the focal issues raised in a text; hence, it fosters a great deal of its comprehension. Accordingly, past knowledge and comprehension go hand in hand in determining what is extracted from the text and how it is assimilated. Activating the content-relevant knowledge, and conjoining it with the existing knowledge is said to be a crucial effective step in the pre-reading stage (Koda, op. cit.).

Since we are attempting to deal with ESP students, semantic mapping can be exploited to look for central concepts in texts related to their areas of interests, in our research case, management, finance, marketing, or accounting branches, and to focus on what is of personal significance of them as individual readers. For instance, if the teacher presents a text about business in general, learners might give some words or concepts they see associated to this key term such as currencies, companies,
exchanging goods, shares, investments, advertising, to buy, and to sell. He or she may ask them as well to list various roles and characteristics of a manager, some ethical codes of a company, or smart strategies to conduct meetings effectively, if he/she is to deal with a text speaking about management sphere. Students may think also about numerous types of expenses with their functions, money laundering, or counterfeiting, if the text that will be read is about finance. While, when the text is about accounting, students can list false accounting, embezzler, cash-deposit, bank accounts, or invoices. Under each heading, students may add further subdivisions. The following is a brief sample:

- Roles / characteristics of a manager: Building a unified team, showing and commanding respect, making and practising justice, developing future vision, and attacking pending problems.
- Some ethical codes of a company: Honesty, integrity, prosperity, and fairness.

**Example:**

![Semantic Mapping /Brainstorming](image)

In conclusion, semantic mapping provides teachers with an assessment about students’ prior knowledge or schema availability on a topic. Simultaneously, learners will have a complete and a thorough summary of the topic as well as vocabulary items they will encounter in the text.
6.2.1.2.2. Class discussion

This activity is tightly linked with the previous one. This type creates an awareness of the copious purposes for reading. Its goal is to discover more what students bring to their reading. Through interacting and sharing ideas with their teacher, students could enhance their knowledge about the topic. Discussion may be introduced by posing questions about the content of the text, or through using “anticipating guide” (Celce-Murcia, 1991:125) cited in (Alemi & Ebadi, op.cit., p.571). Nutall (1982) in her turn mentioned that this kind of pre-activities fosters the active struggle that distinguishes the good reader from the poor one.

Back to the former technique and examples illustrated in semantic mapping, it may happen that students find difficulties to classify the given associated words. At this point, the teacher can intervene by listing their responses on the board showing and discussing with them how to categorize and then label those associations. Helping learners to do so, simply means that the teacher provides them with various possibilities, hence indicating how concepts are gathered and organized around a topic. After some explanations, the class discussion can be carried out in teams (Chia, op.cit.). The teacher may ask a representative from each group to draw his/her map of categorizing and naming, on the blackboard, since each group can arrive at different versions and results. From this procedure of “the demonstration, modeling, and discussion”, students will be able to arrange and call the proposed connotations adequately. For Chia (ibid.), this way can be employed in the post-reading discussion where students can revise the map.

6.2.1.2.3. Anticipation (Previewing / Prediction)

As stated before, notions such as anticipation, previewing, and prediction are synonymous and it is no longer an easy matter to sharpen the distinction. Writers as Greenwood (1981) and Chia (2001) viewed that those items are interchangeably used, but others like Urquhart and Weir (1998) may prefer to classify previewing and prediction under two independent sub-titles.

For Greenwood (1981), anticipation is a motivating activity that can be adopted in the pre-reading phase, and which is preceded through two ways: anticipating the content, and anticipating both the form, and the content of the reading passage.

Concerning the first technique, the writer expressed that the convenient clues are the headings of the sections a text can contain. That is, students are invited to read only those
headings, then tell or write up what they expect the text to be about. Once students finish their predictions, the teacher can drive them to a first reading where they scan the text to check whether the given predicted words do really appear in the text, and after that to a second reading in which they list items they did not guess.

As far as the second technique, the teacher may distribute pictures, drawings, or cuts, from newspapers or magazines for instance, so that to assist learners to anticipate the theme and some vocabulary items found in it. Through asking gradual questions with those pictures in front of them, the teacher aims at recalling their past knowledge and activating a new one which his or her readers may come across (Greenwood, ibid.).

Not very far from Greenwood (1981), Chia (2001, p.25) went on the same path. She denoted that previewing is “to help readers predict or make some educated guesses about what is in the text and thus activate effective-top down processing for reading comprehension”. She added some guidelines needed for more specific predictions. Those tips were described as follows:

- Ask students to read the title of the article. Do they know anything about this subject?
- Have students to read the first few paragraphs, which generally introduce the topic discussed in the text. Can they determine the general themes of the text?
- Then ask them to read the first sentence of each paragraph, usually the topic sentence, which gives the main idea of the paragraph. Can they determine the major points of the article?
- Read the last paragraph, which often reveals the conclusion of the author. Have students discuss how the author organizes the information to express their point of view.

Urquhart and Weir (1998) said that previewing, for example, may involve thinking about the title, checking the edition and date of publication, reading the table of contents, appendices, the abstract, and the blurb carefully.

It is worth to note that this kind of activities is of tremendous help when dealing with texts that include a high proportion of new words. More importantly, this sort of anticipation tasks does really activate prior knowledge of learners and assist the teacher to provoke his/her learners to read. Additionally anticipation guide can be used as a tool for students to share their own views with other members of their group. They are afforded the opportunity to defend or to explain their personal opinions while listening to similar or different views of their peers. That is to say, anticipation activities help them to engage in discussions about ideas and concepts they would encounter in a text.
Say it briefly; anticipating activities or what is also termed *previewing* activities might include a look on titles, headings, pictures, or reading parts of a text. Such activities would help students invigorate their content and form schema. They would drive them to get familiar with the subject before they start reading in earnest.

**6.2.1.2.4. Prediction**

Urquhart and Weir (1998) noted that *previewing* is a first step towards prediction. That is to say, it is making a decision whether to read a book, an article, or a text, that comes first. After the decision is taken to read a text, *prediction strategy* is employed to anticipate its content. This kind is actually suggested by schematic theorists as Goodman (1988) and Smith (1994). According to the latter, prediction is:

> ...the core of reading. All of our schemes, scripts and scenarios – our prior knowledge of places and situations, of written discourse, genres, and stories enable us to predict when we read....Prediction brings potential meaning to texts, reducing ambiguity and eliminating in advance irrelevant alternatives. Thus, we are able to generate comprehensible experience from inert pages of print. (Cited in Villanueva de Debat, 2006, p.12)

For Weir and Urquhart (op. cit., p. 185), prediction is a kind of “*psychological sensitising*”, thinking about the theme of the passage, and asking oneself related questions. They added saying, as mentioned above, that in predicting the reader makes use of top-down processing to activate different types of schemata through many pre-reading activities. William and Moran (1993, p.66) suggested:

> Perhaps, the most effective of these activities are those which elicit factual information or personal response and ask the students to pool such information in pair or group of work. Preferably, this is followed by a task which relates the discussion to the first reading of the passage. (cited in Urquhart & Weir, ibid.).

**6.2.1.2.5. Questioning (Reconciled reading)**

It is another alternative type of top-down processing activity that can be practised at the pre-reading period. Questions might be produced either by the teacher or the student. Reutzel (1985) cited in Chia (2001:24) and Villanueva de Debat (2006:12) suggested the so called “*the Reconciled Reading Lesson*” to help teachers construct effective pre-reading questions. This kind of tasks is different from the natural text book sequence in which a text is followed by questions. Providing that the teacher opts for this sort of activities
he/she is to prepare pre-questions from the questions that appear at the end of the reading lesson. (Villanueva de Debat, ibid.). Smith (1994) is one of those who censured the comprehension tasks which are given at the final stage of a reading course since he regarded them as “memory tests” (ibid.). He stated that using prior knowledge efficiently contributes in having fluent readers. This type of exercise aims to set up the appropriate psychological conditions for the reading experience. Questions are presented before reading (pre-reading questions), rather than after it. The following are some examples:

- Where did the material come from? Is it an excerpt (extract) from a book, a magazine; an online article, or a journal?

Asking such questions is crucial, for when learners know the type of the text being read, the reading task will be easy. They can have an idea about the arrangement of the piece of writing and its purpose (to inform, to entertain...)

- Who wrote the article? Do you know anything about the author or his/her writings?

Asking these questions will lead to the engagement of readers as active participants in the process of pre-reading phase rather than being passive recipients.

- What is the title of the piece? Do you have any idea about the concepts or the major points that will be discussed in the text, just through skimming its title? What facts do you know about the issue you are going to read about?

This is a good way that enables the teacher to see to what extent, his/her students know about the topic, i.e. test their prior knowledge.

- Who are the intended readers? How does the writer address his/her readers?

If students have an idea about the audience of the text, they will know better the function intended behind the text (amusing, informing...).

Though not all the post-reading questions might be simply changed into pre-reading ones, this strategy of reconciled reading (questioning) is said to be inestimable to activate schemata.

6.2.1.3. Vocabulary development

In teaching ESP, vocabulary plays a critical role for it builds the essence of the language for special interest learners. This activity is considered by Greenwood (op.cit.) as a category within the introductory phase of a reading assignment. In fact, vocabulary work is a common place of controversy. According to Grabe and Stoller (2002:76, cited in
Villanueva de Debat, op. cit., p. 13), building vocabulary is classified amongst the instructional dilemmas for second language reading since “a large vocabulary is critical not for reading but also for all L2 level skills, for academic performance, and for related background knowledge”.

Vocabulary identification skills could be improved by means of rapid word-recognition exercises. For example, reading words aloud that are flashed for a few seconds.

In an account about adding variety to word recognition exercises, Crawford (2005) noted that this type is highly recommended in the bottom process of reading. The author went on stating the point raised by Grabe and Stoller (2002:20) in which they said that fluent reading comprehension requires “rapid and automatic word recognition” (ibid., p. 36).

Techniques as illustrations, synonyms, antonyms, definitions, and word-formation are also helpful to avoid much doubt and frustration which students feel when meeting new words in a written material. However, it is important to point out here that such types of activities should be done on short preliminary sessions, not long ones based on the detailed dictionary meaning of words, as lots of people may believe.

Courtright and Wesolek (2001) described other techniques and activities for vocabulary learning and enrichment. According to Boyd Zimmerman (1997, cited in ibid.), exercises such as filling in blanks, or matching words with synonyms or definitions seem traditional and non-effective. In her study, she indicated and called for “incorporating interactive and communicative vocabulary activities” which can lead to better word learning. She proposed various types of exercises devised for different levels. Regarding; for example high-intermediate and advanced levels, she listed: “Web-contexts (exposure), Pre-paraphrasing (expansion), finish the sentence (expression / expansion), stories and role-plays (expression / expansion), real-life questions (expansion), and extended writing (expression)” (Cited in ibid., p. 7-8).

These kinds of alternative vocabulary activities into reading classes need extra time for the teacher; however at the end, students will not only understand how to go about learning new items, but they have more confidence in their ability to really do so.

In sum, though it is of the utmost importance, vocabulary development may hamper learners form full understanding, because they could face many difficult or unfamiliar words in a given text, accordingly the teacher has to try to avoid texts with too complicated items so that to create a kind of enthusiasm towards their reading, and not the reverse.
To end up the pre-reading phase activities, it could be said that they are tasks intended to motivate students to read, to provide any language preparation, which might be imperative for coping with the written passage, and above all to invigorate learners’ content and form schemata. These types of practice help them to be familiar with the subject before they begin their reading, hence pave them the way and lessen some of the difficulties they may encounter during their text exploration.

6.2.2. While-reading activities

Wallace (1992) stated that these while-reading or what is also called during-reading activities are to spur learners to be flexible, active, and reflective readers. Concerning flexibility, these activities aim to invite students to read in ways which are perceived to be appropriate to the type of text being presented. Hence, a flexible reader is the one who is able to deal with various texts using different techniques, i.e. adjusting the strategy to the sorts of texts. To encourage active and reflective reading, while-reading tasks seek to promote a kind of *a dialogue* between the reader and the writer (ibid.). Villanueva de Debat (op.cit., p.11) joined this viewpoint when said that in this stage the teacher’s role is “to guide and monitor the interaction between the reader and the text”. To exemplify the copious techniques required here, she demonstrated that “note-taking skill” is necessary since it permits students to arrange novel vocabulary and main details. It also helps them to epitomize information and record their reactions.

To conclude, once the teacher warms up their learners to read the text and makes sure that they have an overview about its topic, they directly pass to the while-reading phase exercises. It is worth noting that such tasks could include the following:

6.2.2.1. Identifying the topic (the main idea)

Good readers are capable to pick up the theme of a text swiftly. Using their schemata, they can lastly get an idea of the given subject. To comprehend the main idea(s) implemented in a text, the teacher can ask them to:

a. Read the passage in order to give a title, or
b. Read the passage to be able to select the most suitable title from a list of purposed ones.

In such type of practice, it is advisable to encourage learners to *skim* mainly through the text; i.e. without having a detailed slow reading.
c. As an alternative of the above questions (a-b), the teacher can ask them to identify then underline the topic sentences in the text. Indeed, topic sentences are very helpful for readers' comprehension, since they always reveal the main discussed ideas. Teachers need to bring texts which comprise topic sentences for each paragraph, though it is not always facile. Having such examples of texts, learners would develop the habit of being sage and careful enough to this handy and advantageous hints to the gist of the text.

6.2.2.2. Finding details in a text

The kind of reading preferable here is scanning. To find details in a given text, “the information-gap technique” (Greenwood, op. cit., p. 97) is described to be more fruitful in this stage. That is to say, learners read and scan warily the text so as to fill in the blank with the missing pieces of information. For the sake of checking their students’ grasping of the focal ideas implemented in the text, the teacher can give them a sentence or sentences completion exercise, as it may be a table fulfilment.

The information-gap technique is a good way, for it helps teachers checking their students’ understanding. It assists them also observing to what extent their learners are capable of formulating the information in their own words. The teacher has to be wise enough to give passages that are not so easy to fill in. They should provide challenging tasks. They should not spoon-feed their students by merely picking up words from the text, then put them in the missing parts. Rather, learners need to use their brain-intelligence and thinking skills to do the exercise.

6.2.2.3. Following a sequence

It goes without saying that readers who are conscious of the fact that what they are reading involves some forms of sequencing (i.e., ordering steps or items) are able to understand better the content of the text, regardless the fact of facing some unfamiliar words.

What should be borne in mind is that this type of activities depends on the level of readers. For instance, with advanced level learners, and more precisely ESP students, the selected text may describe, for example, a process of manufacturing cars, counterfeiting money, imitating other products, or bringing foreign investments.
In this sort of texts and then tasks, clarifying the sequence and inserting some pictures is valuable and practical. Using this serves to concretize and better demonstrate the range of stages of the process.

The strategy discussed, i.e., following a sequence, sets readers to look for key terms such as: First, second, next, then, before, after, further,…last). These words are of a great support for learners to grasp sequence or series of events. Just after that, the teacher may map the events in the order they occur. The main concern of the teacher who uses this exercise is to try to help their learners coping with similar type of texts which they may come across so that they will easily and confidently be able to read and deal with them.

6.2.2.4. Inferring from a text (Reading between lines)

Such type of activities does actually help readers to manipulate a thinking skill, because while they are reading and identifying the main ideas, they think. If readers are capable of inferring, it means that they can read between lines. They have the ability to grasp what is not explicitly stated by the author. Readers engaged in this task are eager to read beyond the literal meaning, i.e. they surpass what is written in the text to work out the hidden message implied by its writer. This strategy makes them critical efficient readers.

The ability of going beyond the superficial reading of the text to read between the lines is what is called “active reading” which contracts “passive reading”, two kinds grouped and proposed by Davies (1995) cited in Correia (2006, p. 17).

Active reading tasks require students to work in pairs or in groups with or without the teacher guidance and help so as to discuss answers to questions. As stated by Correia (ibid.), these exercises can include creating diagrams and filling in tables while learners are reading. This would aid them better understand the coherence and logic of the presented information and as a result they “will be able to locate the main ideas and distinguish them from less important information” (Grabe, 1997: 6 cited in Correia, ibid.).

6.2.2.5. Recognizing the writer’s purpose and attitude

This kind of task is more assigned to advanced learners, because sometimes it is not a straightforward matter to detect the intentions and attitudes addressed by writers. Good authors are said to be those who hide their purposes. Writers may desire to amuse, mock, teach, or criticize. It is this purpose that determines their adopted attitude, for instance,
being serious, sympathetic, angry, or gentle. The purpose and the attitude of a writer denote the partiality they have towards their topic. Hence, being able to recognise their biased conduct is a token of a mature reader (Greenwood, op.cit.). Consequently, at this stage, readers should be trained to deduce the author’s overall message so as to be good active readers.

6.2.2.6. Recognizing discourse features

Texts consist of discourse i.e., combination of interrelated sentences. In this type of activities, learners have to observe the function of individual sentences. Teachers’ role is to plan exercises which train students to identify the “textual features and the macro-structures of different genres” (Villanueva de Debat, op.cit., p.14). At this stage, it is necessary for learners to be exposed to narrative, descriptive, argumentative, and expository texts, for instance.

According to Grabe and Stoller (2001) cited in Villanueva de Debat (ibid.), among the popular activities which can be applied for this sake is “the uses of graphic representation of texts organisation”. This could include “display cohesive devices (substitution, ellipsis, reference, and conjunction) , creating headings, scrambling paragraphs , and locating discourse markers that signal specific relationships” such as compare-contrast relation with (but, however, unlike, similar to...), cause-effect (because, due to, since, as, therefore, consequently...), condition (providing that, if, so long as...), sequencing (first, second, then...), and purpose (in order to, to, so as to...).

If readers are taught, right from the beginning, the function as well as the significance of the previous mentioned discourse ties, it will be very easy for them to comprehend the context of the text being read. The teacher can design some activities to better demonstrate the use of these markers.

Having a good command of this discourse knowledge, i.e., being more aware of the rhetorical organisation of texts, would drive learners towards fluent and efficient reading.

6.2.2.7. Transforming information

If a teacher sets their students to do such type of exercises, they are to give them for example, tables, graphs, diagrams, plans, and maps to be completed. In this case, readers are asked to transfer what they have actually grasped as information from the text they have already read. It is worth mentioning that this type of tasks requires enthusiasm from
the part of students. Transfer information activities can be assigned to both high level as well as low level students. To exemplify, a teacher may give their students a map and asks them to locate the most important vivid economic centres in the world. Learners are supposed to come across a text about some of those economic areas, in their previous inputs. Teacher can also suggest a graph and invite them to analyse it. A table of statistics that could be transformed into quantitative description is another possibility.

6.2.2.8. Grammar review

Grammar review activities concentrate more on grammar points that have been already tackled. Provided that a teacher’s aim is to reinforce their already given lessons in grammar, they may select a text that includes as much previously taught grammatical points as possible. They can also exploit their reading material to present new structures as the passive voice or conditional, for example. To develop the communicative competence of their learners, teachers need, as well, to empower their grammar competence.

To sum up, the real selection of activity types for a particular credit depends first of all, on the set goals of the course, the level of motivation of students, and the nature of texts. In reading comprehension, teachers need to select good reading texts and activities. They can transform a simple text to be really exciting by setting up challenging tasks. Effective teachers are those who show their ability to integrate the reading text into fascinating class debate, using the topic for open discussions, and further exercises. Concerning their roles while their students are reading, they are to be active showing their readiness to help individuals with deficiencies. Simultaneously, they have to lend a hand to any group of learners whenever a general complexity occurs.

