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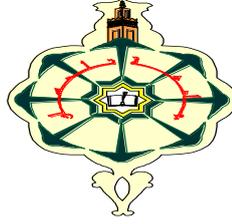
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English for Specific Purposes

THIRD YEAR 'LICENCE' LEVEL

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This Handout is a synthesis of papers and Universities handouts that were adapted to our students needs. These sources are mentioned in the list of references

TABLE OF CONTENTS

I. ESP: AN OVERVIEW

1. The origins of ESP	1
1.1 Introduction.....	1
1.2 The demands of a brave new world.....	2
1.3 A revolution in linguistics.....	2
1.4 Focus on the learner.....	2
2. The development of ESP	4
2.1 The concept of special language: register analysis.....	4
2.2 Beyond the sentence: rhetorical or discourse analysis.....	4
2.3 Target situation analysis.....	5
2.4 Skill and strategies.....	5
2.5 A learning centered approach.....	6
3. ESP definitions	7
4. Types of ESP	10
5. The difference between ESP and EGP	13
6. Place of ESP at Tertiary Level	15

II. CONCEPTS OF NEEDS IN ESP

7. Teaching English for Specific Purposes	20
7.1 ESP Teaching and Learning Processes.....	21
7.2 Stages in the ESP Teaching Process.....	22
8. Needs analysis	25
8.1. Reasons for Conducting a Needs Analysis.....	25
8.2. Needs Analysis and its Components.....	30
8.2.1. Target Situation Analysis.....	31
8.2.2 Present Situation Analysis.....	31
8.1.3 Deficiency Analysis.....	31

8.2.4. Strategy Analysis or Learning Needs Analysis.....	32
8.2.5. Means Analysis (MA).....	33
8.3. Needs Analysis Process (NA).....	33
8.4 .Steps in conduction Needs Analysis.....	34
8.5 Methods for gathering needs data.....	37
8.5.1 The questionnaire.....	37
8.5.1.1 Strengths of using the Questionnaire.....	37
8.5.1.2 Types of Questionnaire.....	38
8.5.1.3 Questionnaire Design.....	39
8.5.1.4 Samples of questionnaires.....	40
8.5.2 Interview.....	46
8.5.2.1 General Objectives.....	46
8.5.2.2 Samples of interviews.....	48
8.5.3 Tests.....	52
8.5.3.1 Samples Tests.....	53
8.5.4 Observation.....	55
8.5.4.1 Sample observation.....	55

III. COURSE, CURRICULUM AND SYLLABUS

9. ESP Course Design.....	57
9.1. Factors Affecting ESP Course Design.....	57
9.1.1 Language Description.....	58
9.1.2. Learning Theories.....	59
9.1.3. Needs Analysis.....	59
9.2 Approaches to Course Design.....	59
9.2.1 Language-Centered	60
9.2.2 Skill-Centered	61
9.2.3 Learning –Centered	62

10. Curriculum and Syllabus	63
10.1 Curriculum	63
10.1.1 Curriculum alignment.....	63
10.1.2 Curriculum guide	64
10.1.3 Curriculum ideology	64
10.2 Syllabus	65
10.2.1 Syllabus design.....	66
10.2.2 Syllabus design criteria.....	67
10.2.3 Designing an ESP Syllabus.....	67
10.3 Difference between curriculum and syllabus.....	68

IV. TEACHING ESP

11. ESP materials.	69
11.1 Materials defined.....	69
11.2 Materials Development.....	70
11.3 ESP Material Adaptation.....	71
12. Teaching ESP	73
12.1 Functions Related to Teaching and Research.....	75
12.2 Functions Regarding Language Use.....	76
12.3 Functions towards Learning.....	77
13. Assessment and Evaluation	81
13.1 Learner Assessment	81
13.2 Course Evaluation	82
Conclusion	84
References	84

I. ESP: AN OVERVIEW

1. The origins of ESP

1.1 Introduction

The prevalent use of the English language as an international means of communication is in constant expansion. This fact is reflected in different fields and in various domains where English is considered as a working tool. In order to reach specific objectives, world countries, including Algeria, introduced English courses at all the levels of the educational system especially at the university through ESP. The latter is the common and well established teaching methodology that the language teachers actually use to achieve the specific learners' needs, and meet the social requirement.

Since the 1960's ESP has become one of the most active branches of Applied Linguistics in general, and of Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) in particular. Among the factors that could explain its vitality and its expansion is, as previously mentioned, the emergence of English as a world language, for this reason the necessity to cope with the different teaching situations and needs that such a position brings about. Such necessity implies an understanding of its development, types and the different teaching concepts of ESP.

Teaching language for specific purposes (LSP) can be traced as far back as the Greek and Roman empires (Dudley-Evans and ST Johns, 1998:1). In the same vein, Strevens (1977) states that the history of LSP goes back to "at least half a century". Regarding English for Specific Purposes (ESP), it emerged at the end of Second World War and it "was not a planned and coherent movement, but rather a phenomenon that grew out of a number of converging trends" (Hutchinson and Waters 1987: 6). ESP have functioned and operated in diverse ways around the world, "but we can identify three main reasons common to the emergence of all ESP."(Ibid, 1987: 6): the demands of a brave new world, a revolution in linguistics and a new focus on the learner.

1.2 The demands of a brave new world

After 1945, the New World knew an age of massive and unprecedented growth in all the activities especially the economic, technical and scientific ones, inexorably it engenders a demand for an international language to communicate, and this responsibility was accredited to English for various reasons. Consequently“..., it created a new generation of learners who knew specifically why they were learning a language...”(Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 6) aiming at fulfilling their daily needs which consisted in the comprehension of the simplest brochure or manuals to most complicated genres of discourses as scientific texts .