6.2.3. Post-reading

According to Villanueva de Debat (op.cit.,p.11), the post-reading stage serves “to evaluate student adequacy of interpretation”. While students are reading and doing the suggested activities, the teacher can observe how they are coping with their reading. He or she is supposed to circulate around the classroom, checking their answers and their ways of dealing with the reading tasks. Akin to while-reading tasks, post-reading ones vary depending on the text type that in turn needs to be tied up with the reading purpose. In this phase, learners’ motivation is very
vital. It stimulates their interest to check and discuss activities done while reading. Students’ willingness helps them exploit what they have read in a meaningful way.

In post-reading activities, also named after-reading, learners are encouraged to discuss their responses and reactions towards the writer’s opinion. Saying it otherwise, the teacher may ask them to retell what they think about the author’s ideas, i.e., to show their agreement or disagreement. Students are also cheered to relate the given text to their own experience. Good readers are said to be those who associate ideas in the text with what they already know. Coincidently, they may take notes needed for future writing tasks.

Weir and Urquhart (op.cit., p.187) shortened this type of post-reading strategies (activities) in one expression that is “evaluation and personal response”. As core categories, in discussing a cognitive model for teaching reading, Sheng (op.cit.:14) also listed evaluation and appreciation to be prime post-reading activities. Simply put, at this stage, students are invited to interpret the text and evaluate its quality.

6.2.3.1. Evaluation

This type sets students to make judgements about the content of the text in terms of “accuracy, acceptability, suitability, timelines, quality, and desirability” (ibid.). That is, good readers, according to the above view, are supposed to link what is afforded to them with what they have; moreover, they evaluate the content in respect to their existing knowledge. This is clearly explained in Weir and Urquhart's view (ibid.) when they said: “Readers can be encouraged to relate content to their existing schemata and to evaluate it in the light of their own knowledge and experiences. This promotes greater interaction with texts and may lead to more successful reading encounters”.

Sheng (ibid.) postulated different types of evaluation. They comprise the following tasks:

- **Objective evaluation**: It constitutes judgements based on external factors as supporting evidence, reason and logic.
- **Subjective evaluation**: It includes judgements focussed on internal criteria like one's beliefs or preferences.
- **Judgements of adequacy or validity**: Their goal is to see whether the author's treatment of a subject is accurate and complete or not, when compared to other sources on that subject.
- **Judgements about appropriateness**: They are to identify if some reading selections are adequate to resolve a problem or not.
• **Judgements of desirability or acceptability**: It is to ascertain the suitability of a character's action in a particular event based on the reader's own values.

**6.2.3.2. Appreciation**

For the second post-reading task, Sheng (ibid.) added *appreciation* which deals with the psychological emotional influences of the reading passage on the reader. This appreciation consists of reactions towards literary techniques, forms, styles, and structures. For example:

- **Personal impressions**: This task shows students’ reactions to the contents, incidents, and characters.
- **Recognition of rhetorical devices**: It describes students’ ability in identification of these devices and their functions.
- **Reaction to the style**: It denotes readers’ reactions and views about the writer's use of language.
- **Evaluation of imagery**: It explores readers’ faculty to identify the effectiveness of the writer's sensory image.

Being more practical, activities at this stage focus on both the content and the language of the selected text. The first simply means raising a debate about the topic, while the second aims at enhancing the linguistic competence of the reader, as vocabulary or grammar points. Alternatively, at this stage, the teacher may prefer to proceed from a receptive stage to a productive one. Saying it otherwise, reading tasks can be a preliminary or an opening procedure to some other language works (skills, activities) such as writing. An already read text can be a good model for their writing tasks that are assigned to them. The teacher may as well ask his / her students to write a summary of the text and paraphrase its main ideas in their own words. It is noteworthy that the teacher has to teach his learners that good summaries should always contain, for example, the name of the author, the title of the piece, and some descriptions of the subject matter.

**6.2.4. SQ3R strategy**

Before ending up the scope of reading comprehension strategies, it is pertinent to refer to a very prominent general strategy which is known as *SQ3R* (Survey, Question, Read,
Recite, and Review). It facilitates many things for readers to comprehend the text. SQ3R helps in making reading purposeful and effective.

- **Survey**: Readers are set to get a quick idea about the content of the written piece. In this case, learners are expected for example to follow certain hints such as reading the title (headings and subheadings), noticing words that are italicized or in bold type, looking at charts, graphs, pictures, maps, and other visual material. The reader can read the very beginning and the end of the material, i.e., they may have a swift look on the forward or the blurb, if they are to read a book.

- **Question**: As students are reading and surveying their text, they can ask a question(s) for each paragraph or each section if their reading material is longer. Asking and writing down, turning into their own words, what, why, how, when, who, and where questions, help them to pay attention, understand better the text, and recall the information more easily later on. These questions aid them read with a purpose, and so look for specific answers.

- **Read**: After posing their questions, students read rapidly and actively since they know what they are seeking, i.e., they are looking for answers to questions which they have raised earlier. Students may also review features such as tables, graphs, and illustrations which can help communicate ideas more powerfully than written text.

- **Recite**: At the end of each section, students look up from the text and in their own words recite an answer(s) to their question. That is to say, they recite what they read so far to see if they can recall the material and to relate it to previous information. They could provide examples that support them.

- **Review**: Finally, after completing the text, or the chapter, they review their notes. At this stage, they identify the major points by looking for the most important idea in each section. They recite, or write a brief summary of the assignment. Simply put, when students have finished the assignment, they review the text to form a unified whole, and to check which parts they can call and which they cannot.

In all, in a try to outline and employ most of the presented strategies, a second section in the final chapter, revolves around designing some model lessons in which the three phases of reading could be covered.
Conclusion

In this chapter, we have attempted to discuss one of the pressing areas and the hot issues held on the second language reading scope, it is reading comprehension strategies. We have tried to give a succinct theoretical overview about their definition, classification and studies, and then we have shifted to the practical aspect. Basically, reading comprehension strategies are mental or behavioural actions taken by readers to solve a problem or to achieve a purpose. They are intentional processes mostly used for the sake of repairing reading’ failure. Thus, this chapter explores the relation between reading strategies and comprehension. The latter is what reading all about. That is, the salient motive behind reading is understanding. To arrive at this meaningful reading, teachers need to include practice of important strategies in their lessons.

As mentioned before, extensive amounts of researches, views, and suggestions have portrayed the teaching of reading skill, and more specifically and importantly the teaching of comprehension strategies which considered a valuable addition to the challenging task of learning/teaching a second language.

Teachers have a variety of techniques to experiment at the three phases of the ongoing process of reading. They can better take advantage of the most beneficial strategies. The suggested activities may seem to overlap, but they need to be used for different purposes. Presenting or just listing them would no longer lead to successful outcomes. Teachers have to aid students to see how they can develop and transfer such knowledge into “rules for actions” (Johnson, 1996, cited in Dhib-Henia, 2006, p.7). Good and active readers are aware enough about their needs, i.e., they know why they read a text. They can link what they already have with the novel ideas presented in the material, they are able to figure out the meanings of difficult words from context clues, and they have the ability to interpret or evaluate their text.

In reading credits, students need to acquire the ability of changing their knowledge of reading strategies to successful procedures for undertaking a specific task. This fact is of utmost importance for ESP learners since reading efficiently is “critical skill that is directly related to ‘many students’ career paths” (ibid.). Therefore, teaching reading comprehension strategies is regarded a paramount tool to help many students ameliorate their comprehension deficiencies. Using various strategies to aid learners before, during, and after reading is one way to help them better organise their reading process.
In brief, it is said that teaching students how to improve their comprehension abilities and monitor their own sense making will help develop stronger readers for future's world (Tankersley, 2003:115). Providing a good solid ground, i.e., instruction, in reading comprehension strategies could help increasing reading comprehension achievement, the fact which would lead to a positive effective learning, on a whole.
CHAPTER FOUR: FIELD INVESTIGATION: RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Introduction ........................................................................................................... 97
1. Students’ questionnaire .................................................................................. 97
   1.1. Aim of the questionnaire .......................................................................... 98
   1.2. Administration of the questionnaire ......................................................... 98
   1.3. Description of the questionnaire ............................................................... 98
   1.4. Analysis of the results ........................................................................... 101
2. Teacher’s questionnaire .................................................................................. 139
   2.1. Aim of the questionnaire .......................................................................... 139
   2.2. Description of the questionnaire ............................................................... 139
   2.3. Analysis of the results ........................................................................... 141
Conclusion ............................................................................................................ 150
Introduction

As already mentioned in the general introduction\(^9\), the overall aim of this study is to investigate, diagnose and describe the different problems faced by fourth year management students when learning English language, with clear specific reference to reading comprehension skill. We have assumed that reading is amongst the top major language competencies those students need to acquire in order to be effective independent readers, so that efficient users of English which they will require in their studies. We also put forward the hypothesis that the prime factors which appear to impede most reading comprehension credits is the lack of confidence and interest which reflects the lack of motivation among this sample of students. In addition, the lack of using reading comprehension strategies would lead them to encounter various difficulties.

It is by means of interviews and questionnaires that we would get nearer to those hypotheses, i.e. data have been collected with the use of these two tools. In the first stage of this study, and through interviews, we have tried to confirm the problem which the present research is trying to resolve. This problem lies in the difficulty that student informants find in reading comprehension skill which itself would stem from the difficulty of our teacher informant finds in teaching it to her ESP classes. Getting clear that the problem exists in teaching / learning methods, then in the second stage and via the two questionnaires, we have attempted to determine the factors which impede teaching / learning of reading comprehension. In other words, we seek mainly to investigate the source of difficulties which drives or brings those students to be poor readers.

This chapter concerns with specifying the needs and the difficulties of 42 management students from the University of Mohamed Boudiaf -M’sila, in reading in English. It describes, analyses, and interprets both students and their teacher’s questionnaires. It lists in the end some conclusions developed as a result of the analyses.

1. Students’ questionnaire

This part is devoted to analyse students’ questionnaire. On the basis of the theoretical review given in this research (i.e., the first three chapters), we have attempted to prepare it so as to touch the three areas: students’ needs, their reading comprehension abilities and difficulties, and their reading strategies.

\(^9\) See Page 5. General Introduction: Aim of the study.
1.1. Aim of the questionnaire.

The rationale behind this questionnaire is to find out wealthy information about the students’ reading comprehension abilities, source of difficulties, and type of strategies mostly used by management students. It aims at checking the major factors which can act negatively, either directly or indirectly, on their reading.

The results obtained from this questionnaire would help to come up with some recommendations which would serve in the improvement of teaching / learning of reading comprehension.

1.2. Administration of the questionnaire

Concerning the administration of the questionnaire, it is necessary to point out that during the course of our investigation, the major problem we faced was the repeated absence of most students in English lectures. This was the first impediment in the study. At first, we thought that this questionnaire would be directly handed and explained by us, with the help of our colleague teacher to 210 students distributed in four branches, namely Management, Finance, Marketing, and Accountancy. However, for the above circumstance, we were obliged to translate it into Arabic language, and moreover to deliver it in the day of English exam, so that to catch them all. This compelled us to have some students answered it directly after finishing their exam, some took it to their homes or campus, and handed it back five days later to their administration. All the questionnaires were completed, some with our presence, and some with the help of our colleague teacher and her students. We collected all of them just right after the students brought them to their administration. It is only like this that we were able to fill them on time.

1.3. Description of the questionnaire

Student’s questionnaire is contrived to collect data about learners needs in English, reading comprehension problems, and reading strategies. It comprises two kinds of questions. On the first hand, closed ones consist of auxiliary questions which require "yes or no" answers, or multiple choice questions where students are expected to opt for one response out of many alternatives, i.e. learners could select from several numbers of choices.
On the second hand, open questions involve personal answers. They are used to elicit information from our respondents. Students’ views and ideas are highly considered since they will enable us to come up with a clear expression of their individual needs, abilities, difficulties, preferences, and propositions. These, in turn will allow us to suggest some recommendations to lessen and remedy those problems. This questionnaire is composed of 41 questions arranged in five sections.

**Section One: Learners’ Needs in Learning English (Q1-Q9).**

This introductory section seeks to shed light on students’ needs in learning English. Question 1 and 2 are an attempt to recognise students’ attitude towards English language itself, and English speaking people. Having positive or negative stances towards the language and its speakers would lead us to understand the degree of importance, or non-importance of learning English for students’ graduation. This fact will be shown in question 3. Being aware of English importance means regular attendance in its credits. Question 4 aims to confirm question 3. Question 4 is to check learners’ Presence /absence in English lectures, after knowing their opinions on the necessity of English.

In question 5, students are asked to try to evaluate their level of performance in English learning skills (Listening, Speaking, Reading, and Writing). Getting aware of their needs, levels, and status would help them to order these skills according to their importance. Hence, this question could be joined with question 9. Concerning questions 6 and 7, they are about students’ views on the time allocated to the English module. Learners are expected, too, to give their propositions in case of negative answers.

For question 8, we have intended to find out about the specific purposes and objectives which our students underline for studying English. The idea is that the more aware learners are about their needs, the more they will set properly their purposes.

**Section Tow: Reading Comprehension Skill (Q10-Q14).**

This section purports on students’ reading situation (Q10), the type of reading they usually practise (Q11), and the frequency of their reading in English compared to both French and Arabic languages, i.e. their reading habit (Q12-Q13-Q14).

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See Appendix C : Students’ questionnaire.Q9
A conscious student about the necessity of the English language, and the importance of the documentation written in this language, is the one who truly reads in English and more precisely reads the specialised literature related to their specific field of study.

**Section Three: Reading Comprehension Problems (Q15-Q20).**

The third section of students’ questionnaire deals with the copious problems our informants meet in their reading comprehension. Here, students are asked to first say the degree of difficulty with which they read in English (Q15), then indicate the area(s) of difficulty they suffer from most, i.e. from the options which we suggest or others, they are requested to determine the thing(s) they find most difficult when reading in English (Q16). Question 17 investigates whether the difference between English and Arabic styles might shape an obstacle for students’ reading comprehension, if so, what they think the reason(s) behind this is (Q18). The last two questions (19-20) are to describe the students’ reading speed, and the causes in case of a snail-pace (slow) reading (Q20).

Having encountered some difficulties and problems in their reading comprehension, students would be normally put in a situation to think about some ways and strategies to solve them. The point which would be checked in the following section.

**Section Four: Reading Strategies (Q21-Q29).**

This section has been developed to discuss reading comprehension strategies. At first, students are questioned respectively about whether they read with purpose or not (Q21). The next two questions (22-23) are to see if our students have any background knowledge, or past experience in using reading strategies. Question 24 concerns the ways which they could follow when falling in a reading problem. Question 25 is complementary to the previous one. That is, if they choose strategies and techniques to get rid of their problems, according to what criterion they would do so. Shortly, question 25 demonstrates how students could select their strategies.

Question 26 inquires mainly about the reading purpose. Followed by questions 27-28-29 where we may identify the sundry strategies which students could go after to extract information from the text (Q27), then to deal with the sentence meaning (Q28), and finally to grasp the new words (Q29).
Section Five: English Course Contents (Q30-Q41).

In this final section, students are kindly asked to express their viewpoints on the English course. At the beginning, students are invited to answer whether they are motivated or not (Q30). If their response is "yes", they will explain after the ways teachers could follow to raise it. (Q31).

Questions 32-33-34 are related to their opinions regarding English programme contents. In question 35, students are asked to express honestly their views about the English texts that their teacher selects for them; i.e., they are expected to show their agreement or disagreement with the way in which texts are chosen and taught to them. A follow up question (Q36) is to seek whether our respondents have a word in choosing texts with their teachers.

Questions 37-38 purport on students’ attitudes towards the use of other languages, mainly French and/or Arabic in English lectures. In questions 39-40, they are expected to come up with some personal suggestions which they believe would contribute in making their English credits, those of reading comprehension respectively, better and more interesting. Their suggestions would be of a great utility in the design of any English course.

Finally, in question 41, students are set to describe briefly other sorts of difficulties that they might come across in their English courses.

1.4. Analysis of the results.
Section One: Learners’ Needs in Learning English.

Q1: Do you like studying English?
   a) -Yes 
   b) -No

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<th>Percentage (%)</th>
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<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>42</td>
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Among our 42 research participants, 36 of them i.e. 85.71% said that they like studying English, while 6 of them who represent 14.29% gave negative answers. Thus the results shown in this table and graph confirm that the great majority of our informants do really have positive perspectives on English language, and this in fact is something quite encouraging.

**Q2: How do you feel towards English speaking people?**

a)-Like them , b)-Un-interested in them , c)-Dislike them.

**Table 2: Students’ Attitude towards English Speaking People**

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<tr>
<td>Total</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
This question would be joined with the first one. Out of all the respondents, 33 students, that is 78.57 %, opted for the first choice. They answered that they like English speakers. 8 students (i.e. 19.05 %) said that they are not interested or concerned with those people, whereas only a unique student chose the last option. Again, this means that the second question corresponds with the former one. From the two questions, we could note that motivation for language learning might be affected by one’s attitude towards the language itself which might be influenced by their feeling concerning the speaking community of that language. Both Tables (1-2) illustrate well the good positive attitudes towards either English language or its speakers. And this would imply that the source of students’ problems is not students themselves, but the conditions surrounding them. Here, we might also say, in discretion, that having a positive attitude does not necessarily mean that our students are very much interested in learning English, and hence they are proficient advanced learners who do not encounter difficulties in their studies.

Q 3: Do you think that learning English is important for management graduate students?

a) -Yes 

b) -No

Table 3: Students’ View about the Importance of English for their Graduation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Number of students</th>
<th>Percentage %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>90.48 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>04</td>
<td>09.52 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No answer</td>
<td>00</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>100 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Graph 3: Students’ View about the Importance of English for their Graduation
This question is indeed to complement and check what has been mentioned in the former questions. 38 from our subjects provided us with "yes" answer. That is, the greater number of them (90.48 %) recognise the necessity of English. A minority of 4 students expressed that English is not so vital for their graduation and so they do not need it.

The results obtained are quite interesting, because the awareness of students about the status and the significance of English language is like an engine which moves and augments their motivation to learn the language.

Q 4: Do you attend your lectures in English?

a) -Yes
b) –No

Table 4: Students’ Attendance in English Lectures

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Number of students</th>
<th>Percentage %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>50 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>50 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No answer</td>
<td>00</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>100 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Graph 4: Students’ Attendance in English Lectures

Among 42 students’ informants, half of them (20 students) that equals 50 % answered that they attended English credits. The same number proved the opposite. The results found here would be of two interpretations: either to show that the students' previous answers were contradictory, or to obviously imply that students do not actually find the rich healthy environment in which they could discover themselves and exploit their capacities and talents.

Q5: How do you rate your performance in English learning skills? Please tick (√)
Table 5: Students’ Performance in English Learning Skills

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Skills-Performance</th>
<th>Listening</th>
<th>Speaking</th>
<th>Reading</th>
<th>Writing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sts</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Sts</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very good</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>16.67</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>45.24</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>26.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>11.90</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>66.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>100 %</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>100 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Graph 5: Students’ Performance in English Learning Skills

As shown in Table 5, the majority of students considered their performance in English learning skills as “low”. Speaking skill comes first with 28 students, i.e. 66.67% have low level in speaking. In the second position, there are reading and writing with 18 students (42.86%) for each. At last, the fewest number of 5 students (11.90%) ranked their performance in listening skill as “low”.

In the view of the results obtained and if we compare again between “average” and “low” columns, we may say that most of our informants are not so advanced or very good learners, in English. The majority of them have “average” or “low” performance, which means that they are in either intermediate or low levels. Consequently, and according to students’ answers, speaking skill classified as the most difficult (28), followed by reading and writing (18 students). These views present that our students are able to evaluate their own performance and level, the point which reflects their awareness about their difficulties and needs.