1.3 A revolution in linguistics

Some linguists, being aware of the world changes, began to focus their studies on the ways in which language is used in real situations. Traditional approach in language study centred the attention on the grammatical rules governing the language usage. However, it was found that discourses vary according to contexts. Then, it was necessary to reorganise the teaching and learning methodologies according to the language specificities of each situation. The English needed by engineers, doctors, linguists or officers “could be identified by analyzing the linguistic characteristics of their specialist area of work or study. ‘Tell me what you need English for and I will tell you the English that you need’ became the guiding principle of ESP”. Hutchison and Waters (1987: 8).

1.4 Focus on the learner

In the same period learner’s motivation towards acquiring a foreign language was the subject study of the educational psychologists, who noticed the use of different learning strategies by learners; they have different attitudes, needs and interests. The idea was based on the statement of tell me what you need English for and I will tell you the English you need. It was a natural expansion of this philosophy to plan special courses for each range of specific learners. Strevens (1977:152) notes: “...the existence

of a major 'tide' in the educational thought, in all countries and affecting all subjects. The movement referred to is the global trend towards 'learner-centered education'. Like the world, language study and concepts of education fundamentally changed, the English language teaching changed with it, and knew the birth of teaching English for Specific Purposes which is considered as the direct result of the world evolution.

2. The development of ESP

According to Hutchinson and Waters “ESP is not a monolithic universal phenomenon” (1987:9); it has developed at different speeds in different countries. The approaches that we shall describe can be found operating somewhere in the world at the present time.

2.1 The concept of special language: register analysis

This concept departed from the principle that English of a specific science differs from each other in terms of its grammatical and lexical features of the registers. Register analyses in ESP was tailored for the pedagogic purpose, i.e. making the ESP course more relevant to learners’ needs, not intended for the purpose to discuss the nature of registers of English per se. The main purpose of an ESP course was to produce a syllabus which gave a high priority to the language forms students would meet in their field and in turn would give low priority to forms they would not meet.

Register analysis revealed that there was very little that was distinctive in the sentence grammar of scientific English beyond a tendency to favor particular forms such as the present simple tense, the passive voice and nominal compound.

2.2 Beyond the sentence: rhetorical or discourse analysis

If in the first phase, ESP had focussed on language at the sentence level, in this phase, the development shifted into the level above the sentence :understanding how sentence were combined in discourse to produce meaning. So, ESP became closely involved with the emerging field of discourse or rhetorical analysis. The basic hypothesis of this stage is expressed by Allen and Widdowson (1974) :

The difficulties which the students encounter arise not so much from a defective knowledge of the system of English, but from an unfamiliarity with English use, and that consequently their needs cannot be met by a course which simply provides further practice in the composition of sentences, but only by one which develops a knowledge of how sentences are used in the performance of different communicative acts.

Rhetorical patterns of text organisation differed significantly between specialist area of use. The structure placed according to the area of work or study. The typical teaching materials based on the discourse approach taught students to recognise textual patterns and discourse markers mainly by means of text diagramming exercises.

2.3 Target situation analysis

The aim of this phase is to take the existing knowledge and set it on a more scientific basis, by establishing procedures for relating language analysis more closely to learners' reasons for learning. There is a purpose of ESP course that support this phase, the purpose is to enable learners to function in situations which the learners will use the language they are learning, then the ESP course design process should proceed by first identifying the target situation and then carrying out the right analysis of the linguistic parts of that situation. It will form the syllabus of the ESP course. This process known as "needs analysis". What had been done previously in piecemeal way become something's systematised and learner needs was apparently placed at the centre of the course design process.

2.4 Skill and strategies

In this phase, it's consider not only the language itself but also the thinking processes that underlie language use. This phase was set up to cope with study situations where the medium of instructions is the mother tongue but students need to

read a number of specialist texts which are available only in English. As a result, it concentrated their efforts on reading strategies.

In this phase , we don't need to focus closely on the surface forms of the language. The focus should be placed on the underlying interpretive strategies, which enable the learner to cope with the surface forms of the language, for example guessing the meaning of words from context, so on. This approach generally emphasise on reading or listening strategies. The characteristic exercises get the learners to reflect on and analyse how meaning is produced in and retrieved from written or spoken language.

2.5 A learning centered approach

Previously, in the origins of ESP, we knew that there were three forces that had role in ESP and became its characteristics , they were needs, new ideas about language and new ideas about learning. We use all the approaches so far based on the descriptions of language use and the concern in each case is with describing what people do with language, but the concern is not actually on the language use only, our concern should with language learning too because a truly valid approach to ESP must be based on an understanding of the processes of language learning. With this statement, it brings us to this fifth stage of ESP development. The importance and the implications of the distinction that we have made between language use and language learning will hopefully become clear for us to understand each of the stages of ESP development.

3. ESP definitions

Defining ESP has proven to be so problematic to researchers and “producing a simple definition of ESP is not an easy task” (Strevens, 1987:109). Through time, scholars provided different definitions of ESP.

According to Mackay and Mountford (1978: 2) “ESP is generally used to refer to the teaching of English for a clearly utilitarian purpose.” That is to say, that English should be taught to achieve specific language skills using real situations, in a manner that allows them to use English in their future profession, or to comprehend English discourse related to their area of speciality. In the same vein Robinson (1991: 2) states that generally the students study English “not because they are interested in the English language or English culture as such, but because they need English for study or work purposes”. Anthony (1997: 9-10) argued that “some people described ESP as simply being the teaching of English for any purpose that could be specified. Others, however, were more precise describing it as the teaching of English used in academic studies or the teaching of English for vocational or professional purposes”. This denotes that, the role of ESP is to help language learners to build up the needed abilities in order to use them in a specific field of inquiry, occupation, or workplace.

In 2001 Richards states that ESP teaching aims are: preparing non-native speaking students for study in the English-medium academic context; preparing those already fluent or who have mastered general English, but now need English for specific usage in employment, such as engineers, scientists, or nurses; responding to the needs of the materials of English for Business Purposes; and teaching immigrants the English needed to deal with their job situations. Hence in ESP, “language is learnt not for its own sake or for the sake of gaining a general education, but to smooth the path to entry or greater linguistic efficiency in academic, professional or workplace environments” Basturkmen (2006: 18).

All the above definitions (from 1978 to 2006) can be considered as common core, because they described ESP as teaching specific content and skills of English to specific group of learners aiming at communicating effectively in academic or vocational situations.

ESP is a recognizable activity of English Language Teaching (ELT) with some specific characteristics. Dudley-Evans and St. Johns' tried (1998) to apply a series of characteristics, some absolute and some variable, to outline the major features of ESP.

Absolute Characteristics:

1. ESP is defined to meet specific needs of the learners;
2. ESP makes use of underlying methodology and activities of the discipline it serves;
3. ESP is centred on the language (grammar, lexis, register), skills, discourse and genre 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 level institution 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 systems, but it can be used with beginners.

(Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998:4)

It is obvious that the absolute characteristics are specific to ESP because learners' needs are of central importance when designing language activities. Concerning the variable features, ESP courses can be designed for a specific group using definite teaching methodology, nevertheless, all learners' categories and

disciplines can be concerned with ESP. For that reason ESP should be seen simply as an 'approach' to teaching, or what Dudley-Evans and St. John illustrate as an 'attitude of mind'. Similarly, Hutchinson and Waters' (1987:19) stated that, "ESP should properly be seen not as any particular language product but as an approach to language teaching in which all decisions as to content and method are based on the learner's reason for learning".

4. Types of ESP

David Carter (1983) identifies three types of ESP:

- English as a restricted language
- English for Academic and Occupational Purposes
- English with specific topics.

The language used by air traffic controllers or by waiters are examples of English as a restricted language. Mackay and Mountford (1978) clearly illustrate the difference between restricted language and language with this statement:

... the language of international air-traffic control could be regarded as 'special', in the sense that the repertoire required by the controller is strictly limited and can be accurately determined situationally, as might be the linguistic needs of a dining-room waiter or air-hostess. However, such restricted repertoires are not languages, just as a tourist phrase book is not grammar. Knowing a restricted 'language' would not allow the speaker to communicate effectively in novel situation, or in contexts outside the vocational environment (pp. 4-5).

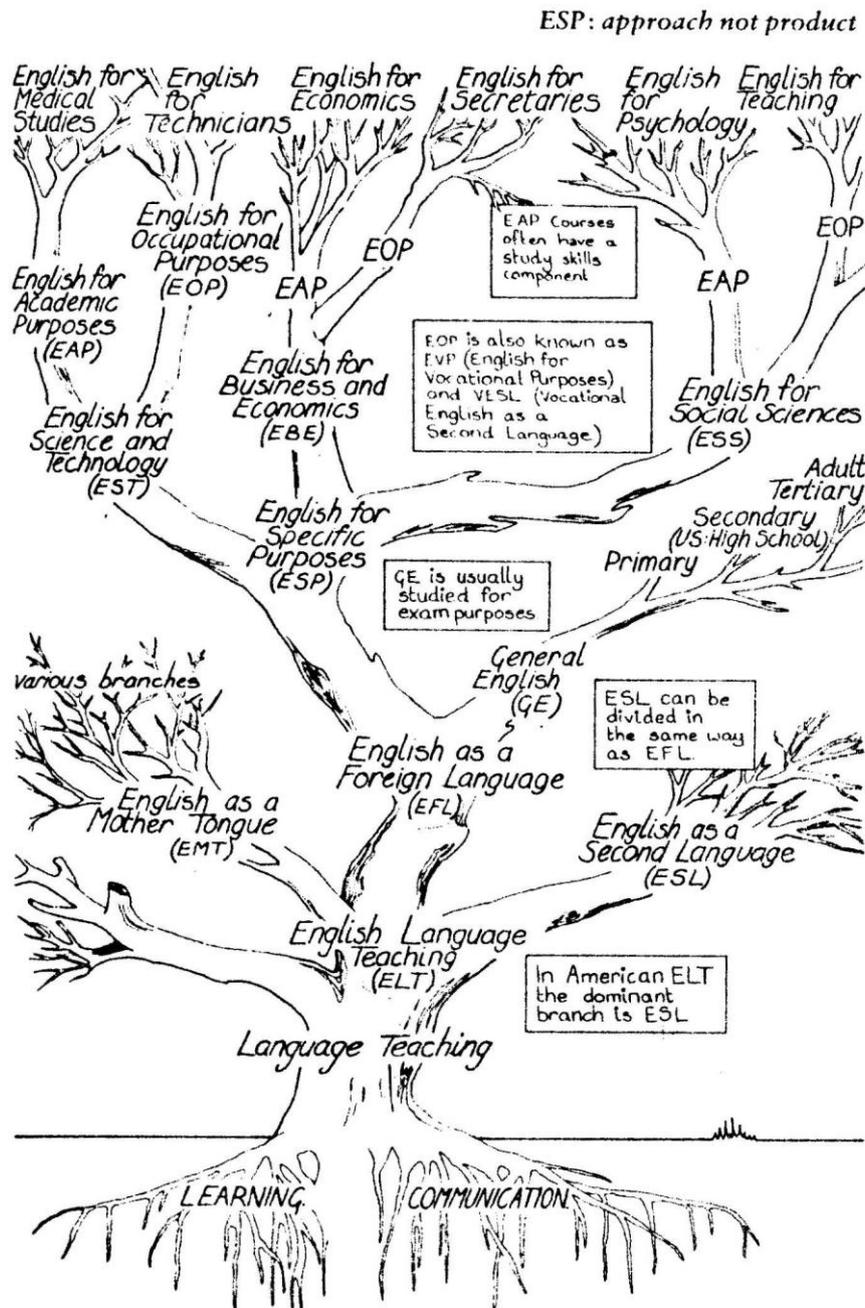
The second type of ESP identified by Carter (1983) is English for Academic and Occupational Purposes. In the 'Tree of ELT' (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987), ESP is broken down into three branches: a) English for Science and Technology (EST), b) English for Business and Economics (EBE), and c) English for Social Studies (ESS). Each of these subject areas is further divided into two branches: English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Occupational Purposes (EOP). An example of EOP for the EST branch is 'English for Technicians' whereas an example of EAP for the EST branch is 'English for Medical Studies'.