Q6: Do you think that the time assigned (01:30 minutes, per week) to the English credit is sufficient?
a)-Yes  

b) -No

**Table 6: Students' Opinions about the Time Allocated to the English Credit**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Nbr of students</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>9,52%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>90,48%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Graph 6: Students' Opinions about the Time Allocated to the English Credit**

According to what is suggested in this table, we could notice that nearly all students (38 represent 90,48%) declared the shortage of time allotted to English sessions. This insufficiency in time may play against both the teacher and the students' progress, since they would not be able to do what they want and need, and this certainly leads them to feel boring and so de-motivated.

**Q7: If your answer is “no”, what could you suggest?**

**Table 7: Students' Suggestions on the Amount of Time / 38 students**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Number of students</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Graph 7: Students' Suggestions on the Amount of Time / 38 students.

This question is the follow up of question 6. The whole number of 38 students who replied in question 6 that the time given to the English module is not enough, suggested here the rise of this amount. So, 38 students represent 100% for this question. This shows that our students need more time to learn better in English.

Q8: For what specific purpose do you study English as an ESP course?
(You may tick more than one)

a) To understand lectures in English or any professional conversations.
b) To use it in reading technical materials and catalogues.
c) To use it in consulting reading materials related to your field of study.
d) For sitting for exams and formal writings.
e) For furthering higher studies and travelling abroad.

Table 8: Students' Specific Purposes for Requiring English as an ESP Course

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>a</th>
<th>b</th>
<th>c</th>
<th>d</th>
<th>e</th>
<th>f</th>
<th>ac</th>
<th>ad</th>
<th>cd</th>
<th>ce</th>
<th>cf</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Students</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>9.52</td>
<td>2.38</td>
<td>16.6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>2.38</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>2.38</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>abc</th>
<th>abe</th>
<th>acd</th>
<th>ade</th>
<th>cde</th>
<th>abc</th>
<th>ade</th>
<th>abc</th>
<th>ade</th>
<th>acf</th>
<th>bcd</th>
<th>abcd</th>
<th>acdef</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>df</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.38</td>
<td>4.76</td>
<td>2.38</td>
<td>2.38</td>
<td>2.38</td>
<td>2.38</td>
<td>7.14</td>
<td>2.38</td>
<td>4.76</td>
<td>4.76</td>
<td>2.38</td>
<td>2.38</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As it could be grasped from the above table, the biggest rate is noted in option "c". Students that is 16.67% said that their major purpose for requiring English as an ESP course is "to use it in consulting reading materials related to their field of study". The second specific need is clearly shown in option "a" which is "understand lectures in English or any professional conversations," where they said that they study English for sitting for exams and formal writing, and "e" that includes furthering studies and travelling abroad, with 4 answers for each. In the third position, there are students who favoured more options. The first 4 choices for example are the most important for 3 students (7.14%).

The results obtained show that students are quite aware of their needs in using English as the majority of them (16.67%) declared the priority and the centrality of reading texts in their areas of study. Selecting the first 4 options also demonstrates that our informants are clear about their specific purposes and so they could direct their attention and effort towards their needs. These findings are a bit motivating and interesting, too.

Q9: How important are the following language skills / components for you? Arrange them in their order of importance.

1) - Listening 3) - Reading 5) - Grammar
2) - Speaking 4) - Writing 6) - Vocabulary
As it is mentioned before, this question could be discussed in relation to question 5, where students are asked to rate their performance in English learning skills. As it could be analysed from the above table, our respondents placed speaking skill first with 24 students (57,14 %) followed by reading skill with 20 students. That is, 47,62 % in the second position. Third, there is grammar and vocabulary with 13 students, i.e.30,95 % for each. While writing is classified fifth with 12 students (28,57 %) and the listening is the last sixth skill.

What is understandable from these rates is that our students recognize well the significance...
of reading comprehension skill in their studies as they ordered it among the two top major skills.

If we correlate this and what has been said earlier in question 5, one might note that though they stated its difficulty, they come now to show its importance. This is a quite logical explanation because being important does not always mean easy. And hence, this imparts the fact that our informants need to remedy some of their reading difficulties in order to reach a certain success in their studies.

Another comparison could be made between this question with and its result, with the above one in which the greater number of students (7 that is 16,67 %) replied that their prime specific purpose in requiring English is option "c", consulting reading materials related to their field of study. And this helps us to conclude again that reading is important and needed for them.

After having a look on some general points about students' needs in English, we may get now in the centre of the matter to see and explore their reading comprehension skill.

Section Two: Reading Comprehension Skill

Q10: Do you read in English?
   a) -Yes
   b) -No

Table 10: Students' Reading in English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Nbr of students</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>35,71 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>64,29 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>100 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Graph10: Students' Reading in English
The majority of students (27 equals 64.29%) replied that they do not read in English, 15 students (35.71%) said they do. This confirms that something is missing elsewhere. Coming back to the previous findings (Q5,Q8), we might assume that though they declared its difficulty, they are very aware of its necessity. This could not parallel the last results where they answered that they do not read in English. Here two explanations might be possible. The first is to show contradictions in their answers, and this is remote possibility. The second is that they may not find what to read either in class or outside university. To this point, we could note that both the nature of reading lectures, if there are some inside classes, and the milieu outside where no English data is available except the Net service, which not all of students have access to, are among the factors that impede the good performance of our students in reading comprehension.

Q11: If your answer is “yes”, what do you usually read?

a) - Basic academic texts
b) - Journals and specific articles
c) - Magazines, dissertations, and theses
d) - Other: (Please specify)

Table11: Students’ Reading Contents. / 15 students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Nbr of students</th>
<th>Percentage %</th>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Nbr of students</th>
<th>Percentage %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>40,00 %</td>
<td>ac</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>13,33 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0,00 %</td>
<td>ad</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>13,33 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>20,00 %</td>
<td>bc</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6,67 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6,67 %</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>100 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Graph 11: Students’ Reading Contents / 15 students
Among 15 students who read in English, 6 of them (40 %) selected the first option "a", i.e. they read basic academic texts. This is an indication that English is a means by which those students could get access to the information they need in their studies.

The following three questions are aimed to see the reading habit of our students, in Arabic and French compared to English.

**Q12: How often do you read in English?**

a) Always  
b) Sometimes  

c) Rarely  
d) Never

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 12: Frequency of Students' Reading in English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Options</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Graph 12: Frequency of Students' Reading in English**

Among 42 informants, 15 which represent 35,71 % said that they rarely read in English. 14 students (33,33 %) read sometimes and 13 (30,95 %) never read. This demonstrates that the student's reading habit is low, basically in foreign languages.

**Q13: How often do you read in Arabic?**

a) Always  

b) Sometimes  

c) Rarely  
d) Never
Table 13: Frequency of Students' Reading in Arabic

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Nbr of students</th>
<th>Percentage %</th>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Nbr of students</th>
<th>Percentage %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>71,43 %</td>
<td>c</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7,14 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>21,43 %</td>
<td>d</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0,00 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>42</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>100 %</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Graph 13: Frequency of Students' Reading in Arabic

Contrary to the first question, in Table 13, the majority of students (30 what equals 71,43%) read always in Arabic. The point that may show, in discretion, that the reading habit exists as such. Because they read in Arabic, why not they could be backed to read in other languages.

Q14: How often do you read in French?

a) Always
b) Sometimes
c) Rarely
d) Never

Table 14: Frequency of Students' Reading in French

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Nbr of students</th>
<th>Percentage %</th>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Nbr of students</th>
<th>Percentage %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4,76 %</td>
<td>c</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>35,71 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>35,71 %</td>
<td>d</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>23,81 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>42</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>100 %</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Graph 14: Frequency of Students' Reading in French

As it can be analysed from the above results, and by way of balance, students' frequency in reading in French is similar to theirs in English as 15 students (35,71 %) said that they sometimes or rarely read in French Language.

Back to questions 12,13, and 14, we could say that the reading habit exists as such, however it is better noticed in the mother tongue than in the second language (French), or in the foreign one (English). This may be due to the fact that our students do not really find what and how to read, or they do not like to read. This clears again that they lack the rich environment, either inside or outside the university (no available books, magazines, newspapers articles, recordings, and communications, mainly in English). In short, having a healthy learning atmosphere would help them being more proficient readers in foreign languages, even at their smaller scope.

Section Three: Reading Comprehension Problems

Q15: How do you read in English?

a) - Fluently (easily)
b) - With little difficulty
c) - With some difficulty
d) - With great difficulty

Table 15: Students’ Reading Abilities in English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Nbr of students</th>
<th>Percentage %</th>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Nbr of students</th>
<th>Percentage %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>9,52%</td>
<td>c</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>21,43%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>30,95%</td>
<td>d</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>38,10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 15 reveals that the biggest number of students (16 that is 38.10 %) read with a great difficulty. This consolidates their views when they asserted their own performance in English learning skills. As mentioned and presented in question 5, reading was positioned as a second most difficult skill for them. This conveys that the majority of our students could be considered as low level students.

It appears also that 13 students (30.95 %) read with little difficulty and this shows that they could be regarded as having a pre-advanced level.

9 of them (21.43 %) chose option "c" and 4 of them (9.52 %) opted for the first. These rates describe, indeed, the efforts which would be made by those learners to understand a given text.

In all, the results obtained indicate that reading in English actually cause a hurdle for those ESP students. Hence, motivation and more practice of reading would help in reducing some of this hardship.

Q16: When reading a text in English, what do you find most difficult
(You may tick more than one answer)

a) - Vocabulary  c) - Sentences and phrases structures
b) - Grammar     d) - Understanding meaning
e) - Other:
Table 16: Students’ Areas of Difficulty When reading a Text in English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Sts</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Sts</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Sts</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4.76%</td>
<td>ad</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>14.29%</td>
<td>bcd</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4.76%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7.14%</td>
<td>bc</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7.14%</td>
<td>abcd</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7.14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.38%</td>
<td>bd</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7.14%</td>
<td>abde</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.38%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>23.81%</td>
<td>cd</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.38%</td>
<td>abcd</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.38%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.83%</td>
<td>abc</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4.76%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ab</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.83%</td>
<td>acd</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4.76%</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Graph 16: Students’ Areas of Difficulty When reading a Text in English

The above table shows that students have a single, double, or multiple types of difficulties. In this question, they are asked to tick more than one answer in an attempt to decide about not just one area of difficulty but more. The greatest trial lies essentially in the understanding of meaning answered 10 students (represent 23.81%).

6 subjects selected both options "a and d" (Vocabulary and understanding meaning), this reinforces the previous mentioned fact that our students suffer from the lexico-semantic aspects of English language. As for the three remaining students (7.14 %), their reading problem is due to grammar. The same number (3 students) chose "bc, bd, and abcd" options.

Q17: Do you think that the distinction between the Arabic and the English writing styles causes you problems when reading in English?

a) Yes
b) No
Table 17: Students' Views on Arabic and English Writing Styles as Source of Problems

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Nbr of students</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>28,57%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>71,43%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Graph 17: Students' Views on Arabic and English Writing Styles as Source of Problems

Among 42 of our student informants, 30 that is 71,43 % stated that the difference between the Arabic and the English writing styles do not cause them problems when reading in English. However, 12 students (28,57 %) said that this distinction is a source of arduousness in reading English texts.

Q18: If your answer is “yes”, do you think is it due to:

a) - The text’s structure  
b) - Word-order  
c) - Sentence patterns  
d) - Interpreting ideas  
e) -Other : ( Please specify)

Table 18: Students’ Areas of Difficulty in Writing Styles / 12 Students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Students</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Students</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8,33%</td>
<td>ac</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8,33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>33,33 %</td>
<td>bd</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8,33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8,33%</td>
<td>de</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8,33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0,00%</td>
<td>abcd</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8,33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0,00 %</td>
<td>No answer</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8,33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ad</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8,33%</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
This question is a justification of the former one. Among 12 students whose answers were "yes", 4 of them (33, 33 %) said that their difficulty in reading is related basically to word order "b".

As revealed in table 18, some students opted for a single, others for double, the rest for multiple categories, and one student with no answer.

Q19: How do you read a text in English?
   a) - Rapidly
   b) - Normally (with average speed)
   c) - Slowly

Table 19: Students' Reading Speed

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Nbr of students</th>
<th>Percentage %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0,00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>47,62 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>52,38 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As shown in this table, more than half of students (22, i.e., 52, 38%) portrayed that their reading in English is "slow". Whereas 20 students (47, 62%) described it as "average". Consequently, we may note that reading speed is a problem encountered by our students. At this stage reading speed, or reading fluency is hardly achievable since more steps and skills are rather fundamental to ameliorate reading comprehension. Reading fluency means that students meet no problems at the level of word-recognition. Though this latter is important, it seems not sufficient. Students need more practice to read with accuracy, ease and more importantly understanding.

Q20: If your answer is “slowly”, do you think it is because of:
   a) -Pronunciation problem
   b) -Difficulty of words in the text
   c) -Non-familiarity with the topic
   d) -Fear of making mistakes

Table 20: Students 'Views on the Causes of Slow Reading / 22 Students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Nbr</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Nbr</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>27.27 %</td>
<td>ab</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.55 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>22.73 %</td>
<td>ac</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>9.09 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>18.18 %</td>
<td>bc</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.55 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>9.09 %</td>
<td>abcd</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.55 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>22</strong></td>
<td><strong>100 %</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Among 22 students who said that they are slow readers in English (in Q19), 6 students (27.27%) traced back the causes of slow reading to option "a", that is pronunciation problems. This would mean that students are not exposed to the phonic aspect of language where they can do some aloud reading. Option "b" is classified the second reason responsible for this snail-pace reading of our students, with 5 answers (22, 73%). Again, this demonstrate clearly that our students still suffer from word for word technique. They may find it difficult to extract the general sense from the context. Sticking on the meaning of individual new words may drive them to give up reading at all. The third and the fourth options are left in their natural order, with 4 students (18, 18%) who selected "c" (their non-familiarity with the topic), and 2 students (9,09%) opted for the last one "d". Concerning the rest they said that they have more than one reason behind their slow reading, i.e. they selected more options.

Section Four: Reading Comprehension Strategies

Q21: Do you read with a purpose?
   a)-Yes          b) -No

Table 21: Students' View on Reading with Purpose

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Nbr of students</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>66.67 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>33.33 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>100 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The table reveals quite interesting results. 28 students (66.67%) replied that they underline their reading purpose beforehand. This seems motivating, because either to do it themselves, or they are asked by the teacher to do so, means that our students are aware about things they make. Reading with purpose helps them ground themselves in the most important aspect of the given text. It denotes that students are conscious. This purpose is a kind of meta-cognition knowledge that they need in order to be directed, autonomous, and efficient readers.

Results show also that 4 informants (33.33%) answered they read without any purpose. A call, then for teachers to drive them to read with explicit purposes. i.e. teachers could give help here by asking questions, or listing objectives behind their reading.

**Q22: Do you read a text in English in order to:**

a) - Get the general idea of it

b) - Enrich your vocabulary

c) - Understand sub-ideas and supporting details

**Table 22: Students’ Reading Purpose**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Students</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Students</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>35.71 %</td>
<td>ab</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.38 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>57.14 %</td>
<td>bc</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4.76 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00 %</td>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>42</td>
<td>100 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Graph 22: Students’ Reading Purpose

According to our respondents' answers to this question, 24 of them (57.14 %) read English texts to uplift their lexicon items. That is, the majority of them aim to enhance their vocabulary moved by the belief that understanding the dictionary meaning of a lot of unfamiliar words is the prime concern in language learning. Here, one might say that though this is very important, it is not enough, i.e. acquiring language is not just understanding a set of vocabulary items. The point which we referred to, at the beginning of this piece of research.

15 students (35.71 %) answered that their reading purpose is to comprehend the general idea of the text (skimming). None of the students preferred option "c" (understanding the sub-ideas and supporting details). 2 students (4.76 %) gave two choices "b,c".

Q 23: Do you have any notion about reading comprehension strategies?

a) -Yes  b) - No

Table 23: Students' Notions on Reading Strategies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Nbr of students</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>23.81 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>76.19 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>100 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Graph 23: Students' Notions on Reading Strategies

As it is predicted, the majority of students (32 that is 76.19 %) have no idea about the so called reading comprehension strategies. 10 of them, which represent 23.81 %, said that they have heard about reading strategies. The results obtained imply that our students truly have no background knowledge, or past experience in using reading strategies, or they ignore about them. In other words, they may use these strategies without real recognition of their nature and function. And this in turn could mean that teachers do not make things explicit for students. Thus we could say that students should have enough practice of reading comprehension strategies with a conscious knowledge and use.

Q24: If your answer is “yes”, do you use these reading strategies when reading a text in English?
   a)- Yes
   b)- No

Table 24: Students' Use of Reading Strategies / 10 Students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Nbr of students</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>70.00 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>30.00 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>100 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Among 10 students who answered that they are familiar with the notion of reading strategies; in the previous question, 7 students (70.00 %) stated that they use them while reading a text in English. This indeed is also encouraging since it shows that our students are not totally illiterate about reading comprehension strategies. Out of 10 students that is 100 % in this question, 3 students (30.00 %) do not use strategies in their reading.

Q25: How do you select your strategy?

a) -According to your purpose
b) -According to the nature of the problem you face
c) -Without any previous preparation
d)-Other: (Please specify)

Table 25: Criteria of Students’ Selection of their Strategies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Students</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Students</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>28.57 %</td>
<td>d</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>50.00 %</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>21.43 %</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>100 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Graph 25: Criteria of Students' Selection of their Strategies
It is important to point out that question 25 is to complement questions 21, 22, 23 and 24 (reading purposes and reading strategies). Being able to select their strategies means that students are aware of the difficulties they face and more necessarily the adequate ways to overcome them. Hence, Q25 is to see how well they could choose their strategies. 21 students that is half of the sample (50,00 %) answered that they chose their strategies according to the nature of the problem they confront "b". 12 of them (28,57 %) saw that it is the purpose itself which dictates the appropriate strategy "a". Whereas only 9 of them (21,43 %) opted for answer "c", in which they indicated that their selection is arbitrary. Say it differently, they have no previous preparation or previous knowledge about their strategy choice. Consequently, we can say that our students do not see well the linkage between using strategies, setting a purpose or solving a problem .It is the nature of the problem or the purpose in mind which determine the type of strategy one uses.

**Q26: When facing a reading problem, what do you do?**

a) - Try to solve it using some techniques  
b) - Ask for teacher’s or classmate’s help  
c) - Do nothing  
d) -Other : ( Please, specify)

**Table 26: Students 'Strategies to Deal with a Reading Problem**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Students</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Students</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>26,19 %</td>
<td>d</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2,38 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>30,96 %</td>
<td>ab</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7,14 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>33,33 %</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>100 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Graph 26: Students 'Strategies to Deal with a Reading Problem.**
Students’ answers in Table 26 reveal that 14 of them (33.33 %) do nothing towards the problems they could meet during their reading. They do not think about their own solutions to their difficulties. 13 students (30.96 %) ask their teachers or their classmates in case of troubles. 11 of them (26.19 %) attempt themselves to use their own techniques to get rid of problems they encounter in their reading in English.

In conclusion, these results show that most of our students do not recognise well how to resolve some of their reading problems themselves, as many of them call for others’ help. This demonstrates their reliance and dependence on other people to find good treatments to their reading complications. And this, in turn is a kind of self-sabotage which they are not aware of. Since they are different, by nature, they have various styles and techniques to deal with their own problems, so teachers should show this.