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) do note that there is not a clear-cut distinction between EAP and EOP: "· people can work and study simultaneously; it is also likely that in many cases the language learnt for immediate use in a study environment will be used later when the student takes up, or returns to, a job" (p. 16). Perhaps this explains Carter's rationale for categorizing EAP and EOP under the same type of ESP. It appears that Carter is implying that the end purpose of both EAP and EOP are one in the same: employment. However, despite the end purpose being identical, the means taken to achieve the end is very different indeed.

The third and final type of ESP identified by Carter (1983) is English with specific topics. Carter notes that it is only here where emphasis shifts from purpose to topic. This type of ESP is uniquely concerned with anticipated future English needs of, for example, scientists requiring English for postgraduate reading studies, attending conferences or working in foreign institutions. However, I argue that this is not a separate type of ESP. Rather it is an integral component of ESP courses or programs which focus on situational language. This situational language has been determined based on the interpretation of results from needs analysis of authentic language used in target workplace settings.

Figure 1

The tree of ELT: Hutchison, T. & Waters, A. (1987). English for Specific Purposes: a learner-centred approach :p17



5. The difference between ESP and EGP

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) state that there is no difference between the two in theory; however, there is a great deal of difference in practice. ESP, like any other language teaching activity, stands on facts about language nature, learning, and teaching; it is, however, often contrasted with General English.

ESP teaching approach is known to be learner-centred where learners' needs and goals are of supreme value, whereas General English approach is language-centred, and focuses on learning language from a broad perception covering all the language skills and the cultural aspects of the English speaking community

“the general with which we are contrasting the specific is that of General education for life, culture and literature oriented language course in which the language itself is the subject matter and the purpose of the course” Robinson (1980: 6). However, In ESP after the identification and the analysis of specific learning needs, students learn “English en route to the acquisition of some quite different body of knowledge and set of skills”.

Further distinction between General English courses and ESP is that, learners of the latter are mainly adult with a certain degree of awareness concerning their language needs (Hutchinson & Waters 1987). Whereas, General English courses are provided to pupils as compulsory module at schools, their unique purpose is to succeed in the examinations.

Basturkmen (2006) maintains that General English Language teaching tends to set out from a definite point to an indeterminate one, whereas ESP aims to speed learners and direct them through to a known destination in order to reach specific objectives. “The emphasis in ESP on going from A to B in the most time- and energy-efficient manner can lead to the view that ESP is an essentially practical endeavour” (Basturkmen, 2006: 9)

Widdowson (1983) establishes distinctive features of ESP and EGP.

The most important EGP features are:

1. the focus is often on education;
2. as the learners' future needs are impossible to predict, the course content is more difficult to select;
3. due to the above point it is important for the content in the syllabus to have a high surrender value.

The most relevant ESP features are:

1. the focus is on training;
2. as English is intended to be used in specific vocational contexts, the selection of the appropriate content is easier;
3. it is important for the content in the syllabus to have a high surrender value, most relevant to the vocational context;
4. the aim may be to create a restricted English competence.

To conclude, what is the difference between the ESP and General English approach? Hutchinson and Waters (1987:53) answer this quite simply, "in theory nothing, in practice a great deal".

6. Place of ESP at Tertiary Level

ESP developed as an independent discipline from General English, and gained popularity throughout the world, especially in tertiary education where students specialize in different areas. For their involvement in academic areas within international society they have to learn to be able to carry out a research or contribute with a paper at a conference in an international language such as English, which came to be accepted worldwide. The common variant of ESP at this stage of university level came to be known as EAP (English for Academic Purposes).

At university level, English language teachers and learners often encounter different issues that might hamper achieving a successful teaching/learning function. One of the important issues is the teacher/learner interaction within specific contexts of English language which is English for Specific Purposes. In this respect, Hyland (2002: 394) argues that “effective language teaching in the universities involves taking specificity seriously. It means that we must go as far as we can.” For teachers this means introducing learners to the relevant genres with the purpose of allowing them to participate in a discourse community organized around specific and purposeful activities. This can be approached in pragmatic or critical ways, and there has been a considerable amount of discussion about the need to avoid uncritical induction of students into disciplinary discourse and identities (Canagarajah, 2002; Harwood & Hadley, 2004; Pennycook, 1997).

Teachers have to develop the learners’ academic English; that is the English needed for reading, writing, speaking, and listening in the content areas (Collier, 1999; Cummins, 2001). They have to ensure that learners develop the specific academic language they need to participate in the content classroom (Chamot & O’Malley, 1994; Echevarria, Vogt, & Short, 2004).

ESP is considered as a goal- directed kind of language; therefore, the students are not learning the English language for its own sake, but because there is a need for its exploitation in the workplace and they are enforced by a certain motivation. ESP is considered as a major field of EFL teaching at present. It has started emerging from

the EFL field since the 1960s. EFL teachers nowadays are more aware of the role of ESP in the different modern fields of specialization.

As a matter of fact, ESP development is obvious in the growing number of universities offering an MA in ESP and in the number of ESP courses offered in Great Britain and America. This indicates that ESP is determined by specific learning needs of language learners. Therefore, the teacher's role should not be restricted to mere teaching, but should extend to be a course designer, researcher, evaluator, and an active participant and partner in all of aspects of the teaching/learning process.

In teaching ESP at tertiary level, teachers may encounter different challenging situations. One of the characteristics or even a critical feature of ESP is that a course should involve specialist language (special terminology) and content. In the majority of cases ESP teachers are not specialists in the students' professional fields. That is why the primary issue in ESP teaching is the struggle to master language and subject matter. Teachers find themselves having to teach with texts whose content they know little or nothing about. In addition, the ESP teacher happens to be the syllabus designer and is responsible for the teaching material and evaluation.

Another problem is text selection and adaptation. Not being a specialist in the specific area, the ESP teacher cannot decide by himself/herself how to adapt the text that the most important information in terms of subject matter will remain. The decision has to be made about the texts: on the one hand, the text must not be too difficult, because neither the ESP teacher, nor the students have such a high level of professional knowledge; on the other hand, the text must not be too popular, because some learners have some confidence in their professional knowledge, and if the text is too easy for them in terms of subject matter, they tend to underestimate it in terms of language as well. In order to avoid such a situation which may lead to demotivation, the text should contain some challenges which will activate the professional knowledge of the students.

So, how can an ESP teacher cope with the issues he/she meets in her job?

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) provide part of the answer. ESP teachers do not need to learn specialist subject knowledge. They require three things only:

- A positive attitude towards the ESP content
- A knowledge of the fundamental principles of the subject area
- An awareness of how much they probably already know

In other words, the ESP teacher should not become a teacher of the subject matter, but rather an interested student of the subject matter. The lack of close cooperation and coordination between content lecturers and the designers of the study programmes, is a serious problem that require more attention.

Another challenge that ESP teacher has to pay attention to, is learners' needs and motivation. There are two learner aspects of paramount importance when the topic of ESP learner-centered approaches is the objective of research and discussion: age and motivation. These two aspects will be further discussed as they are established as supporting pillars of ESP curriculum design.

Robinson (1980) stated that ESP curricula needs to be developed based not on requirements imposed by language institutions or work supervisors, but on real needs of real learners in the diverse realm of the sciences and humanities. Learners in ESP classes vary mostly in terms of age and motivation. For instance, at the tertiary level, highly motivated adults have academic and professional goals they want to reach through the acquiring or improving their linguistic performance.

Sifakis (2003) referred to ESP adult learners in terms of age, educational, professional, and social background. He characterized adulthood in terms of age, social status, and a number of values adults possess.

Curricula developers need to be aware of the fact that adult learners are almost always voluntarily engaged in the learning process; highly motivated both intrinsically and extrinsically, conscious of their progress; reflective on their own learning; and willing to establish a learning contract in which they commit themselves to giving of

their time and effort to learn. Curriculum designer will discover that these characteristics will make their curricula learner -centered and one of their very driving forces. Something else that curricula developers need to be aware of is the fact that learning processes are voluntary and purposeful; so by actively involving learners in the planning process; they would ultimately improve their motivation and commitment to fully participate in the course and improve their language proficiency.

The learners in ESP are capable of proceeding in their learning progressively due to the fact that they deal with specialism that they have chosen to study. For 16-18 year old, Harding (2007:8) suggests “the suitability of work in ESP because they might not know much about their subject specialism”. This is the point where the introductory use of ESP can find its place in teaching. Students will read texts that are available in English only, in order to get to know about their specialism.

She proceeded to characterize the ESP learner in terms of extrinsic motivation: “The ESP learner has a further purpose. He or she is learning English in order to achieve something specific beyond the language itself.”(ibid). These characteristics refer to instrumental motivation. Extrinsic motivation stems from the anticipation of an external reward, and part of that reward is what the classroom offers (Brown, 2000: 58-59). Echevarria and Graves (2003:45) present Baker’s (1992) definition of integrative motivation as stemming from a desire to identify with or integrate into a particular language group. In contrast, “instrumental motivation describes a situation in which individuals learn language for a practical reason, such as getting a job, enhancing their career possibilities, or passing an exam.”

On the border between extrinsic and intrinsic motivation, lies next characteristics of the learner of ESP. Apart from language learning which is associated with particular academic skills, “ESP involves learning practical and manual skills. While learning these, different centres of brain are employed, which is important to offer variety and provide counterpart to typical schooling skills” (Harding, 2007:9).

Harmer (2007:20) deals extrinsic motivation, which students bring into the class from outside and intrinsic motivation which is generated by things that happen in the

classroom. The effects of extrinsic motivation can be lessened by little support for learner's choice from the society, with secondary vocational students, if their prospect of future job in the specialism they study is permeated with doubts and uncertainty, then their motivation will become weaker. On the other hand, intrinsic motivating factors in case of ESP learner, such as atmosphere in the class, can change the former attitude towards the area of ESP. Harding (2007:9) describes the positive effects of ESP courses on learners who have not succeeded as language learners. The learners will develop a desire to learn in new situation, in which they after all overcome their 'tiredness' of language –based work.

Harding (2007:9) in relation with this recalls the new method capable of sustaining both types of motivations, that for language and the motivation for subject specialist area: "Developing the two motivations in tandem is however an exciting prospect for the teacher and links with recent ELT concepts of CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning)".

Harmer (2007:21) suggests that one way of helping to sustain their motivation is to give them some agency. He explains imposing the requirement upon student: "Getting students to do various kinds of homework, such as written exercise, compositions or further study is one of the best ways to encourage student autonomy."

Another feature of ESP classes, exploiting the area of language work, will be the use of monolingual learner's dictionaries. For advanced students who consider continuing their study at university, it will be worth to get hold of the Oxford Student's Dictionary with an Academic Word List which covers the main technical terminology of courses that are possible to be studied in further education.

As it will be mentioned further, especially in connection with Hutchinson and Water's description of developments in the field of ESP course design, it is crucial to develop students' thinking skills. Thinking skills, critical thinking, creative thinking, and mind mapping are very useful procedures to help students to set the goals of their learning.