Q27: While reading, do you get information through:

a) Reading the whole text
b) Reading the important parts or chunks only
c) Reading the beginning and the ending of the text only
d) Visuals and supporting pictures
e) Other: (Please, specify)

Table 27: Students’ Strategies for Text Comprehension

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Sts</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Sts</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Sts</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>45.24%</td>
<td>ad</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.38%</td>
<td>de</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.38%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>14.29%</td>
<td>bc</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.38%</td>
<td>abd</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.38%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.38%</td>
<td>bd</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7.14%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>16.76%</td>
<td>be</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.38%</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>cd</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.38%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Graph 27: Students’ Strategies for Text Comprehension
Among 42 students, 19 (45,24 %) replied that to get the information needed, they read the whole text "a".7 of them (16,76 %) selected option "d", in which they showed that relying on visuals and supporting pictures is the relevant strategy to understand the reading material. 6 students (14,29 %) informed us that texts' comprehension is attained through reading the important parts or chunks of it "b".3 students chose double categories "b,d". According to the students' answers and if we re-order those options starting from the most frequently followed, we may list them again as:
1-Reading the whole texts (skimming with 45,24 %)
2-Using visuals (16, 76 %)
3-Reading the important parts of the text (14,29 %)
This classification imparts the ways our ESP students used to process text information. This describes as stated before that they are not alike. They may use different ways to deal with a text, hence it is teachers’ job to drive them to flexibility where they could be exposed to as many texts and strategies as possible.

Q28: If you do not understand a sentence in a text, which ways do you use to understand it better?

a)-Re-start reading the text .
b)-Repeat reading the sentence until you understand it .
c)-Read what is before and what is after the sentence .
d)-Break the sentence into parts .
e)-Other : (Please specify) .

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Students</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>26.19 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7.14 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>30.95 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.38 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>14.29 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ab</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.38 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 28: Students Strategies for Sentence Comprehension
Regarding procedures for sentence comprehension, Table 28 illustrates that our informants opted for a single, double or multiple answers. The majority of them, 13 students which represent 30.95% answered that if they do not understand a sentence in a text, they read what is before and what is after it "c". 11 subjects (students) (26.19%) from the group noted that they re-start reading the whole text "a". 6 students (14.29%) picked option "e" where they ask a teacher or a classmate to help them. Three students chose option "b", and one student preferred option "d". The remaining results are given in the table.

The first responses demonstrate immensely that our students still use the old habit of reading with regression, read and come back to repeat, in case of misunderstanding. This procedure may make them passive slow reader, and not active thinker, in the process as a whole. If teachers incorporate tasks to activate their background knowledge or to discuss the most important notions, of key words, found in the text, readers may encounter less difficulty.

**Q29: When you come across a new difficult word in a text, do you:**

a) - Predict / guess the meaning from the context.

b) - Find synonyms to the word

c) - Use the dictionary

d) - Translate the word into “Arabic” or “French”

e) - Ask a teacher, or a classmate

f) - Ignore the word and try to understand the general sense

g) - Other:( please, specify)
Table 29: Students 'Strategies for Word Comprehension

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Sts</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Sts</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Sts</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>9.52%</td>
<td>g</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>adf</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.38%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>ab</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.38%</td>
<td>bce</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.38%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4.76%</td>
<td>ae</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.38%</td>
<td>def</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.38%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>26.19%</td>
<td>cd</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.38%</td>
<td>deg</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.38%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>14.29%</td>
<td>de</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.38%</td>
<td>bcde</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.38%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>21.43%</td>
<td>ace</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.38%</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Graph 29: Students 'Strategies for Word Comprehension

As it is shown in this table, among the whole sample, 11 students (26.19 %) selected option "d". That is , their strategy to understand an unfamiliar item is to translate it into Arabic or French. This explains once more their eagerness in having as many vocabulary as possible .They believe that it is the key solution to all their language problems.9 students (21.43 %) answered that they ignore the new word and try to understand the general sense "f".6 students (14.29 %) preferred strategy "e", in which they ask their teacher or their classmates.

Section Five: English Course Contents

Q 30: Do you feel motivated (interested) in English sessions?

a)-Yes

b)-No
Table 30: Students’ Motivation in English Sessions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Nbr of students</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>50,00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>50,00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Graph 30: Students’ Motivation in English Sessions

In this question, students are kindly asked to express their feelings and attitudes towards English sessions. Half of them (21 equals 50 %) showed their desire and enthusiasm vis-à-vis English credits. The second half (21) gave negative answers where they declared that they do not feel driven or stimulated in English lectures.

As evidenced by the results, we think and claim again that motivation is the corner stone in any learning / teaching setting. A further analysis of this question might either confirm the fact that our students do really lack motivation. Having half of the class dejected and careless, would seem a sign of deficiency both in teaching and learning. We could say at this stage that a call has to be made to unify all efforts to have more motivating dynamic and effective classes.

Q31: If the answer is “yes”, does you teacher motivate you through:

a) - Asking questions  
b) - Inviting you to dialogues and discussions  
c) - Encouragements, instructions, and advice  
d) - Other : ( Please, specify)
Table 31: Teacher's Role in Motivating Students/ 21 Students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Students</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Students</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>23,81 %</td>
<td>ac</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4,76 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>14,29 %</td>
<td>abd</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4,76 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>28,57 %</td>
<td>No answer</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>9,52 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4,76 %</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ab</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>9,52 %</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>100 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Graph 31: Teacher's Role in Motivating Students / 21 Students

Out of 21 students who answered positively in the former question, 6 of them (28,57 %) said that their teacher motivates them through encouragements, instructions and advice "c".5 students (23,81 %) stated that "asking questions " is the method used by the teacher to maintain motivation in his / her classes.3 students (14,29 %) opted for "b" and replied that their teacher invites them to dialogues and discussions to actuate them.

To summarise, though half of the group considered themselves motivated, still there is a gap that needs to be bridged. We could admit that it is not only teachers’ job to prompt their classes, because other factors could intervene, but they have a great role in doing so.

Q32: 1-How do you find your English program contents?

a)- Attractive, rich ,and stimulating
b)- Difficult and uninteresting
c)- Good but very long to terminate
d)- Have no idea about it at all
Table 32: Students 'Views on English Programme Contents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Students</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Students</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>28.57 %</td>
<td>d</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>40.48 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>28.57 %</td>
<td>c</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.38 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.38 %</td>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>42</td>
<td>100 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Graph 32: Students 'Views on English Programme Contents

The results obtained in this question reveal that most students have no idea about what is included in English program contents as 17 that is 40,48 % chose option "h".12 students representing 28,57 %, think it is attractive, rich, and stimulating. The same number (12 students) feel that the content is difficult and no-interesting. Just one student said it is good but long to terminate.

Consequently ,we could notice that the majority of students do not know about their English contents .This may drive them to be less motivated since what would be presented to them would appear strange and new .Hence ,it could be hatred. We think that securing the ground for students would be too beneficial, because when they perceive that what would be given to them fits what they already have , with some novel interesting things , their self confidence would be augmented. Therefore , they would grasp the content and further their progress.

Back again to table and graph 32, another point that could be a justification for their choice "d", is that our students do not participate in designing their English course content. This would be investigated later in Q37.
Q33: If it is difficult, do you attribute this to:

a) - Teacher’s techniques and methodology
b) - Non-adaptability to your level
c) - Students’ de-motivation
d) - Other: (Please, specify)

Table 33: Students' Opinions about the Difficulty of the Contents / 12 Students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Students</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Students</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>16,67 %</td>
<td>d</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0,00 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>50,00 %</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>33,33 %</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>100 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This question is to find out the reason behind the difficulty of the English course contents. It is also to explain the former question. Among 12 students who said that it is difficult and non-interesting (in Q32), 6 students (50 %) attributed this to the non-adaptability to their levels "b". 4 students (33,33 %) answered that it is the students' de-motivation which mainly causes this hardship of the English program. 2 students (16,67 %) think that it is the teacher's techniques and methodology "a" that makes it as such. It can be said that teachers need to provide what is understandable and interesting to their students i.e, trying to take into accounts general / specific, easy / difficult principles to prepare their materials.

Q34: Do you think that the content of the English course is at your reach?

a) - Yes
b) - No
By way of balance, this question is to assess students’ answers to question 33, as it would show the difficulty or the easiness of the present English course. Out of the whole sample (42), 32 students that represent 76.19% answered that the content of English course is not accessible to their abilities. In other words, most students see it higher than their level or more difficult for them to comprehend. The results found here go hand in hand with the above ones where 50% (6 students) attributed the difficulty of English Content to the non-adaptability to their level.

10 students (23.81%) replied that the content of English course is at their reach, i.e. relevant to their level. Furthermore, two of them stated that their level is better than what is presented to them in the English course. One of the two last students declared that he/she masters English and more other five foreign languages, an appreciated fact.

To sum up, and according to students’ answers, we may say that the English course is not primarily built up on their needs, wants and abilities. Thus a mis-match between what is needed and what is presented could be remarked. The results gotten so far may either mean that student’s level is very slow (low), and they do nothing to better it, rather they are just waiting the teacher to pour out knowledge on their minds. If these come true, learning/teaching will be in a real danger, so we think that the responsibility is collective.

### Table 34: Relevance of English Contents to Students' Level

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Nbr of students</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>23.81%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>76.19%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Graph 34: Relevance of English Contents to Students' Level

By way of balance, this question is to assess students’ answers to question 33, as it would show the difficulty or the easiness of the present English course. Out of the whole sample (42), 32 students that represent 76.19% answered that the content of English course is not accessible to their abilities. In other words, most students see it higher than their level or more difficult for them to comprehend. The results found here go hand in hand with the above ones where 50% (6 students) attributed the difficulty of English Content to the non-adaptability to their level.

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To sum up, and according to students’ answers, we may say that the English course is not primarily built up on their needs, wants and abilities. Thus a mis-match between what is needed and what is presented could be remarked. The results gotten so far may either mean that student’s level is very slow (low), and they do nothing to better it, rather they are just waiting the teacher to pour out knowledge on their minds. If these come true, learning/teaching will be in a real danger, so we think that the responsibility is collective.
Teachers and students alike should try their efforts and time to reach their ultimate goals based on teaching/learning demands.

Q35: What is your opinion about the way in which reading topics (texts) are selected and taught to you?

a) - Agree
b) - Disagree

Table 35: Students’ Opinion on the Selected Topics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Nbr of students</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>50.00 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>50.00 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>100 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Graph 35: Students’ Opinion on the Selected Topics

In an attempt to see whether our informant students are satisfied or not in their English classes, this question is put to investigate their agreement or disagreement mainly with what is taught in reading comprehension. Half of them (21) agree, and half disagree. In view of these results, it may be said that those who agree are the good motivated students who showed positive attitudes in the previous mentioned questions. As for those who disagree, we can interpret their reactions by saying that the topic proposed are beyond their knowledge, or even uninterested to them. So at this stage, teachers will have to try to get the balance right, i.e. they need to assess first their students’ abilities, interests, and purposes, then act accordingly.

Q36: Do you participate in selecting those reading texts with your teacher?

a) - Yes
b) - No
As shown in this table, the entire sample that is 100% has no words to say in selecting their reading texts with their teachers. The latter do not share or take into account students' views. In other words, teachers miss their student out. To this point, we may admit that learners themselves could bring amazing things to their classes, so we think that teachers have to give them a say in their lectures and bearing in mind that they are old enough to decide. Sharing students' their ideas would empower their self-esteem, self-confidence, and thus self-reliance, which is important at this level. In brief, sharing is caring and co-operation would further motivation.

Q37: Are you for or against the use of “Arabic and / or French” in the English sessions?
   a) - With
   b) - Against

Table 37: Students' Attitudes towards the Use of Other languages in English sessions
Graph 37: Students Attitudes towards the Use of Other languages in English Sessions

31 students (73,81 %) are with the use of other languages during the English course. This result clears that our respondents view translation as a perfect means through which they could acquire well-grounded knowledge in English. This in turn, would convey the slow levels of those students.

Concerning those who objected the use of other languages represent 26,19 %. They vindicated their attitude by saying that English should be taught in English, otherwise no foreign language learning could take place.

In short, one may say that language is not merely translation, it goes beyond the dictionary use.

Q38: In both cases, please say why?

Question 38 is a justification to Q 37. It aims to elicit, from our informants, the reason that makes them to decide whether they are for or against the use of other languages in the English credit. 35 students gave approximately the same cause. They think that the use of Arabic language mainly, is a time and effort saving procedure that would facilitate comprehension. While 7 of them, did not answer.

The above questions (37-38) show the two common reasons for the use / non-use of other languages in English course.

Q39: Do you think that English course contents could be ameliorated?

a) - Yes  
b) - No

Table 38: Students' Views on the Amelioration of English Course Contents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Nbr of students</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>71,43 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>28,57 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>100 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Graph 38: Students’ Views on the Amelioration of English Course Contents

The majority of our participants (71.43%) believe that the English course could be improved and this result leads us to confirm that they are not so satisfied with the teaching method implemented in their English lectures. For the minority students (28.57%), things are Ok.

Q40: If your answer is “yes”, would you suggest some ideas to do so?

Among 30 students who answered that it is possible to better the English course content (in Q39), 21 learners suggested that the English Course contents has to be perfected. 9 of them left this question blank. Students’ proposals revolve around the following tips:

- Allotting more time (teaching hours) to the English module.
- Building a solid interpersonal relationship between students and teachers.
- Bringing what is interesting and stimulating to students.
- Listening to and considering students' views.
- Rewarding individual efforts (approvals).
- Providing enough teaching staff and materials.
- Seeking seriousness and dedication in teaching (bring more experienced specialized teachers).
- Directing them towards more specific knowledge since they are ESP groups.
- Changing some of students' negative attitudes towards the English module.
Q41: Would you please describe shortly what kind of other difficulties do you find in the English course?

From 42 students, 30 (71.43 %) spoke about difficulties they meet in their studies. They mostly repeated those problems discussed earlier. 12 (28.57 %) students added nothing in this question, i.e., left it blank.

The analysis of students' questionnaire helps us to come up with some conclusions which will be given by the end of this chapter.

2. Teacher's questionnaire

2.1. Aim of the questionnaire

As it has been stated before, after having interviewed the colleague teacher about the areas of difficulty she faces in teaching English language in general, and reading comprehension in particular, this questionnaire comes to confirm first her views, and to check more other possible factors which inhibit this specific teacher with her students to go further. Therefore, we might note that this questionnaire was handed to merely one lecturer, as she is the sole who teaches the fourth management classes at M'sila University. Besides, she is the only one who welcomes giving help in our investigation.

Answers to this questionnaire together with those of students, will allow us to draw a profile about the situation in this department, and to propose a list of recommendations which would help in meeting both students / teachers' needs and objectives. The forthcoming suggestions, in the end this work, may avail in improving teaching / learning processes.

The questionnaire was delivered to her approximately by the end of the second semester, and was handed back to us a week after.

2.2. Description of the questionnaire.

Teacher’s questionnaire is divided into five sections with 40 questions. These latter are of two sorts. First, closed questions which require either "Yes-No" answers, or multiple choice questions, where the teacher is questioned kindly to select from series of items. Second, open questions that need personal points of views.
Section One: General Information about the Teacher (Q1-Q4)

This initial section seeks to collect data about the teacher professional backgrounds. Questions in this section are primarily on the teacher's degree (Q1), her teaching experience (Q2-Q3), and her possible attendance in ESP training programs (Q4).

Section Two: General Information about Students (Q5-Q11)

Getting acquainted with students is an important factor in teaching. This second section investigates the teacher's general views about her students. The colleague informant is asked to tell her opinions concerning her groups' homogeneity/heterogeneity (Q5-Q6-Q7), her students' attendance (Q8), and their motivation (Q9-Q10-Q11).

Section Three: Student's Needs and Problems (Q12-Q15)

The present section aims to assess students' needs in English to identify their problems. The teacher is first asked to say whether English is important or not for her students (Q12). The second question intends to identify for what specific purposes her students require English (Q13), followed by a fair assessment and description of their level of performance (Q14), and finally, the teacher is asked to state the most difficult aspects of language which her students suffer from (Q15).

Section Four: English Course Organization (Q16-Q28)

In this section, we attempt to identify other main factors that shape the source of problems. The teacher is asked about time allocation (Q16-Q17), syllabus and material provision (Q18-Q19-Q20-Q21), teachers' collaboration (Q22-Q23), and teaching objectives (Q24) and contents (Q25-Q26-Q27-Q28). The teacher is also questioned to enumerate, if possible, some suggestions to improve the English course.

Section Five: Reading Comprehension: Difficulties and Strategies (Q29-Q40)

It purports on students reading problems and their ways to get rid of them. In this part, the respondent teacher is asked to provide us with information related to the ways she approaches her reading comprehension classes. With this respect, most questions center around providing reading comprehension lectures (Q29-Q30), teaching English specific texts (Q31), her students' reading difficulties (Q32-Q33-Q34-Q35). Our teacher is also expected to say if she sets her students to read with a purpose (Q36-Q37). The last three questions (Q38-Q39-Q40), revolve around the teaching procedures. The colleague
informant is asked about the type and the nature of tasks and strategies brought into her classes.

2.3. Analysis of the results

To start with, it is important to note that we will try to analyze the teacher’s questionnaire in correlation with the results obtained from students’ one. It is hence an attempt not just to balance views, but to establish well-grounded suggestions. We would also signaled that the analysis of this questionnaire is slightly different from the first one, mainly in the first sections where we have attempted to group and comment on some questions at once, i.e. report some answers together in one account.

Section one: General Information about the Teacher (Q1- Q4)

Our informant teacher has a license degree (A1). She has been teaching English at M’sila university, department of management since 3 years (A2-A3). She has not, indeed, taken any training programmes in ESP (A4).

Section Two: General Information about Students (Q5-Q11)

Concerning questions 5, 6, and 7, the teacher said that her groups are heterogeneous (A5), i.e. not similar. The thing which bothers her and influences her ways of teaching (A6). She suggested so that to classify students’ groups properly in each branch (A7).

Q8: How could you see and describe your students’ attendance in the English course?

a) Very regular  b) Average  c) Irregular

The teacher replied that their attendance is average. This corresponds directly with the result found in (Q4)\textsuperscript{11} in students’ questionnaire where half of them (that is 50%) declared their absence in English credits. The findings obtained in both cases imply some lack of seriousness and interests either from the part of the teacher, learners themselves, or the administration of this department.

Q9: How would you rank your students’ motivation in the English class?

a) High  b) Average  c) Low

\textsuperscript{11}See Appendix C : Students’ questionnaire.Q4.
The teacher answered very frankly. She said that her students' motivation is low. And unfortunately, she does not try to motivate them (A10). This is an aforementioned view raised by students, when 21 of them (50%) feel less motivated, in English course. This reveals that our teacher is not very aware about motivation as being a fundamental feature in teaching / learning situations. As a result, we think that she needs to be herself motivated and dedicated so to sustain it in her classes. Q11 is the justification of Q10.

Section Three: Student's Needs and Problems (Q12-Q15)

Q12: Do you think that learning English for your students is:
   a) - So important                          b) - Important                          c) - Not important at all

Similar to students' answer to question three (in their questionnaire), the teacher admitted that English is important for her learners.

Q13: If your answer is (a, or b), why do you think they need it ?
   a) - To understand lectures in English or any professional conversations
   b) - To use it in reading technical materials and catalogues
   c) - To use it in consulting reading materials related to your field of study
   d) - For sitting for exams and in formal writings
   e) - For furthering higher studies and travelling abroad

Here the teacher is invited to specify the purpose(s) which backs students to learn English. She selected one unique purpose "d" (Passing exams). This option is classified second in students 'answers.