II. CONCEPTS OF NEEDS IN ESP

7. Teaching English for Specific Purposes

The main aims of the teaching and learning process is to enable the learners to acquire information in its general sense. Concerning ESP Basturkmen (2006: 133) states the existence of five broad objectives on which specific teaching process is based and should be reached:

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

The researcher shall examine these objectives one after the other.

a-Reveal subject-specific language use: this objective aims to demonstrate to the learners how the language is used in the target setting.

b- Develop target performance competencies: this objective is concerned with what learners do with language and the needed skills to be competent. “This orientation can be categorized as a proficiency objective, according to Stern’s classification (1992)” (Basturkmen, 2006: 135).

c-Teach underlying knowledge: the aim is to focus on developing students’ knowledge of fields of study or work in addition to their language skills. “The objective of teaching underlying knowledge can be classified as a cultural knowledge objective, according to Stern’s categorization (1992)” (Basturkmen, 2006: 137).

d-Develop strategic competence. “Strategic competence is the link between context of situation and language knowledge” (Basturkmen, 2006: 139) and enables successful and efficient communication.

e- Foster critical awareness: “This objective can be linked to the cultural knowledge and affective objectives in Stern’s (1992) classification” (Basturkmen, 2006: 143) and aims at making students conscious and culturally aware of the target situation.

It is evident that great similarity exists between the objectives established by Stern (1992) for language education and the ones stated by Basturkmen for ESP context. The teaching /learning process associated to appropriate methodology may result in mastery of language by correctly using it in the context.

7.1 ESP Teaching and Learning Processes

The methodologies of ESP teaching conform to the same model of the language teaching process as does any other form of language teaching. That is to say, the basic teaching activities are these; Shaping the input; Encouraging the learners’ intention to learn; Managing the learning strategies and Promoting practice and use.

(Stevens, 1988: 44)

In ESP teaching, some basic elements have to be taken into consideration, the most important of which are the learner needs, goals and motivation. Furthermore learners’ attitudes towards learning and learning strategies are emphasized and seen as fundamental to the ESP process.

The ESP teacher in the classroom is “...a knowledge provider and a facilitator of students’ learning and no more as a resourceful authority.”(Kashani et al 2007: 85). However, he/she is more concerned with designing suitable syllabi and courses for different learners with various needs and fields. “Thus, whereas course design plays a relatively minor part in the life of General English teacher, courses here usually being determined either by tradition, choice of textbook or ministerial decree, for the ESP teacher, course design is often a substantial and important part of the workload” (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987: 21).

As the students are cited in the core of the learning process they have to be dynamic contributors in their learning either in the classroom or out of it. Students use the adequate and favourite learning strategies and put a rapid and durable learning rhythm to achieve the stated objectives. They are more intrinsically than extrinsically oriented. “Learning is more individualized than standardized and students are more open to new ideas. They take responsibility for their own actions and accept related consequences”. (Kashani et al 2007: 87).

ESP teaching/ learning processes necessarily go through different stages.

7.2 Stages in the ESP Teaching Process

Dudley-Evans and Johns (1998:121) maintain that “The key stages in ESP are needs analysis, course (and syllabus) design, materials selection (and production), teaching and learning, and evaluation.” ESP course design is the product of a dynamic interaction between these elements which “... are not separated, linearly-related activities, rather, they represent phases which overlap and are interdependent”.

Dudley-Evans and St. Johns illustrate the theory and the reality of the stages in ESP process through these cyclical representations:

Figure 2

Stages in the ESP process: Theory

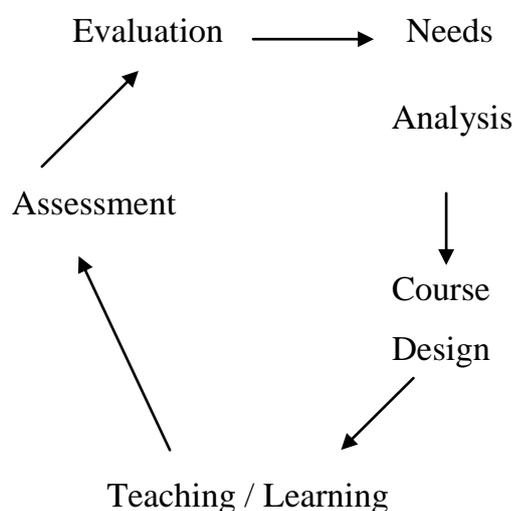
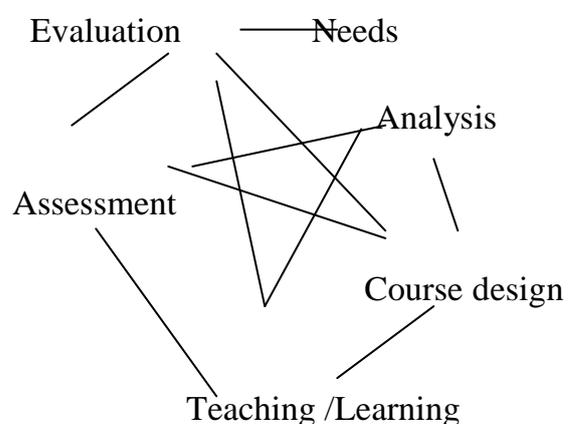


Figure 3

Stages in the ESP process: reality



It is well demonstrated that the basic elements in the ESP teaching process are interconnected and there is no differentiation between theory and reality “the simplicity and clarity of figure 1 is in reality more like figure 2” (Dudley-Evans and St. Johns, 1998: 121). Therefore, the achievement of ESP courses are: those where the syllabus and the material are determined by the prior analysis of the communication needs of the learner (Mumby, 1978: 2), and those in which the aims and the context are determined principally or wholly not by criteria of general education but by functional and practical English language requirements of the learner (Strevens 1977 :90).

However, designing effective ESP course is governed by further parameters that have to be examined first. According to Miliani (1994), after his exploration of the Algerian context, stated that four essential points have to be studied and analysed as a pre-design process, which consist of:

a-Situation analysis: it envelop the general requirements of both learners and institutions, their profiles and attitudes, also the existing materials.

b-Setting Aims and Objectives: the results of learners needs identification and analysis (NIA) lead to setting up general statements and what would be achieved at the end of the courses.

c-Generating Syllabus Content: organising the syllabus content “through the sequencing of materials whose layout and presentation should form a continuum”. (Benyelles, 2009:58).

d- Assessment: gathering data regarding syllabus before or during the course implementation let to readjust the content of the syllabus.

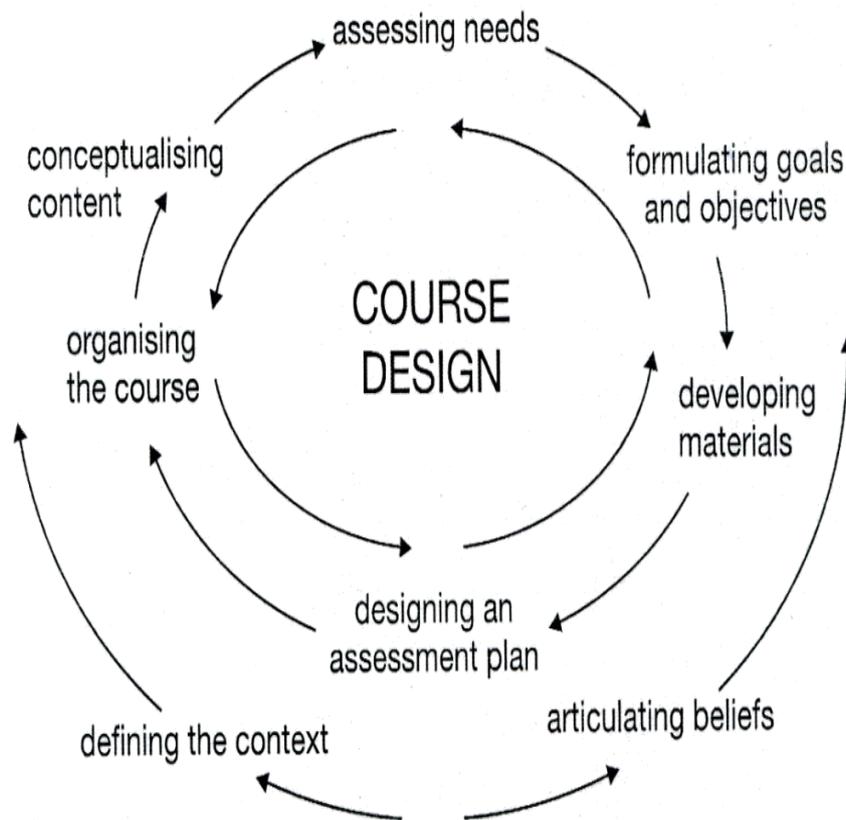
In the same vein Graves (1996, qtd. in Xenodohidis, 2006, ¶ 1) suggests a systematic syllabus design consisting of six steps. Those steps are:

- 1- Conducting needs assessment, followed with needs analysis (both of the process sometimes just called needs analysis).
- 2- Determining the goals and objectives of the course.

- 3- Conceptualizing the content.
- 4- Selecting and developing materials and activities.
- 5- Organizing the content and activities.
- 6- Evaluating

Figure 4

Graves' Model of Syllabus Design (2000)



From the quoted descriptions of ESP teaching process it is viewed that in the first instance, learners' needs have to be identified and analysed. Therefore, the development of an ESP course should be in line with learners' requests and wants. Thus, needs outcomes will operate as a guide for the teacher in designing a suitable syllabus, producing course materials as well as teaching and testing methods.

A detailed description of each step follows:

8. Needs analysis

An essential component of ESP as an enterprise is the analysis of potential or actual needs. In general terms, needs analysis (also called needs assessment) refers to the activities involved in gathering information that will serve as the basis for developing a curriculum that will meet the learning needs of a particular group of students. In the case of language programmes, those needs will be language related. For example, when a curriculum is being developed from scratch for a completely new language programme, the best place to start is with needs assessment. Thus, application of needs assessment will create a sound foundation for further discussion of the curriculum.

8.1 .Reasons for Conducting a Needs Analysis

A needs analysis (or needs assessment) is a systematic approach for studying the state of knowledge, ability, interest, or attitude of a defined audience or group involving a particular subject. It is used by professionals to learn about important issues and problems faced by our learners in order to design effective educational programmes.

A needs analysis also provides a method to learn what has already been done and what gaps in learning remain. This allows the teacher to make informed decisions about needed investments, thereby extending the reach and impact of educational programming.

The goals of need analysis are nearly always the same. The first goal is to learn what our audience already knows and thinks, so that we can determine what educational system is needed. A second goal is to understand what we can do to make our educational system more accessible, acceptable, and useful to our learners. A Needs Analysis, thoughtfully performed by Cawley (2009: 3), provides the following:

- Impact: Insights about how education and training can impact the audience;
- Approaches: Knowledge about educational approaches that may be most effective;

- Awareness: of existing programmes and of gaps in available training to enable efficient use of resources;
- Outcomes: Information about the current situation that can be used to document outcomes;
- Demand: Knowledge about the potential demand for future programmes and textbooks
- Credibility: that the programme is serving the target audience, an important part of communicating greater competence and professionalism to funding authorities who want to know a programme or textbook's impact.

A needs analysis is conducted so the target audience can verify its own level of knowledge and skill, its interests and opinions, or its learning habits and preferences. Collecting and analyzing needs analysis data allows the investigator to describe the “gap” between what exists and what is needed in target situation. Filling that gap becomes the purpose of the next generation in education in general and the aim of syllabus course design in particular.

Needs analysis, in the formal and technical sense, is relatively new in language teaching circles. However, needs analysis have been conducted informally for years by teachers who wanted to assess what language points their students needed to learn. Indeed, the various activities usually called “approaches” are different expressions of this desire to figure out what students need to learn. Information sources for such informal needs assessments might include scores on an overall language proficiency test, facts gathered from a background questionnaire that asks where and for how long students have had previous language training, or impressions gleaned from teacher and student interview about the students' cognitive and linguistic abilities.

In more formal terms, needs assessment is defined by Richards et al. (1985) as the process of determining the needs for which a learner or a group of learners requires a language and arranging the needs according to priorities. In the same vein, Stufflebeam points out that it is “the process of determining the things that are

necessary or useful for the fulfilment of defensible purpose.” (Stufflebeam et al., 1985:16).