Q14: How do you qualify your students' performance in English?
   a) - Very good                          b) - Good                             c) - Average                          d) - Low                              e) - Very Low

Like (Q5), this question deals with students' performance and thus level in English learning skills. As stated by students, their teacher also described it as low. This dictates the compulsion to find immediate solution, otherwise, things could be worse.

12 See Appendix C: Students' questionnaire.Q30.
13 See Appendix C: Students' questionnaire.Q5.
Q15: Do you think that your students are mostly weak in:

(Re-order the following in terms of difficulty by putting “no 1” for the most difficult aspect and “no 7” for the least difficult one)

1-a) Vocabulary                                          4-d) Speaking and conversation skills
2-b) Grammar                                             5-e) Reading comprehension
3-c) Listening skill                                      6-f) Writing and composition

This question is to check the most difficult language aspects our students suffer from. It is to see where exactly this low and weak performance is clearly remarked. According to the teacher's view, the given items could be re-arranged as:

1-f) Writing and composition       4-c) Listening skill
2-b) Grammar                      5-e) Reading comprehension
3-a) Vocabulary                   6-d) Speaking and conversation skills

The way she sorted these skills bears out that this teacher dedicates all her time and efforts to maximise the grammatical structures and vocabulary items of English Language. Once more this could corroborate the belief that what students put in mind is the result of what is transmitted to them, i.e., the teacher herself views that grammar and vocabulary are the key to master English. Though one could not deny their greatest contributions, they are not the whole affair.

A further analysis of the above skill classification may imply that the teacher is more aware than someone else about her students' needs and consequently she sees that grammar and vocabulary are the basic demands for those ESP students.

Section Four: English Course Organization (Q16-Q28)

Q16: Do you think that the amount of time assigned to the English module in the department of management is sufficient?

a)-Yes                                              b)-No

Our teacher shared the same view of her students (90, 48%)\(^\text{14}\). She declared that the time allotted to the English module in not enough. When she was asked to propose something, she gave no comment (A17).

\(^{14}\) See Appendix C: Students’ questionnaire.Q6
Q18: Do you follow any official syllabus?
   a) Yes  
   b) No  
   The teacher answered positively this question. This denotes that there exist syllabus for English, but it is up to the teacher to use or put it aside.

Q19\(^{15}\) is the justification of question 18.

Q20: Do you use your own materials, or those already provided at the department?
   a) - I use my personal materials 
   b) - I use those which are available at the department 

   As expected, the teacher uses her own materials. The thing which shows the lack of English Language materials even inside the university, or their non-adaptability with teachers/learners interests, if they are actually provided. In short, this department seems to be light on teaching materials.

Q21: What type of reading materials do you use?
   a) - General texts 
   b) - Specific texts 
   c) - Both of them 
   d) - None of them 

   This question is complementary to the previous. The teacher was offered four items "a, b, c, and d" so that to select the type of texts she exploits. She opted for "b", i.e. she uses specific texts.

Q22: Do you work in collaboration with your colleagues at this department?
   a) - Yes  
   b) - No  

   Contrary to what is anticipated, our teacher asserted that no sort of collaboration is entailed in this department. The fact which indicates that negotiations among teachers or other members interested in teaching/learning is absent. Therefore, the role of ESP teacher as negotiator (discussed in the first chapter) is not truly performed. This would act negatively in the process of teaching/learning.

Q23\(^{16}\) is the follow up of question 22.

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\(^{15}\) See Appendix D: Teacher's questionnaire.

\(^{16}\) See Appendix D: Teacher's questionnaire.
Q24: Do you set clear objectives to your English course?
   a) - Yes  b) - No

As evidently known, objectives are the route map of any course. If teachers do not
determine explicitly their objectives, they would be in a mess. They have to know where to
start, how to go on, and where to stop.
Our informant unluckily answered that she does not underline objectives for her lessons.
This statement would work at the expense of the effectiveness of her class-management.

Q25: Grade the following language skills / components according to their importance.
Please rank them from the most important (no.1) to the least important (no.6).
   a)-Listening  c)-Reading  e)-Vocabulary
   b)-Speaking  d)-Writing  f)-Grammar

Seemingly, this question is the same given to our student informants. According to
the teacher's answer, those skills are arranged as:
1-f)- Grammar ,  2-e)-Vocabulary ,  3-a)-Listening ,  4-d)-Writing ,  5-b)-Speaking ,
6-c)-Reading.
As opposed to students who considered reading among the first two important skills, the
teacher classified it last. The order suggested by her denotes strongly that what has been
said in the general introduction (Statement of the problem) comes true. Analysing her
view, one may conclude that she really bases her teaching on the structural aspects of
language, where she opts for grammar and vocabulary compared to speaking and reading.

Q26: Do you use Arabic, and /or French language when teaching your ESP classes?
   a)-Yes  b)- No

The use of other languages in the English credit is highly appreciated by both
students and their teacher. Briefly this would demonstrate two points:
The first could show that our students are slow (weak), and hence they need translation as
a preferable means . The second could convey that our teacher lacks class management
techniques or teaching experience to get rid of these two languages , mainly the mother

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17 See Appendix B : Students' questionnaire.Q9.
18 See Page 5 : General introduction
19 See Appendix C : Students' questionnaire.Q37
tongue. As a consequence, we think that the teacher may use for example, synonyms, antonyms (English / English), visuals aids, drawings, gestures, and creative situations in lieu of using Arabic and / or French.

Q27: How do your students react towards the content you present to them?
   a) - They like it               b) - They do not like it

   This question is about the teacher's view on her students' reactions towards the English contents she affords to them. She answered logically that they like it. In the light of results gained here, we may note that this opinion contrasts students' answers where 32 of them (76.19 %)\(^20\) said that the English course contents does not match their levels.

Q28: What do you suggest to improve the English course so that to make it more efficacious and adequate to the students' needs?
   a) - To intensify the number of hours
   b) - To ameliorate the content of the English module
   c) - To bring and use more materials
   d) - Other :( Please clarify)

   Regarding the teacher's propositions to ameliorate the English course, she ticked the three options "a, b, and c". This is an expression to show that things need to be practically improved. On the one hand, intensifying teaching hours could be an administrative affair. Here, teachers may need collaboration to raise this issue. On the other hand, improving the content of English is a teacher card. They need to seek the best possible ways to achieve progress. Again, the point supports their roles as researchers and managers.

Section Five: Reading Comprehension : Difficulties and Strategies.

Q29: Do you provide any (or some) reading comprehension session (s) to your classes this year?
   a) -Yes               b) - No

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\(^{20}\) See Appendix C: Students'questionnaire.Q34
Contrary to what is expected, the teacher does not develop any reading comprehension session to her classes, during this year. This clears deeply her negligence to this important skill which in turns can reflect her difficulty in managing to teach reading comprehension courses.

Q30: If the answer is” no”, please say why?
This question is to verify firmly the reason behind saying “no” to the teaching of reading comprehension. As the colleague teacher stated, she ignores about this skill because her “students feel boring”\(^{21}\). The expression which would summarise one of the prime problems this research tries to look into, that is motivation.

Q31: If your answer is "yes", do you set your students to read English specific texts?
   a)-Yes b)-No
It is directly bonded with question 30. As she signalled previously, neither general nor specific texts are taught, i.e., no reading lectures take place.

Q32: When reading in English, do your students meet difficulties in distinguishing the principle idea from sub-ideas or supporting details?
   a)-Yes b)-No
In this question, the teacher answered that her students do not meet difficulties at this level (distinction between the main idea and the sub-ideas). This seems a bit strange, since she has asserted above that she does not teach reading comprehension, this year. She might establish her response on past grounds.

Q33: If your answer is” yes”, is it because of:
   a)- Meaning b)-Link words and conjunctions c)-Word reference d)-Punctuation e)-Other:( Please specify)
It is linked to question 32. It was kept blank.

Q34: How would you describe your students’ reading speed?
   a)-Fast b)- Average c)-Slow
Concerning this question, the informant teacher described her students reading speed as "slow", this point is confirmed in students’ responses to Q19 when they were asked about their reading celerity.22 of them (52,38 %) are not swift readers.

\(^{21}\) The teacher’s statement is put word by word
In view of what has been expressed so far, this is a quite natural and logical conclusion. How reading fluency or proficiency could be achieved under those conditions in which students are suppressed to have the minimum of things, i.e. being exposed to one or two reading comprehension lectures (per year). The result which reveals that we should not always castigate our students for their low proficiency, for other various factors would also responsible for this situation.

Q35: If your answer is" slow", is it because of:
      a)-Pronunciation problems
      b)-Difficulty of words in the text
      c)-Non-familiarity with the topic
      d)-Fear of making mistakes
      e)-Lack of aloud reading

The teacher's plea for considering her students tardy readers is their pronunciation problems "b". In this respect, it may be said that being fluent or very hasty reader does not basically mean being effective, because the latter is the one who would be able to overcome their problems at any time, by whatever provided at their disposal. Fluency is very necessary element in reading, albeit it is not always a sign of success. By contrast, one might find a normal reader (with average speed) with a very good manipulation and flexibility to deal with different texts. We may also add that at this level, students are assumed to have less frequent pronunciation problems. Because, at this level we think that most of their readings are done silently, it is difficult to be assessed, or quickly improved. Pronunciation is actually the most distinctive prestigious feature of English language, but other psychological or cognitive aspects could cause problems.

Comparing the teacher view with students' one, we find that it is exactly the same. Out of 22 students, 6 of them (27,27% represent the majority) traced back their slow reading to pronunciation difficulties. As a result, it could be said that before this stage, actions should be taken to better the phonic aspect of English language. This could be achieved through some listening tasks in which those ESP students will be exposed to conversations, reports, or documentaries related to their field of study.

Q36: Do you invite your students (at the beginning) to read with a purpose?
      a)-Yes                                      b) - No
In this question, the teacher replied positively. She said that she sets her students to read with purpose. This is quite convenient action.

**Q37: If your answer is “yes”, do you do this in order to?**

a)-Stimulate them to read  
b)-Help them use appropriate strategies to overcome their problems while reading.  
c)-Help them to adjust their strategy to the purpose set earlier.  

Question 37 is the justification of the former one. Here, the teacher said that inviting students to read with purpose is to stimulate them to read "a".

In the light of the answers given to Q36-Q37, ideas and opinions may seem a bit contradictory combined with the responses discussed earlier (Q9-Q10-Q29-Q30). This would be of two interpretations:

The first is that she referred or meant her previous years (classes) where she probably used to teach reading comprehension courses. The second is that she answered either the first questions or these last ones superficially, or swiftly.

**Q38: Do you provide your students with various tasks and activities that require different reading strategies (pre-reading, while-reading, and post-reading activities)?**

a) - Yes  
b) - No

The answer to this question denotes firmly the great problem which both the teacher and the students face in reading. As it is anticipated, the teacher does not provide any pre-reading, while-reading, and post-reading activities (strategies). This supports and clears her views when she asserted at the beginning of our investigation ,i.e., in background of study ,that she has no fair idea about teaching reading comprehension to her ESP groups. Her frankness in determining her own problem would be considered positive, since it would allow us and /or others to try to help this colleague teacher, and the like to teach reading comprehension skill as properly as possible.

To sum up, we think that the teacher has to make efforts to train herself and her students to follow the suggested procedure in teaching the three phases of reading lectures. She needs to use her tactfulness to design more student-centred, intrinsically-motivational classroom reading activities whereby communication could be attained , either between the teacher and her students ,or among students themselves.
Q39: Do you base your teaching on the development of individual strategies, or communicative strategies

a)- Individual strategies
b)- Communicative strategies

This question was set to get a solid judgement on what has been said above. It is to see the way our informant teacher develops her courses. She replied that in her teaching ,she aims to foster the communicative strategies of learners. This in turns is interesting, but how this would be practically done in class remains evasive.

Q40: If your answer is" b", would you please give some examples?

This question is complementary to Q39.Our teacher added no answer or comment, and this is what we have meant by "evasive answer above". It is left empty. The point which might show that she has not all cards at her hand to boost communication , mainly within reading sessions.

Conclusion

The fourth chapter has been devised for the field work. It serves to describe the procedure we follow to collect data from our informants, students and their teacher. It examines and interprets the obtained results. Therefore, on the basis of the analysis of students’ questionnaire, we may draw the following conclusions:

1- English language is very necessary for management students as the majority of our research participants (90.48 %) declared its significance, after holding positive attitudes towards the English language per se and its speaking communities.

2- Half of our informants (50 %) expressed overtly their absence in English credits. This imparts that something is really missing in teaching and learning settings. We might assume at this stage that students' absence is a symptom of boredom . This would endanger both processes. Hence, we think that teachers will have to revamp their procedures.

3- When they were requested to assess their performance ,an overwhelming majority of our students cleared that their level mostly revolves around average and slow (low). The results obtained reveal that serious measures and treatments should be implemented to remedy students' difficulties, so that to reduce the language low proficiency of our learners.
4- Another crucial conclusion we could draw from the interpretation of the results concerns the amount of time assigned to the English module. Nearly all respondents (48 equals 90, 48 %) declared that 1:30 minutes, per week, is insufficient. As a consequence, they proposed the rise of teaching hours combined with the improvement of teaching materials.

5- Concerning the prime specific purpose for requiring English, a great majority of our students' informants showed their awareness of their needs (most opted for one or more objectives), the thing that mirrors their consciousness of their difficulties. This could be regarded as quite interesting finding in itself.

6- Dealing with reading skill, it is placed among the top major skills. This conveys its importance to our investigated students, despite its difficulty. The fact that corroborates our first hypothesis.

Regarding reading situations, problems and strategies, most students presented negative answers. Again, among the entire 42 students, 27 students (64,29 %) do not read in English, 16 of them (38,10%) read texts in English with a great difficulty, and 32 students (76,19 %) have no idea about reading strategies. These results demonstrate that teaching / learning procedures at this department should be tailored to the needs of those specific groups of learners.

7- As for the last part of the questionnaire, the results reveal students’ views and suggestions on English course. They could be summarized below:

- A very vital factor that certainly affects students' success or failure is motivation. Half of our respondents (50 %) showed a lack of interest. We are therefore, strongly convinced that the conditions of English language learning are not-well established in this department. This result affirms the second hypothesis we set at the beginning of this research.

- 32 students (76,19 %) asserted that the present English contents do not correspond with their level of ability. A minority of them found it appropriate. In all, the results found here insinuate that students need topics, themes, activities that mount their interest on the one hand, and align with their abilities, on the other.

- What is surprising also is that 100% of students give neither hands nor words on selecting texts with their teacher. In this respect, one might say that cheering students to give a say in class would be of great importance in the whole process. They are old enough to be able to decide and take part in designing some of their English courses. Moreover, students could bring variety to classes since they have different interests, ideas, and contributions. This would be motivating for both teaching / learning.
To come to an end, we may consider that English is a necessary instrument for fourth
year management students through which they will have access to the wide bulk of
specialized knowledge. Being able to read in this global language is therefore to facilitate
the way towards their academic or occupational purposes. That is, they hold instrumental
motivation to learn English. So, they need help from their own, their teachers, their
department, and why not society.

Regarding the analysis of the teacher’s questionnaire, we could say that since our
informant was one colleague, we have tried to comment on, compare, contrast, and
correlate her responses with those of her students.

In view of the achievable results, both from the teacher and students’ questionnaires,
we think that efforts should be collective to reach success. The analysis of the two
questionnaires helps in coming up with some recommendations which will be discussed in
the next chapter.
CHAPTER FIVE : PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

Introduction ........................................................................................................................................... 154
1. Suggestions and Recommendations ............................................................................................... 154
1.1. Need for Experienced and Specialised Teachers in ESP ............................................................. 154
1.2. Teachers’ Collaboration .................................................................................................................. 155
1.3. Promoting Students ‘ Motivation ................................................................................................ 156
1.4. Creating a Healthy Classroom Environment ............................................................................... 157
1.5. Adaptability of English Course Contents to Students’ Abilities ................................................. 157
1.6. Teaching Reading Comprehension Strategies .............................................................................. 158
1.7. Increasing Time Amount .............................................................................................................. 158
1.8. Changing Students’ Negative Attitudes towards English Module ............................................ 158
2. Designing Sample Lessons ............................................................................................................. 159
2.1. Aim and Justification of the Method ........................................................................................... 159
LESSON ONE ....................................................................................................................................... 160
LESSON TWO .................................................................................................................................... 171
LESSON THREE ................................................................................................................................. 181
ADDITIONAL TEXTS .......................................................................................................................... 190
Conclusion ........................................................................................................................................... 193
Introduction

Teaching ESP is a demanding job. It centres mainly on purposes and needs of specific groups of learners who know what they will use English for. In the present research, and throughout the analysis of students and teacher's questionnaires, we may say that reading skill is amongst the first important concerns (needs) those ESP students opt for, and meanwhile one of the most difficult skills they suffer from. Teaching reading comprehension therefore is not an easy matter. It imparts the Herculean responsibility placed on the shoulders of the teacher who is anticipated to perform as many roles as possible.

Being a bit difficult task, the teaching of reading comprehension skill might be influenced by sundry factors. Some related to students, like de-motivation, resulted from lack of self confidence and interest, some related to the teacher such as lack of motivation, lack of teaching experience, and difficulty in class-management, while others could be connected to the administration as time allocation and material provision. These are the prime identified causes which hinder the good teaching / learning of reading comprehension in ESP classes. Since sources of the trouble are underlined, ways of treatment would be achievable.

The results obtained from both interviews and basically questionnaires, prove the problem. Consequently, in the light of this we would come up with the following suggestions which could help remedy and improve teaching / learning situations. However, we may say that the recommendations listed below are not to solve absolutely the difficulty, but to relieve some of its negative effects. The final part of this work contains, too, three reading lesson plans which detail the reading phases discussed before. With its practical sides, this chapter is the result of the field work investigation.

1. Suggestions and recommendations

   1.1 Need for experienced and specialized teachers in ESP

   As noted in the first chapter of this study, ESP teachers need to perform copious roles, in addition to their first task of being general English teachers. The point which illustrates that teaching ESP is a complex activity since most teachers find themselves alien in this territory. Thus, it is suggested that being trained to be specialized in specific field would reduce the real difficulties experienced by teachers. As we have seen in our analysis, our informant teacher seems novice in teaching English. She has been teaching English in
the department of management since three years. We are therefore convinced that it is necessary for our teachers to attend some training programmes if they are to do well in their career. However, this might not be facile. Our Algerian universities lack general English Language teachers, so what about those of ESP. They could be few, also.

Dealing with ESP teachers would open the window to discuss the need for specific teaching programme, either for reading comprehension or other fundamental language skills. Having this, would be of great utility as it helps teachers to assess their students’ needs, to decide about the contents, to ensure motivation, and hence to achieve objectives.

In brief, training or bringing specialised lecturers, and designing specific teaching programmes for ESP students would better the teaching / learning situations at this department, or at the whole university.

1.2. Teachers’ collaboration

As shown by our colleague, no kind of collaboration worthy of the name at this level. Neither inter nor intra coordination does exist. This confirms the lack of seriousness and interest even among the teaching staff. So, we think that teachers’ collaboration would seem a good remedy for many problems. It will open the doors for discussions and meetings which in turn would affect positively the teaching / learning of English language. Through some sorts of collaboration, teachers may tackle their students’ needs and difficulties, so they can think of remedies. They may compare and contrast their teaching methods, they can bring varieties, and improve their own performance abilities. These are some stepping stones to promote collaboration. Shortly, two heads are better than one. As for reading comprehension courses, teachers’ collaboration may aid in seeking what is up to date, i.e., in determining objectives, selecting specific texts, and exploiting novel techniques and strategies.

To conclude, empowering our teachers through team teaching would be the second afforded recommendation. In this department coordination should not be confined to English teachers only, but it should include lecturers and teachers of other subject matters. In this case, English is a resource module which needs to be mobilized to arrive at the pivotal module, management goal(s). Thus, collaboration has to be between teachers of this department, or others. It can be with teachers from some universities.
1.3. Promoting students' motivation

Having a swift glance again on students’ answers and those of their teacher, we strongly take a stand and assure that lack of motivation is a big problem which prevents both teaching and learning progress.

In spite of believing that real motivation comes from learners themselves, and so the teacher is not ultimately responsible for it, it is common that in teaching / learning settings, motivation is a critical force. Consequently, promoting students' motivation is a fundamental ingredient in learning English, in general, and reading comprehension credits, in particular. To achieve this motivation, the following tips and remarks could be considered and implemented:

- Teaching students not materials.
- Awakening their assets (their cognitive, meta-cognitive, and socio-affective abilities). Teachers can unleash the charisma hidden inside their students.
- Showing respect and interest. In teaching, what matters most is not how much teachers know, but how much they care. Students thrive in educational environment where they sense safe, supported, and cared for.
- Enhancing students’ self-confidence, self-reliance, and thus self-study by sharing them their views. Teachers would play a pivotal role in helping students achieve independency, or what is known autonomy.
- Bringing variety to English classes. Teachers need to use various methods and techniques, by providing for instance different lessons to develop different competencies.
- Adapting materials which relate students' needs, teachers' objectives, and contents. Teachers can motivate their students through setting crystal clear learning objectives expressed in terms of SOMARTA (specific, observable, measurable, attainable, relevant time bound, and adjustable). They can base their instructions on thematic approach.
- Raising their self-achievement by providing a positive corrective feedback.
- Livening up English language classes with communicative teaching and cooperative learning (teacher / students, or students /students interaction). Teachers need to pay their learners’ attention that they are not alone, but they are within a social group of classmates.
- Lifting up students' awareness of the importance of reading.
• Applying supportive instructional strategies in the classroom to create a dynamic environment for alive reading. Teachers should focus on a strategy-based instruction by training students using various strategies (in pre, while, and post-reading phases).
• Building a class library by using students' contributions (Their own selected texts)
• Inviting them to critical learning, i.e., enhancing their faculties through reading.
• Alloting a good amount of time for students to reinvest things.
• Entertaining them from time to time.

Motivation arena is so crucial and vast that it could not be covered in just few pages or tips. The complexity and the significance of this behavioural construct in learning / teaching settings have compelled a lot of researches to investigate it. Thus, the more efforts have been done to examine motivation or its types, the more variables could occur, due to individual differences (age, sex, environment, needs, desires...), i.e., it is quite challenging to measure and harness. In teaching, motivation is pivotal element and raw material. Teaching is not an exact science. It needs subtle processes with some preparation, and much art.

1.4. Creating a healthy classroom environment

Motivating learners via the previous measures could be regarded a very important stride to create rich healthy conditions for our ESP students. In addition to what has been suggested, there are other factors which need to be taken into account. This could include classroom organization that comprises students’ number, classroom size, black-boards, tables, light, air, and heat. These physical conditions inside language classes would help in optimizing both the teacher and the students’ interest and practice.

1.5. Adaptability of English course contents to students' abilities

As found in the analysis of students' questionnaire, the English course contents is not at the reach of all of the students. Therefore, in order to overcome such a problem, the teacher has to make needs analysis to check and identify their students’ performance (capacities and troubles). The so-called pre-test would help teachers to draw a profile about the language knowledge their students come with and to take steps and measures
accordingly. This pre-test can be done at the beginning of the year so that to assist in following students' progress, in reading, or in other language aspects.

1.6. Teaching reading comprehension strategies

Strategies are of two benefits. They are goal-oriented and problem-solving. Consequently, approaching the reading comprehension credits using "pre-reading, while-reading and post-reading activities (strategies) is the procedure which would help students to have a well training and practice in these tasks, and hence would lessen many of their reading difficulties. Researches have yielded that the good effective strategic reader is the one who has the flexibility to adjust their strategy according to their reading purpose or reading problem. Teaching strategies would not only help in developing reading skill, but the whole affair of learning.

1.7. Increasing time amount

One of the problematic issues our informants firmly discussed is the amount of time assigned to the English module. We therefore notice that increasing this period (1:30 minutes, per week) would help in achieving both teaching and learning objectives. What is also recommended is that the time table should be adequately established in relation to the availability of teaching rooms. The teacher and her students toughly criticized the mismatch between their time tables. This certainly put them in a mess. The absence rate among students is increased as a result of this hectic disorganized situation. Some students are present and considered absent due to the lack of order, basically in teaching rooms’ numeration. Thus, we think that the administration of this department should take this subject more seriously.

1.8. Changing students' negative attitudes towards English module

To learn is to change. Though the great majority of our student respondents asserted the importance of English language, they still have some certain negative concepts and behaviours towards English module. Nearly most of them are seeking for marks. That is, they are backed with the belief that even they are so weak in English, things would be Ok

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22 See the follow up section of designing reading lessons.
by the end of the year as all of them would easily succeed and pass. It is a call here for teachers of English to play it safe. Students should recognize that seriousness is their road to success; otherwise, the whole affair would be dull. In some students’ words "... the day of English exam, we feel we are in a funny trip...". This implies that they take it a rest. At this stage, though practically seems difficult, students need to rank English as equal as other modules, and stop thinking they are more scientific specialized learners who have nothing to do with English.

2. Designing sample lessons

This part sets and offers three texts along with their lesson plans.

2.1. Aim and justification of the method

This section aims at giving some practical implications in future reading instructions to help partly teachers and mostly students, especially those who are said to be poor and slow readers, enjoy teaching / learning this skill. In this part, we try to suggest reading comprehension strategies as a remedy and a way to better those students’ reading. We could say that strategy instruction is a must-have step that students need to go through in order to be productive learners who will be destined to be pillars of their community.

Undoubtedly, the ability to read academic, technical, business, or other specific texts is seen one of the crucial skills that those university ESP students need to acquire. The reading demands placed upon them is vital; however, the majority of them are unaware about this.

Reading comprehension is significant for them since it is not merely a set of words linked together; rather it is an integration of the learner’s background knowledge, his language, and his strategies as well. This latter demonstrates apparently that the learner is not a passive reader, but an active one who has the ability to think, to link, to perceive, to memorise, and to call his information whenever needed. He is the one who can plan, monitor, regulate, and evaluate his reading to solve his problems. Besides, he is the one who cares and shares other’s views. Simply put, good readers are said to be good users of strategies, to this respect this section presents a sum of
LESSON ONE

Text 23: Give gifts for employees that are better than “TGIF!”

By Larry Wilson

Want to give a great gift to your employees? What a *smart idea. Whether you are celebrating holidays, birthdays, “just because”, or it is a professional gift thanking them for a job well done *, a thoughtful gift is always welcomed. But *, giving it in the workplace isn’t always easy. It is important to give gifts of equal value to each employee to avoid hurt feelings (unless you are rewarding individual performance – such as commission sales). It is a common thought that the gifts themselves need to be the same but this is not necessarily true. The most critical thing is that they have the same approximate value and that your employees have the perception that the ideas have the same *status. Understand that a thoughtful gift can go a long way to encouraging employee morale and boosting *their top performance.

Gift cards are an ideal to give in the workplace. The best thing about giving employees gift cards is *that this gives them the freedom to choose their actual gift. It also takes off some of the pressure of deciding what the actual, specific gift for each person should be. The best choices for cards should be stores that are easy for employees to get, to have budget friendly prices (so employees of all levels can shop there with confidence), and a wide variety of merchandise to choose from. Our best tip: think of some of the most popular gift ideas today and you’ll realize that many people love electronics. Giving an electronics store gift card is a slam dunk winner.

A celebratory lunch, dinner or other event is another excellent option as a gift. While at first you may wonder what differentiates this as a gift from a work event *, the big difference is that it needs to be a social event and something that is a high premium. Tickets to a baseball game and a picnic afterward could be a fun event for employees to bring their families to in the summertime. One of the top things about giving this gift idea to your employees is it means everyone automatically receives an item of the same value and everyone perceives it as the same value. Best of all, your employees get to connect with each other on a friendly level and this can help them develop stronger personal

23Text one available at : www.selfgrowth.com/.../give-gifts-for-employees-that -are-better-than-tgif!
*Some minor changes are added to this text, such as synonyms, pronouns, and punctuation.
relationships with each other.

Another ideal choice for the employee’s gift is something that relates to your industry. If you are an organic foods business, giving employees gift certificates to enjoy dinner at an organic food restaurant would be an ideal choice. They would have a scrumptious dinner out with their families and also get to see and learn more about organic foods and how they are presented and used in restaurants as they eat their lunch or dinner. This employee gift idea is a gentle teaching experience which must be handled properly. This needs to be a real treat and something fun that people would enjoy – otherwise it is more of a work duty than a gift.
Lesson plan one: Giving gifts for employees that are better than “TGIF!”

Level: Pre-advanced / advanced ESP students

Timing: 1:30 to 3 hours

General objective: Through this text, a teacher wants to introduce the theme of business ethics, taking giving gifts as an example. This latter in its own is a significant way to boost a boss / worker communication. This text is chosen because the target goal for the whole process of teaching / learning is to prepare students for their future life (high studies or careers). Consequently, this text is designed to create an atmosphere of trust in discussing like this culturally sensitive topics.

Target language points: The teacher has a variety of language points to deal with in this text. He / she needs to be selective so that the type of the activity corresponds with the underlined objectives:

- Grammar: Present simple passive
- Vocabulary: Gap filling

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phases / Steps</th>
<th>Strategies</th>
<th>Objectives</th>
<th>Aids</th>
<th>Procedures</th>
<th>Observations</th>
<th>Assessment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-reading</td>
<td>Brain-storming</td>
<td>To activate their prior knowledge.</td>
<td>BB</td>
<td>Through mind-map, the teacher drives his / her students to the theme to be discussed. He/she can tell his / her class that they will read through</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Warm up activity</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

24 Time allocation: It depends on teacher’s objectives, students’ level, needs, and abilities.

25 Teachers may opt for other language points, in this text like: Grammar: Comparison, conditional, Vocabulary: Derivation (affixes), prepositions.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Semantic map</th>
<th>To introduce the subject</th>
<th>Handouts (Pictures, Texts)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Class-discussion</strong></td>
<td>a description of a real-life situation where a boss / a worker can keep their relations solid and alive following some tips.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>T : Imagine you are a boss and you would like to improve and boost your relationship with your employees.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Q: What can you do? What good things would you like to bring to keep your communication with your workers positive and alive?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sts ‘answers</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>T: draws on the BB (a semantic map, see page 166), through interaction with his/her students.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>T: Well, behaviours like the given ones: inviting, helping, thanking, offering…</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Q: Are they good or bad? Do you consider them morally accepted or unaccepted?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sts’ answers</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>T: What do we call them? Are they ethical or unethical attitudes?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Together they will arrive at the point of ethics that is moral values conducted and needed in any job.

In each of the above cases (see attached semantic map on page 166), the teacher invites his/her students to go further, so that they can draw a map; give more classifications even for those sub-titles (looks like tree branches).

T: If we take for example offering them as a notion, what propositions can you we provide under it?

Sts’ answers.

So: Offering them: gifts, money…

If we see gifts what may this notion include?

Sts: Gifts: Flowers, cards, travelling visas, sports / cinema’ tickets, small world maps, agendas, calendars, pens, watches, certificates, ties, sweets, perfumes, keyrings…

T: Again if we take the word cards, What comes to your minds? For what occasions are they given?

Sts: Cards: Thanks, invitations,
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>While-reading</th>
<th>Presentation activity</th>
<th>Skimming</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Prediction</strong></td>
<td>To lead them to guess / anticipate the subject</td>
<td>Pictures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Skimming</strong></td>
<td>To drive them to read the text and to do the activities</td>
<td>To call them to</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Apologies**
And further if we have *invitations*, there will be ..... yes... for what?
Sts: *Invitations*: Tea / coffee, lunch / dinner, passing holidays, watching football matches…

After this class discussion, the teacher distributes the first handouts which contain some pictures related to *gift giving* so that to help them predict the text’s content.

Teacher sets students to observe well those pictures then asks:

Q : What do they represent ? What is the relation exists between them and today’s lesson ?

Sts’s answer may vary., or
They can easily arrive at : gifts

Teacher then distributes the second handouts which comprise the text.

*First reading* :

1) Skim quickly through the text and give its main idea. Write it down in no more than one sentence. Use your own
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Practice activity</th>
<th>Vocabulary development.</th>
<th>Recognising the writer’s purpose</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>give the main idea.</td>
<td>To check their ability in</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>detecting hidden facts (the</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>writer’s intentions and</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>attitudes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>To add to their stock of knowledge.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>To help them better select and</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>fill in with some vocabulary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>items, taken from the text.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>words.</td>
<td>Second reading</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2)-Read the text and complete these statements:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>a-Giving ........to your.......is a great idea.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>b-Affording gifts to workers in a ........is a bit difficult matter.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>c-Gifts should be of ........</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>d-A thoughtful gift can raise your employee’s ........ and ........</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>e-Inviting your employees with their families to pass funny holidays can help them build ........</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3)- According to you, what is the message sent to us by the writer ? Do you appreciate it?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sts : Answers</td>
<td>Teacher jots down the sentence “a job well done” then asks :</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>a- What form is it?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>b- How is it structured?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Post-reading Activity | Grammar | To revise, or to introduce the present simple passive.  
To test their general grounds: present tense = description.  
Have Sts to re-use some items in a longer piece.  
To put them to react to a real-life situation.  
c- In which tense is it?  
4)- Find in the text similar sentences to this one, and change them into the active form.  
5) Which tense is the most dominant in this text? Why?  
6)- Based on what you have read in this text, work with your partner to write a dialogue on the following :  
a- What ethical attitudes and behaviours would you like to maintain with your future employees, for example?  
b- If you wish one day to offer them gifts, what type do you prefer?  
- Use some words from the former activities or add your own.  
7)- As a boss, you ask your workers to stay late at the office, however some of |
Raising debates. (Ethical dilemma)

To find a solution to a problem

To see their opinions.

them cannot stay late. You persist in saying that there is a bit more work for them to do.

-Write a paragraph to show how to respond to this situation.

Exchange later your draft with your classmate so that to share more ideas.

8) Describe any ethical trouble you face at university, home, or street? How did you get rid of it?
   Write a paragraph to tell us about it

9) Do you agree with the statement: “Business is business”?
   Justify your answer in a piece of writing.

10)- Do you believe that business in Algeria complies with health, safety, and environment regulations?
    Why or why not?

-Write a paragraph to express your viewpoint.

These last two activities (Nr: 9-10) may be done orally, if needed (linkage and integration of skills)
Semantic map  (Personal example)

Boosting relations with employees

Advice

Doing a favour

Money

Verbal invitations

Phone calls

Visiting them

Boosting relations with employees

Words

Forgiving them

Helping them

Verbal thanks

Inviting them

Gestures

Respecting them

Thanking them

Apologising from them

Cards

Offering them

Thanks

Writing messages / letters

Verbal invitations

Money

Invitations

Cheques

Direct apology

Cards

Gifts

Coins

Tea / dinner

Money

Give cards

Birthday

Flowers

Watches

Holidays

Flowers

Watches
Cards used in pre-reading phase\textsuperscript{26}

\textsuperscript{26}Available at: www.americanexpress.com/gift/giftcardslanding.shtml
LESSON TWO

Text two\(^{27}\): 7 essential business negotiation tactics

Want to negotiate more effectively in professional and personal settings? Talk less and listen more. By Constantine von Hoffman

Having trouble winning over that one key person at work? Expert negotiators at the FBI and elsewhere have found active listening to be key in any negotiation. Here are seven keys to active listening.

1. Showing Your Interest: Prove you're listening by using body language or brief verbal replies that show interest and concern. Simple phrases such as "yes," "OK" or "I see" effectively show you are paying attention. This encourages the other person to continue talking and relinquish more control of the situation to the negotiator.

2. Paraphrasing: Tell the other person what you heard them say, either quoting them or summarizing what they said.

3. Emotion Labelling: This means attaching a tentative label to the feelings expressed or implied by other person's words and actions. This shows you are paying attention to the emotional aspects of what other person is conveying. When used effectively, emotion labelling is one of the most powerful skills available to negotiators because it helps identify the issues and feelings driving the other person's behaviour.

4. Mirroring: Repeating the last words or main idea of other person's message. This indicates interest and understanding. For example, a subject may say, "I'm sick and tired of being pushed around," to which a negotiator can respond, "Feel pushed, huh?" Mirroring can be especially helpful in the early stages of a crisis, as negotiators attempt to establish a non-confrontational presence, gain initial intelligence and build rapport.

5. Open-Ended Questions: Use open-ended questions instead of "why" questions, which could imply interrogation. If you do most of the talking, you decrease the opportunities to learn about other person..

\(^{27}\) Text found in: www.csonline.com > Security Leadership
Effective open-ended questions include, "Can you tell me more about that?" "I didn't understand what you just said; could you help me better understand by explaining that further?" and, "Could you tell me more about what happened to you today?"

6."I" Messages: Negotiators have to avoid being provoking when they express how they feel about certain things the other person says or does. Using "I" statements lets you ostensibly shed the negotiator role and react to the subject as just another person.

For instance, you might say, "We've been talking for several hours, and I feel frustrated that we haven't been able to come to an agreement." This is also an effective tactic if the other person verbally attacks, because it lets you respond with, "I feel frustrated when you scream at me, because I'm trying to help you."

Remember: Never get pulled into an argument or trade personal attacks with a subject.

7.Effective Pauses: Any good interviewer knows the power of the long, awkward silence. People tend to speak to fill spaces in a conversation. Therefore, you should, on occasion, consciously create a space or void that will encourage the other person to speak and, in the process, provide additional information.
Lesson plan two: 7 essential negotiation tactics

Want to negotiate more effectively in professional and personal settings? Talk less and listen more.

Level: Pre-advanced / advanced ESP students

Timing: 1:30 to 3 hours

Description / General objective: This text is presented primarily to tackle one of the basic life skills which we all need in order to smooth the talking channel between us and others. By the end of the lecture, students will be able to learn and acquire some vital communicative etiquettes that will help them deal with any confrontation they can encounter. Mastering some of those tactics clears up the way for anyone who wants to be an effective successful negotiator.

Target language points:

- Vocabulary: Crossing the odd word, word formation (prefixes, suffixes), prepositions, link words (cause / effect).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phases / Steps</th>
<th>Strategies</th>
<th>Objectives</th>
<th>Aids</th>
<th>Procedures</th>
<th>Observations</th>
<th>Assessment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-reading warm up</td>
<td>Class-discussion</td>
<td>To refresh their minds and pave them the way</td>
<td>BB Handouts</td>
<td>T: Today we are going to read about one of the crucial topics in nowadays’ world. It is significant because all of us elsewhere need to know about it; at home (parents / children, wives / husbands…), at school or university (students / teachers, teachers)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>for what is coming.</td>
<td>(Pictures, Texts)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

28 Time allocation: It depends on teacher’s objectives, students’ level, needs and abilities.
29 In this text, the teacher can deal with some points as: Grammar: Comparison, gerund, present simple, or interrogative sentences.
Questioning

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 1)       | Before you read, answer these questions with your partner.  
   a) Does effective communication play a major role in business? Yes / No  
   b) Do you need some skills to better communicate with your partners or clients? Yes / No  
   - If “yes”, what are they?  
   - If “no”, justify why?  
| 2)       | Again, discuss these statements with your partner. Put true (T), or false (F) |

To set them to interact together to answer some questions.
To lead them to predict the subject.
/administrators...), at street (young / old, friends...), at work (employers / employees, workers / workers...).

For e.g. at business the relation between managers / partners, managers / clients...)

In all these categories one sharing aspect is recommended.
Well, let’s first do the following activities to get a wide view about it.

Teacher distributes the first handouts, which contain questions / statements, to be answered and discussed.
Presentation activity | Prediction | To lead them to guess / anticipate the subject. | Pictures |
--- | --- | --- | --- |

a- Communication is an art which requires understanding some principles.
b- Face to face (verbal) communication is a traditional way that should be reduced.
c- A good speaker is first of all a good skilful listener.
d- Nowadays, most people use different communicative channels like phones, e-mails, or faxes.
e- A successful negotiator does not accept or welcome feedbacks or critiques from their audience (listeners).
f- To convey your message properly, you should be clear, concise and precise.
g- To negotiate more effectively, you need to show your interest, sincerity, and sympathy.

After having students discussed those points, the teacher distributes some pictures so that to facilitate it for them to guess the topic to be treated. This is regarded as a follow up activity to the above one (questioning) mainly for
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Practice activity</th>
<th>Vocabulary building</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>While-reading</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- To present the topic and read about it.
- To recognise word’s connotations
- To differentiate similar words
- To cross the intruder with justification.

**BB**

- those who will not easily arrive at the text’ theme.
- Together, they analyse those attached pictures.
- Through his /her interaction, the teacher drives them to:
  3)- Give a title to this text ,before they are engaged in reading.
- Teacher writes it on the BB.
- He / she then distributes the third handouts (the text) and asks them to read it .
- 4)- Find / cross the odd word out in each list, then say why it is different .Use dictionaries if necessary.
  - a-To negotiate- to do a deal – to hold talks- to interview
  - b-A listener – a hearer – a speaker – a recipient.
  - c-A skill- a question – a criticism – a disagreement .
  - d-Personal- professional- scandal- essential.
To help them use dependent prepositions (with verbs / and or adjectives )

To check their knowledge on word's formation.

5) In the text, there are words like:
   a. Learn about, react to, respond with
   b. Find other examples (similar structures) in the text
   c. Fill in the following sentence with:
      about – up – to – with – at – into.

1. She is very good …… negotiating
2. Don’t get angry …… your audience
3. How do you feel …… your strategies to conduct effective meetings?
4. Generally, business discussions end with satisfaction.
5. Kind of misunderstanding occurs if a
6. How do we call these underlined words?

7) “When used effectively, emotion labelling is one of the most powerful skills available to negotiators because….”
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Post-reading</th>
<th>Appreciating</th>
<th>Summarising</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Recognising discourse features and their functions</td>
<td>To see their understanding of the text’s organisation</td>
<td>To assess their comprehension and to know their reactions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>To evaluate their summarising skills, to see how</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**it helps identify the issues and feelings driving the other person’s behaviour.”**

a- How many parts (simple sentences) does this sentence contain?

b- What are they?

c- How are they joined together?

d- What relation does it exist then between them?

e- Replace the word “because” by an alternative.

8)- a- Do you think this topic is crucial? Why?

- b- Do you like it?

9)- Summarise the text in your own sentences

10)- a- If you feel it, say it

b- In business, communication is everything.

c- Effective negotiation requires skills and finesse.

In pairs or in groups discuss either the
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>they condense a text and how they put well their ideas in writing.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>To re-invest what they have seen before, in writing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To express themselves overtly: to be able to agree or disagree with some one’s view.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>three statements or choose one of them. Get helped by the text or the activities you have Done earlier.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11)- Debate individually or in pairs the following opinion:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Successful people talk less and listen more.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Take one side (for, or against) this. Feel free to provide your own ideas and reactions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It can be speaking / or writing activity (Integrating skills)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Pictures used in pre-reading phase

“Strategy without tactics is the slowest route to victory. Tactics without Strategy is the noise before defeat.”
Sun Tzu

30 Pictures found in : www.google.com
Customer feedback form is an essential mode for a business. It not only helps to know your clients' feedback but also helps you to grow in business. The easiest way to know where your business is leading to is through the customer feedback form. The success of any business is measured by its goodwill in the market and amongst its customers. So, how would you come to know what your clients think about you? Simple, through a customer feedback form. The client feedback form is very easy to get and launch it on the internet. What you need to do is, contact a company who is professional in creating it, and provide a list what you want to put in client’s feedback form.

Never let your clients go unsatisfied, just because you have no means to communicate with them. Mostly, many clients prefer to move out without complaining, as they have no one to listen to them. So, never let this happen to your business; instead be an active listener, and excel in business. Internet is the easiest way to reach the mass, use it properly to satisfy your client, hear them, and be heard. Hence, make yourself easily accessible to the clients and launch feedback form online. Feedback form template are designed with the help of HTML coding, so that it becomes easy to operate them on line. The templates are also easy to edit later once they are designed. There are many companies, which provide customized form using templates, and you do not require knowledge about HTML coding for using them. To make your feedback form more creative you can also add videos clips, images, check box, and drop down menus.

So, before launching a feedback form, the most important thing that comes in mind is how do you want your feedback form to look? A client has nothing to do with how a feedback form looks, but would rather consider how easily he/she can answer. Select feedback form templates that are easy to use. Make them easy, specific, interesting, and uncomplicated for the clients in order to extract maximum benefits. Do not put questions that are unnecessary, lengthy, and confusing.

31 Text three available at: www.selfgrowth.com/articles/importance-of-customer-feedback-form
To create feedback form, it is not necessary to have a website. You can straight away start a feedback form on the server. There is no special programming needed to create a feedback form online. There are companies that provide options to create an online form with the assistance of their form building software. You just need to promote the form, and that you can do with the help of invoices or bills. Once your form is built and launched online, you will be notified by emails with the feedback of the clients.
Text three: Importance of customer feedback form

**General objective:** This text is suggested basically to draw students’ attention to another important fact in successful communication with others, mainly in business. It can help them develop a positive attitude towards expressing themselves. That is, being assertive in asking for or giving feedbacks. This latter mirrors other’s views which help us move forward. By the end of this text, students will learn to be open-minded, to welcome positive critiques from others, and to act accordingly in order to fulfil their life-goals. Students will be able to grasp that feedbacks are not signs of failure, contrary, they are key codes and corner-stones to success.

**Target language points**
- **Grammar:** Comparison
- **Vocabulary:** Derivation (prefixes, suffixes), adjectives,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phases / Steps</th>
<th>Strategies</th>
<th>Objectives</th>
<th>Aids</th>
<th>Procedures</th>
<th>Observations</th>
<th>Assessment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-reading</td>
<td>Skimming the title and the first paragraph only</td>
<td>To read and survey quickly so that to anticipate the topic.</td>
<td>Handouts (Texts)</td>
<td>T: Today’s text is about a vital means people can use to express their opinion about products freely. T gives the text, then asks them : 1)- Skim swiftly through the title and the first</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Warm up activity</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---
32 For this third text, the teacher can select other points as: **Grammar:** Present simple, passive sentences, imperative sentences, articles, interrogative sentences, or pronouns. **Vocabulary:** Prepositions
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Presentation activity</th>
<th>Anticipating the subject</th>
<th>Class discussion and interaction</th>
<th>Paragraph and pick out 6 key words, then guess the text’s subject.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Sts’s answer may be: customer, feedbacks, essential, business, clients, Internet.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>T: From this title and the core vocabulary you have taken from the first paragraph</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2) This text is about….yes….what?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Sts answer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Teacher:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3) What is then a customer feedback form?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Via discussion and interaction, they (teacher and students) can analyse it.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>This question (nr :2) is in a form of statement, rather than a direct question of: What is this text about?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>a- A customer**(33)**: (n): <em>is someone who buys goods or services from a shop/store or business, or who uses a bank.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>b- Feedback: (n): <em>advice, criticism or information about how good or useful something or somebody’s work is.</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

While (during)-reading

Scanning

To scan and read in details

Inferring

To read between the lines (in question "c", comparing)

c-Form. (n / v). Here it is (n): an official document containing questions and spaces for answers.

T: From these above definitions, what can we say about a customer feedback form as a whole?

A customer feedback form may be an advice, a criticism or information given by a customer (a buyer) about how good/bad, and how useful/useless your business, company, or product is. It is given in a form of questions that need to be answered. It is simply a written questionnaire.

4)-Do you think that this feedback is useful only in business?

Sts’ answer

After, the teacher sets students to read the proposed text, he/she drives them to:

5)- Scan the text and answer the following:

a-Why is a customer feedback form important?

b- How can you make one on-line?

c- Compare between verbal direct feedbacks and this one (the one given in this text).
**Vocabulary work**

To empower their vocabulary ground

**Illustrations**

6) Match word in column “A” with their opposites in column “B”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1-launch</td>
<td>a- mature</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-success</td>
<td>b-failure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-professional</td>
<td>c-answers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-questions</td>
<td>e-end up</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7) From the list below, select the adjectives which best suit the following pictures (illustrations). Link each illustration with its corresponding adjective.

- More adjectives can be used to describe an illustration (one picture)

**List of adjectives:**
- satisfied
- unsatisfied
- confused
- angry
- astonished
- curious
- blameful
- motivated

**Illustrations:**

- .........
- .........
- .........
- .........
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Post (after)-reading</th>
<th>Derivation</th>
<th>To derive words</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Judging the text’s appropriateness</td>
<td>To check out their ability to evaluate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Dialogue writing</td>
<td>To learn more about, and to better use parts of speech (function words)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

8) Complete this table

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Noun</th>
<th>Adjective</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-.................</td>
<td>importance</td>
<td>-.........</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-to succeed</td>
<td>-.........</td>
<td>-.........</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-.................</td>
<td>-.........</td>
<td>satisfied</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-to communicate</td>
<td>-.........</td>
<td>-.........</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-.................</td>
<td>customer</td>
<td>-.........</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-to complain</td>
<td>-.........</td>
<td>-.........</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

9) How do you find the writer’s selection of this topic? Do you think it is appropriate (Customer feedback form) to solve some problems in today’s world?

10) With your partner, use the words below to write a conversation to express your opinion about the Algerian products, nowadays, in terms of quality, price, and people’s need.


b-Nouns: Clients - sellers - businessmen -
Problem-solving

To link what they have learnt in class with the outside world.

To get familiar with the form of questionnaires.

**To link what they have learnt in class with the outside world.**

**To get familiar with the form of questionnaires.**

| Problem-solving | To link what they have learnt in class with the outside world. | To get familiar with the form of questionnaires. | companies- factories- markets - shops – goods- safety- acceptance .  
c- **Adjectives** : Easy - difficult - interesting - expensive -cheap - safe -high - low -satisfied - blameful .  
11)- Tell your class about a real -life situation happened to you in a market or a shop where you moved out unsatisfied.  
In a short paragraph , describe the circumstances of that situation and your reactions to it.  
12)- Fill in this questionnaire ( a form )  
1- Do you like to give and be given a feedback ?  
   Yes □  No □  
2- Do you like to hear both your client’s praise and criticism ?  
   Yes □  No □  
3-Do you think your customer opinion is essential for your business ? Say why ? |
To help them air out their personal views and responses about something.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes □</th>
<th>No □</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Causes……………………………………</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4- Is the internet the only way to give your feedback? Give two more examples, if possible.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes □</th>
<th>No □</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Examples……………………………………</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

13) In our life, there are different ways to express ourselves. Some people prefer oral ways like face-to-face contact, verbal replies or phone calls. Others want to be more silent. They opt for written methods such as ordinary letters, e-mails, or short messages (sms). However, another group of people keep with no responses. Always, they have nothing to say or comment, i.e., introverts.

You, which group do you join? What do you prefer?

- Write a paragraph on how you usually express your own ideas, beliefs, and reactions towards something you like, or don’t like.
ADDITIONAL TEXTS

Text four: Marketing vs. Advertising: What's the Difference?
By Laura Lake

You will often find that many people confuse marketing with advertising or vice versa. While both components are important they are very different. Knowing the difference and doing your market research can put your company on the path to substantial growth.

Let's start off by reviewing the formal definitions of each and then I'll go into the explanation of how marketing and advertising differ from one another:

Advertising: The paid, public, non-personal announcement of a persuasive message by an identified sponsor; the non-personal presentation or promotion by a firm of its products to its existing and potential customers.

Marketing: The systematic planning, implementation and control of a mix of business activities intended to bring together buyers and sellers for the mutually advantageous exchange or transfer of products.

After reading both of the definitions it is easy to understand how the difference can be confusing to the point that people think of them as one-in-the-same, so let’s break it down a bit.

Advertising is a single component of the marketing process. It's the part that involves getting the word out concerning your business, product, or the services you are offering. It involves the process of developing strategies such as ad placement, frequency, etc. Advertising includes the placement of an ad in such mediums as newspapers, direct mail, billboards, television, radio, and of course the Internet. Advertising is the largest expense of most marketing plans, with public relations following in a close second and market research not falling far behind.

The best way to distinguish between advertising and marketing is to think of marketing as a pie, inside that pie you have slices of advertising, market research, media planning,

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34 Text four found at: www.marketing.about.com/.../marketing-vs-advertising-what's-the-.../marketing.about.com/cs/advertising/amarketvsad.htm
public relations, product pricing, distribution, customer support, sales strategy, and community involvement. Advertising only equals one piece of the pie in the strategy. All of these elements must not only work independently but they also must work together towards the bigger goal. Marketing is a process that takes time and can involve hours of research for a marketing plan to be effective. Think of marketing as everything that an organization does to facilitate an exchange between company and consumer.

Text five\textsuperscript{35} : 5 Dead ends in Your Business you shouldn’t be Focusing On

By Andrew C McCombe

Running your own business is not something that is all that difficult to do, as long as you are up to the task of meeting challenges head on, and not having unnecessary complications. A lot of the time, small business owners have the tendency to spend all of their time on the things that may seem important to them, but are not nearly as important as other areas which should have more intense focus. Here are five things that many entrepreneurs spend too much time focusing their efforts on:

\textbf{Getting Started:} Many people make starting a new business a whole lot more complicated than it has to be. There are many things that do need to be done, but not everything must be done right away. For example, if you need staff, get your business started, then focus on hiring later. It is the same with marketing. This is important, but it can wait. The first and most important thing to do when starting a new business is to focus on generating leads and getting customers, or there will be no business.

\textbf{Cutting Costs:} While this is extremely important for any business, be it new or one that is already well established, if you have created a good business plan with an emphasis on marketing, you should have no problem keeping expenses to a minimum. This is because you will already have all of your expenses planned out, and there should be no need for extras if you have done everything right.

\textbf{Operations:} Operations are obviously extremely important, and of course you want to make sure that everything is running smoothly. Put an appropriate amount of focus into this, but not so much that you are ignoring other things that are equally important.

\textsuperscript{35} Text five available at: www.desktoprevealer.net/.../5-Dead-Ends-in-Your-Business-you-...
Marketing is something you really should be focusing more on, and it should have equal time with operations. Generate leads while you are streamlining your business, and you have a recipe for success.

**Improving Products and Services:** The biggest corporations in the world do not wait to introduce their latest products to the world just because they are not perfect. What they do is introduce the products or services, then introduce the improvements later on. Why wait to make profits when you could be selling your product or service now? If there are a few bugs, they can be worked out along the way. Never expect perfection in the beginning, because it is just not going to happen, and you will end up just wasting a lot of time and money.

**Working Too Many Hours:** One of the biggest misconceptions many entrepreneurs are under is that you have to spend every waking hour working on your business. Yes, you need to spend a lot of time to get your business off the ground, but there is only so much a person can do, and if you stretch yourself too far, you are going to end up with a lot of problems, including in your personal life, and with your health. You need to find a balance between work and your everyday life, and when you do, you will find that you are much more productive, but don't have a lot of the stress that other entrepreneurs have.
Conclusion

Second language paradigm relies strongly on practice element. Throughout this chapter, we have attempted to propose some measures, recommendations, and sample lessons that may serve to relieve some of the difficulties encountered in ESP teaching/learning settings. By the end of the three model lessons, we could say that the rationale in all is to help students improve their reading comprehension skill. Using their cognitive, meta-cognitive, and socio-affective strategies could drive them to be effective proficient readers.

Basically, providing strategies to activate students’ schemata like brain-storming, semantic map, and class discussion supported with some visual aids (in before-reading phase), could empower their feeling of competence. Incorporating some vocabulary activities to develop their communicative skills, like using given items to develop a short piece of writing, or cheering learners to choose among topics or tasks (in during-reading phase), would uplift their self-esteem, and autonomy, at the expense of self-sabotage. Proposing others to check their reactions as raising debates, appreciating, evaluating, and judging (in after-reading phase) would enhance their social sense as being related to a group. These types of tasks, in the three phases of reading, are to boost the notional functional approach of language learning. The ultimate goal behind the choice of this methodology, i.e., reading strategies (activities), is to empower their proficiency abilities, to take them by hand, and so to walk them through fruitful productive learning.

We would hope that those lessons with the list of propositions and implications, given first, would be of benefit and help for students as well as teachers.
GENERAL CONCLUSION

Throughout this humble research, we have attempted to identify fourth year management students’ needs and difficulties in English, generally, as they are ESP learners, and in reading comprehension specifically. Our ultimate aim is to diagnose and determine some of the main causes or conditions behind the low reading proficiency of our informants, as they are said to be slow in this basic life skill. Shortly, we have tried to seek the source of their problems.

In the initial section of this study, i.e., in the general introduction, we have put forward the hypothesis that reading is amongst the most vital skills ESP students need to develop so that to be able to use English effectively, and to get access to the wide bulk of their specific knowledge. The results obtained from both data collection tools; interviews and questionnaires, have confirmed this fact where students denoted overtly that reading is the second major skill they opt for.

Regarding the second hypothesis, we have assumed that our students need more motivation as well as serious practice in reading strategies. The results have revealed that most of our ESP learners are less motivated in English. They also lack too much training in reading strategies as they have been no longer exposed to some reading credits, in which their teacher could help and teach them how to approach a text with some reading tasks, properly. Hence, we have found that the psychological problems such as lack of self-confidence and lack of interest hinder them from furthering their reading abilities. We have also confirmed, as asserted apparently by our companion teacher in her responses, that she has no clear idea about teaching the reading skill. This, as one can think, is a critical obstacle which causes this low reading proficiency of our participants. Our colleague teacher prefers always teaching grammatical points and vocabulary items to her ESP classes. This would drive students to be slow and less effective readers since they were exposed to the same unique manner of teaching, all the time.

To this respect, we have recommended that teachers need special trainings, students should be motivated, interested, and more exercised and disciplined in the use of a set of reading strategies which would appear to help them resolving some of their comprehension failure and facilitating their act of reading.
Another final remark could be noted in the teacher and students' view on the time allowance. Both students and their teacher proposed increasing the amount of 1.30 (minutes per week) afforded to English sessions.

Lastly, we hope that our attempt; mainly recommendations and lesson plans, would help in enhancing the reading comprehension skill of our ESP learners.

Our study remains open to further developments in the scope of reading comprehension strategies to include for instance, an investigation or an experiment on the effect of strategic reading on learners’ proficiency.
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**Web-sites**

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www.google.com

www.selfgrowth.com

Appendices

Appendix A: Teacher's interview ................................................................. 206
Appendix B: Students' interview ............................................................... 207
Appendix C: Students’ questionnaire ....................................................... 208
Appendix D: Teacher’s questionnaire ....................................................... 214
Appendix A: Teacher's interview

Questions:

1- Do you feel motivated and dedicated in your job?
   - Yes    - No
   Reason ..............................................................................................................

2- How long have you been teaching at this department?

3- Which of the following language components / skills do you usually teach?
   - Vocabulary - Listening - Reading
   - Grammar    - Speaking - Writing
   Reason ..............................................................................................................

4- Do you meet problems in teaching English to your ESP students?
   - Yes    - No
   Reason ..............................................................................................................

5- Do you meet problems in teaching reading comprehension to your ESP students?
   - Yes    - No
   Reason ..............................................................................................................

6- Do you have any idea about reading comprehension strategies?
   - Yes    - No
Appendix B : Students' interview

Questions:

1- Do you feel motivated in English credits?
   - Yes - No
   Reason…………………………………………………………………………………………

2-Do you think English is important for you?
   - Yes - No
   Reason…………………………………………………………………………………………

3-Do you face problems in learning English?
   - Yes - No
   Reason / Example…………………………………………………………………………

4-Do you face problems in reading in English?
   - Yes - No
   Reason / Example…………………………………………………………………………

5-Do you have any idea about reading comprehension strategies?
   - Yes - No

6-Do you think that grammar and vocabulary are more important than any other thing when you learn English?
   - Yes - No
   Reason…………………………………………………………………………………………

7-Do you have some personal contacts and discussions with your teacher about your courses?
   - Yes - No
   Reason / Example…………………………………………………………………………
Appendix C : Students’ questionnaire

Dear students ,

The following questionnaire is a part of a research we are carrying out on the teaching /learning of reading comprehension at the department of management, M’sila University. We would highly appreciate if you could answer it. These questions are devised to collect data about your abilities and problems in reading English materials.

This questionnaire is anonymous. The information given will be treated confidentially. Your responses will help us to understand the learning / teaching conditions of the reading skill as well as to resolve some of the problems and the obstacles you face.

Please, tick (√) in the appropriate box, and provide your own answer where needed.

We thank you very much in anticipation

Miss.Oumessaad BERKANI
Department of Language and English Literature
Ferhat Abbas University- Sétif
Section one: Learners’ needs in Learning English

1- Do you like studying English?
   Yes ☐ No ☐

2- How do you feel toward English-speaking people?
   a) Like them ☐
   b) Uninterested in them ☐
   c) Dislike them ☐

3- Do you think that learning English is important for management graduate students?
   Yes ☐ No ☐

4- Do you attend lectures in English?
   Yes ☐ No ☐

5- How do you rate your performance in English Learning Skills? Please tick (√)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Skills</th>
<th>Very good</th>
<th>good</th>
<th>average</th>
<th>low</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Listening</td>
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<tr>
<td>Speaking</td>
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<td>Reading</td>
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<tr>
<td>Writing</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6- Do you think that the time assigned (01:30 minutes, per week) to the English credit is sufficient?
   Yes ☐ No ☐

7- If your answer is “no”, what could you suggest?

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

8- For what specific purpose do you study English as an ESP course? (You may tick more than one)
   a) To understand lectures in English or any professional conversations ☐
   b) To use it in reading technical materials and catalogues ☐
   c) To use it in consulting reading materials related to your field of study ☐
   d) For sitting for exams and formal writings ☐
   e) For furthering higher studies and travelling abroad ☐

9- How important are the following language skills / components for you? Arrange them in their order of importance.
   a) Listening ☐
   b) Speaking ☐
   c) Reading ☐
   d) Writing ☐
   e) Grammar ☐
   f) Vocabulary ☐
Section two: Reading Comprehension Skill

10- Do you read in English?

Yes [ ] No [ ]

11- If your answer is “yes”, what do you usually read?

a) - Basic academic texts [ ]

b) - Journals and specific articles [ ]

c) - Magazines, dissertations, and theses [ ]

d) - Other: [ ] (Please specify) …………………………………………………………

12- How often do you read in English?

a) - Always [ ]

b) - Sometimes [ ]

c) - Rarely [ ]

d) - Never [ ]

13 - How often do you read in Arabic?

a) - Always [ ]

b) - Sometimes [ ]

c) - Rarely [ ]

d) - Never [ ]

14-How often do you read in French?

a) - Always [ ]

b) - Sometimes [ ]

c) - Rarely [ ]

d) - Never [ ]

Section three : Reading Comprehension Problems.

15-How do you read in English?

a) - Fluently (easily) [ ]

b) - With little difficulty [ ]

c) - With some difficulty [ ]

d) - With great difficulty [ ]

16- When reading a text in English, what do you find most difficult?

(You may tick more than one answer)

a)- Vocabulary [ ]

b)- Grammar [ ]

c) - Sentences and phrases structures [ ]

d) - Understanding meaning [ ]

e)- Other: [ ] (Please, specify) …………………………………………………………

17- Do you think that the distinction between the “Arabic” and the “English” writing styles causes you problems when reading in English?
18- If your answer is “yes”, do you think it due to:
   a) - Text’s structure   ☐
   b) - Word-order  ☐
   c) - Sentence patterns ☐
   d) - Interpreting ideas ☐
   e) - Other: ☐ (Please specify) ................................................

19 How do you read a text in English? :
   a) - Rapidly  ☐
   b) - Normally (with average speed) ☐
   c) - Slowly  ☐

20- If your answer is “slowly”, do you think it is because of:
   a) - Pronunciation problem  ☐
   b) - Difficulty of words in the text ☐
   c) - Non-familiarity with the topic ☐
   d) - Fear of making mistakes ☐

Section four : Reading strategies

21- Do you read with a purpose?
   Yes ☐ No ☐

22- Do you read a text in English in order to:
   a) - Get the general idea of it  ☐
   b) - Enrich your vocabulary  ☐
   c) - Understand sub-ideas and supporting details ☐

23- Do you have any notion about reading comprehension strategies?
   Yes ☐ No ☐

24- If your answer is “yes”, do you use these reading strategies when reading a text in English?
   Yes ☐ No ☐

25- How do you select your strategy?
   a) - According to your purpose  ☐
   b) - According to the nature of the problem you face ☐
   c) - Without any previous preparation ☐
   d) - Other: ☐ (Please, specify) ...........................................................
26-When facing a reading problem, what do you do?
   a) - Try to solve it using some techniques  
   b) - Ask for teacher’s or classmate’s help  
   c) - Do nothing  
   d) Other: (Please, specify)………………………………………………………………

27- While reading, do you get information through:
   a) - Reading the whole text  
   b) - Reading the important parts or chunks only  
   c) - Reading the beginning and the ending of the text only  
   d) - Visuals and supporting pictures  
   e) - Other: (Please, specify)…………………………………………………………

28- If you do not understand a sentence in a text, which ways do you use to understand it better?
   a) - Re-start reading the text  
   b) - Repeat reading the sentence until you understand it  
   c) - Read what is before and what is after the sentence  
   d) - Break the sentence into parts  
   e) - Other: (Please specify)…………………………………………………………

29- When you come across a new difficult word in a text, do you:
   a) - Predict / guess the meaning from the context  
   b) - Find synonyms to the word  
   c) - Use the dictionary (English / English)  
   d) - Translate the word into “Arabic” or “French”  
   e) - Ask a teacher, or a classmate  
   f) - Ignore the word and try to understand the general sense  
   g) - Other: (Please, specify)…………………………………………………………

Section five: English Course Contents
30- Do you feel motivated (interested) in English sessions?
   Yes  
   No
31-If the answer is “yes”, does your teacher motivate you through:
   a) - Asking questions  
   b) - Inviting you to dialogues and discussions  
   c) - Encouragements, instructions, and advice
32-How do you find your English programme contents?
   a) Attractive, rich ,and stimulating
   b) Difficult and uninteresting
   g) Good but very long to terminate
   h) Have no idea about it at all

33- If it is difficult, do you attribute this to :
   a) Teacher’s techniques and methodology
   b) Non-adaptability to your level
   c) Students’ de-motivation
   d) Other : (Please, specify)………………………………………………………

34-Do you think that the content of the English course is at your reach?
   Yes [ ] No [ ]

35- What is your opinion about the way in which reading topics (texts) are selected and taught to you?
   a) Agree [ ] b) Disagree [ ]

36-Do you participate in selecting those reading texts with your teacher?
   Yes [ ] No [ ]

37- Are you for or against the use of “Arabic and / or French” in the English sessions?
   a) For [ ] b) Against [ ]

38- In both cases, please say why:………………………………………………………………………

39-Do you think the course content could be ameliorated?
   Yes [ ] No [ ]

40- If your answer is “yes”, would you suggest some ideas to do so?
   …………………………………………………………………………………………………
   …………………………………………………………………………………………………

41- Would you please describe shortly what kind of other difficulties do you find in the English course?
   …………………………………………………………………………………………………
   …………………………………………………………………………………………………

Thank you
Appendix D : Teacher’s questionnaire

Dear colleague,

Carrying out a research for my magister dissertation on the student enrolled in the department of management at M’sila University, we call upon your help and support. You are kindly requested to complete the following questionnaire. Your answers are necessary as they will aid to better the teaching of reading comprehension, and to solve some of the difficulties students meet when reading English materials.

Please, tick (√) in the appropriate box. Feel free to add any comment. This questionnaire won’t take you too long, so please, hand it back as soon as possible.

We thank you very much in anticipation

Miss.Oumessaad BERKANI
Department of Language and English Literature
Ferhat Abbas University- Sétif
Section One: General Information about the Teacher

1- What a degree (s) do you hold?
   a) - Licence □
   b) - Magister □
   c) - Doctorate □

2- How long have you been teaching English language at university?
   Number of years .............................................................................................................

3- How long have you been teaching English language at the department of management?
   Number of years.............................................................................................................

4- Do you attend any teacher-training programmes / conferences in ESP?
   Yes □ No □
   • If “yes”: Please specify………………………………………….................................
   • If “no”: Say why…………………………………………………………………………......

Section Two: General Information about Students

5- Do you think that your groups are alike (homogeneous)?
   Yes □ No □

6- If “no”, does this bother you?
   Yes □ No □

7- What would you propose in case of such group heterogeneity?
   ………………………………………………………………………………………………………

8- How could you see and describe your students’ attendance in the English course?
   a) - Very regular □
   b) - Average □
   c) - Irregular □

9- How would you rank your students’ motivation in the English class?
   a) - High □ b) Average □ c) - Low □

10- If your answer is “low”, do you try to motivate them?
    Yes □ No □

11- If “yes”, please say how?
    ………………………………………………………………………………………………………

Section Three: Students’ Needs and Problems

12- Do you think that learning English for your students is:
a)- So important  

b)- Important  

c)- Not important at all  

13-If your answer is (a, or b), why do you think they need it?

a) -To understand lectures in English or any professional conversations  

b)-To use it in reading technical materials and catalogues  

c)-To use it in consulting reading materials related to your field of study  

d)-For sitting for exams and formal writings  

e)-For furthering higher studies and travelling abroad  

14- How do you qualify your students’ performance in English?

a)-Very good  

d)-Low  

b)-Good  

e)-Very low  

c)-Average  

15-Do you think that your students are mostly weak in:

(Re-order the following in terms of difficulty by putting “no 1” for the most difficult aspect, and “no 7” for the least difficult one)

a)-Vocabulary  

d)-Reading comprehension  

b)-Grammar  

e)-Writing and composition  

c)-Listening skill  

f)-Speaking and conversation skills  

Section Four: English Course Organisation

16-Do you think that the amount of time assigned to the English module in the department of management is sufficient?

Yes  

No  

17- If your answer is “no”, what do you propose?

...........................................................................................................................................................................

18- Do you follow any official syllabus?

Yes  

No  

19- If the answer is “no”, please, tell why ..........................................................  

20- Do you use your own materials, or those already provided at the department?

a) - I use my personal materials  

b) - I use those which are available at the department  

21-What type of reading materials do you use?
217

22- Do you work in collaboration with your colleagues at this department?

Yes ☐  No ☐

23- If your answer is “yes”, what sort of collaboration is entailed?

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

24- Do you set clear objectives to your English course?

Yes ☐  No ☐

25- Grade the following language skills / components according to their importance. Please rank them from the most important (no.1) to the least important (no.6).

a) Listening ☐  b) Speaking ☐  c) Reading ☐

 d) Writing ☐  e) Vocabulary ☐  f) Grammar ☐

26- Do you use Arabic, and/or French language when teaching those ESP classes?

Yes ☐  No ☐

27- How do your students react towards the content you present to them?

a) They like it ☐  b) They do not like it ☐

28- What do you suggest to improve the English course so that to make it more efficacious and adequate to students' needs?

a) To intensify the number of hours ☐

b) To ameliorate the contents of the English module ☐

c) To bring and use more materials ☐

d) Other: ☐  (Please clarify)………………………………………………………………………………

Section Five: Reading Comprehension Difficulties and Strategies.

29- Do you provide any (or some) reading comprehension session(s) to your classes this year?

Yes ☐  No ☐

30- If the answer is” no”, please say why:……………………………………………………………………

31- If your answer is ”yes”, do you set your students to read English specific texts?

Yes ☐  No ☐
32-When reading in English, do your students meet difficulties in distinguishing the principle idea from sub-ideas or supporting details?
   Yes ☐   No ☐

33- If your answer is” yes”, is it because of :
   a) - Meaning ☐ c)-Word reference ☐
   b)- Link words and conjunctions ☐ d)-Punctuation ☐
   e)-Other: ☐ (Please specify)............................................................................................... 

34- How would you describe your students’ reading speed?
   a) -Fast ☐ b) -Average ☐ c)-Slow ☐

35- If your answer is “slow”, is it because of :
   a)-Pronunciation problems ☐
   b)-Difficulty of words in the text ☐
   c)-Non-familiarity with the topic ☐
   d)-Fear of making mistakes ☐
   e)-Lack of aloud reading ☐

36- Do you invite your students (at the beginning) to read with a purpose?
   Yes ☐   No ☐

37- If your answer is “yes”, do you do this in order to?
   a) -Stimulate them to read ☐
   b)-Help them use appropriate strategies to overcome their problems while reading ☐
   c)-Help them adjust their strategy to the purpose set earlier. ☐

38-Do you provide your students with various tasks and activities that require different reading strategies (pre-reading, while-reading, and post-reading activities)?
   Yes ☐   No ☐

39-Do you base your teaching on the development of individual strategies,or communicative strategies?
   a)- Individual strategies ☐
   b)- Communicative strategies ☐

40-If your answer is" b", would you please give some examples?
   .............................................................................................................................................
   .............................................................................................................................................

Thank you
Cette étude descriptive faite au département de Gestion à l’université Mohamed Boudiaf de M’sila a pour but d’améliorer l’enseignement / apprentissage des stratégies de la lecture chez les étudiants de la quatrième année. De deux cent dix étudiants, nous en avons choisi quarante deux appartenant à quatre spécialités : Management, Finance, Marketing et Comptabilité.

La capacité de lire en anglais est une compétence importante, elle est considérée comme moyen efficace de la compréhension et de l’appréhension des documents relatifs aux domaines d’études de ces étudiants ( leçons, textes, exercices).

A travers cette étude, nous avons essayé de repérer les facteurs et les principales causes des problèmes qui sont à l’origine de la baisse du niveau et qui ont rendus ces étudiants moins performants et moins efficaces. Arrivant enfin à un ensemble de propositions et de recommandations qui pourraient les aider à réduire leurs problèmes et difficultés.

Pour ce faire, nous avons opté pour les interviews et les questionnaires afin de réunir les informations et de déterminer leurs besoins (en langue anglaise en général et en lecture particulièrement), leurs problèmes, leurs expériences, et leurs propositions.

Les résultats obtenus montrent que les facteurs psychologiques ont un grand impact sur la baisse du niveau. Le manque de la motivation personnelle et celle de l’environnement engendrons à leur tour d’autres problèmes comme le manque de la confiance en soi, le manque d’intérêt, la dépendance beaucoup plus vis à vis l’enseignant, et de plus quelques attitudes négatives envers cette langue sont parmi les facteurs cruciaux de cette situation difficile. Les résultats des interviews et des questionnaires donnés à l’enseignante et aux étudiant démontrent fortement que la lecture malgré son importance, pose un obstacle chez les deux. Nous nous rendons compte que l’enseignante elle même trouve une grande difficulté dans l’enseignement approprié des cours de la lecture. Se basant sur ces résultats et après avoir identifié le problème, nous proposons de prendre en considération les besoins des étudiants, d’utiliser toutes sortes de motivation pour augmenter leurs intérêts et confiance, d’intégrer des stratégies de la lecture, la pratique de ces stratégies de la part des étudiants et le bon choix du support pédagogique peuvent aider à résoudre le problème et améliorer l’enseignement / apprentissage de la lecture.
La possibilité d’approfondir cette recherche reste ouverte. Elle regroupe d’autres sujets sur les stratégies de lecture comme l’effet de la lecture stratégique sur la compétence de l’étudiant.
تهدف هذه الدراسة الوصفية التي أجريت حصريا في قسم التسيير بجامعة محمد بوضياف (المسيلة) إلى تحسين تعليم / تعلم استراتيجيات القراءة لدى طلبة السنة الرابعة. من مجموع 211 طالب، كانت العينة المختارة 42 طالب موزعين على أربعة فروع: إدارة الأعمال و مالية و تسويق و إحصاء.

إن القدرة على القراءة باللغة الإنجليزية مهارة أساسية إذ تعتبر الوسيلة التي بواسطتها يستطيع هؤلاء الطلبة فهم و استيعاب الوثائق المرتبطة بمجال دراستهم (دروس ونصوص و تطبيقات).

حاولنا من خلال هذه الدراسة - تشخيص و إيراز الأسباب والمصادر الرئيسية (الجوهرية) التي أدت إلى تدهور المستوى وجعلت من هؤلاء الطلبة أكثر ضعفا وأقل فاعلية ، نصل في النهاية إلى إيجاد بعض الاقتراحات والتوصيات التي قد تؤجل أو تزيل من صعوباتهم.

لذا الصدد، اختيرنا الحوار والاستجواب خاصة كوسيلة لجمع المعلومات ومعرفة احتياجات هؤلاء الطلبة في اللغة الإنجليزية عموما ، وفي دروس القراءة خاصة. من خلال الحوارات والاستجوابات، نلاحظ مشاكلهم وتجاربهم واقتراحاتهم.

توضح نتائج هذا البحث أن العوامل النفسية (السيكولوجية) ، لها الأثر البالغ في تدهور المستوى عند هؤلاء الطلبة.

نقص تحفيز الأنا (الذاتي) وا لتحفيز الخارجي الذي نتج عنه من مشاكل أخرى كنقص الثقة بالنفس ، نقص الاهتمام ، الاعتماد أكثر على الأستاذ ، بعض الظروف السلبية اتجاه مادة اللغة الإنجليزية ، من العوامل المكونة لهذه الوضعية الصعبة (المؤسسات).

نتائج الحوار والاستجوابات التي قدمت للأستاذة وللطالب توضح وبشدة أن القراءة رغم أهميتها هي عقبة حقيقية لكل منهما. فالاستاذة هي الأخرى تجد صعوبة كبيرة في التدريس الأمثل لحصص القراءة.

على ضوء هذا، بعد تحديد المشكل اقترحنا أن أخذ احتياجات الطلبة بعين الاعتبار و استعمال كل المحفزات لزيادة الاهتمام و تعزيز تقنياتهم تأسيسهم و تدريبهم على استخدام استراتيجيات القراءة مع اختيار محتوى لتصويم قد يساعد إلى حد ما في حل مشاكلهم ، وبالتالي تحسين تعليم / تعلم القراءة.

تبقي إمكانية التوسع في البحث مفتوحة لتشمل عدة مواضيع في مجال استراتيجيات القراءة منها مثلا اثر القراءة الإستراتيجية في فعالية الطالب.