Needs analysis can be seen as crucial to an ESP course, especially when the course is of limited duration. The designer of an ESP course has to decide exactly how specific the language needs of the students are. For scientific English course, for example, potentially all the structural patterns of English need to be taught, using scientific terms rather than everyday vocabulary. One main purpose of conducting a needs analysis is, according to Gardner and Winslow (1983):

to produce information which when acted upon, makes courses better adapted to students’ needs and part of object of formal needs identification is to back up one’s proposals with quantitative evidence of their importance...in many cases, concrete evidence of particular needs, such as these surveys, could be directly used as part of the course validation/ approval procedure.(Gardner and Winslow, 1983:76).

One of the primary questions that can be included in a questionnaire while conducting a needs analysis is whether students will use English to pass the exam as a university requirement or in workforce after graduation. Indeed, in this case our intention is to prepare learners for the future not for passing exams because we rely on the results of the needs analysis, which has to be done before designing the ESP course. ESP needs analysis positions a solid foundation for a stable ESP syllabus. Since needs analysis has been run for the targeted group to collect data about their learning needs, then, the process of core courses designation will take place. Designing a course for any ESP system needs a considerable amount of general English along with an integrated functional terminological language matted in the targeted ESP course which is based on the needs analysis.

Needs analysis is neither unique to language teaching nor within language training but it is often seen as being “the corner stone of ESP and leads to a very focused course”(Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998: 122). Although there are various ways of interpreting ‘needs’, the concept of ‘learner needs’ is often interpreted in two ways:

- What the learner wants to do with the language (goal-oriented definition of needs) which relates to terminal objectives or the end of learning; and
- What the learner needs to do to actually acquire the language (a process-oriented definition) which relates to transitional/means of learning.

Traditionally, the first interpretation was widely used and accepted. However, in today's globalized teaching and learning contexts, ESP courses tend to relate to both at the same time but tend to focus on the process-oriented approach in aligning students' needs with present working scenarios.

In view of these concerns, Dudley-Evans and St John (1998:145) discuss criteria for ESP course design and put forward useful steps for ESP teachers and course designers to consider. They list these concerns surrounding course design in the form of the following questions:

- Should the course be intensive or extensive?
- Should the learners' performance be assessed or non-assessed?
- Should the course deal with immediate needs or with delayed needs?
- Should the role of the teacher be that of the provider of knowledge and activities, or should it be as facilitator of activities arising from learners' expressed wants?
- Should the course have a broad focus or narrow focus?
- Should the course be pre-study or pre-experience or run parallel with the study or experience?
- Should the materials be common-core or specific to learners' study or work?
- Should the group taking the course be homogeneous or should it be heterogeneous?

- Should the course design be worked out by the language teacher after consultation with the learners and the institution, or should it be subject to a process of negotiation with the learners?

By asking these questions prior to planning course design, the ESP teacher can be better prepared, more so if the teacher has to balance out some of these parameters which are linked to institutional and learner expectations (Dudley-Evans and St John, 1998).

In most instances, the content of any ESP course should be determined by a comprehensive needs analysis as this first step is seen as being absolutely crucial if ESP practitioners wish to design a course that will maximally benefit their learners (Wright, 2001). In the literature of needs analysis, some of the following aspects are often recommended by experts:

- Placement testing (administering tests designed to assess general English ability and ability to perform adequately in work contexts – this might help determine the starting level of courses in the ESP course)
- Linguistics needs analysis (to identify skill development, linguistic structure, lexical items, language functions and levels of formality)
- Learning needs analysis (identify learners’ attitudes towards different kinds of methodology, learning tasks and activities); and
- Learner perceptions analysis (discover learners’ perceptions of themselves and others as part of their company culture, and their relationships with people from other company cultures). (Adapted from different sources)

The notion of needs analysis in ESP has been expanded in different ways by different scholars. Chambers (1980, qtd. in Basturkmen 2010 : 18) for instance, states that: “Needs analysis should be concerned with establishment of communicative needs and their realisations, resulting from an analysis of the communication in target situation - what I will refer to as target situation analysis.”

Dudley-Evans and St-John (1998: 125) also offer a ‘current concept of needs analysis’:

- A. Professional information about the learners: The tasks and activities learners are/will be using English for – target situation analysis and objective needs.
- B. Personal information about the learners: Factors which may affect the way they learn such as previous learning experiences, cultural information, reasons for attending the course and expectations of it, attitude to English – wants, means and subjective needs.
- C. English language information about the learners: What their current skills and language use are – present situation analysis – which allows us to assess (D).
- D. The learners’ lacks: The gap between (C) and (A) – lacks.
- E. Language learning information: Effective ways of learning the skills and language in (D) – learning needs.
- F. Professional communication information about (A): Knowledge of how language and skills are used in the target situation – linguistic analysis, discourse analysis, genre analysis.
- G. What is wanted from the course.
- H. Information about how the course will be run – means analysis

8.2. Needs Analysis and its Components

There have been several surveys about the different approaches to NA in EFL since the term was first introduced by West in the 1970s, but almost all of them concern ESP mainly because of two reasons:

1. Early NA focused on English for Occupational Purposes (EOP) which later changed to Academic (EAP). (West, 1994:1)
2. The belief that GE learners’ needs cannot be determined (Seedhouse, 1995: 59) because it is taken for granted that GE learners learn the language in a

TENOR (Teaching English for No Obvious Reason) situation. (Abbott & Wingard,1981).

Nowadays NA is an umbrella term covering several components.

8.2.1. Target Situation Analysis

The term, “Target Situation Analysis” (for short TSA) was first introduced by Chambers (1980: 29). For him TSA is “communication in the target situation.” TSA is a form of Needs Analysis, which focuses on identifying the learners’ language requirement in the occupational or academic situation they are being prepared for (West, 1994). Robinson (1991:8) argues that “a needs analysis, which focuses on students’ needs at the end of a language course can be called a TSA.

8.2.2 Present Situation Analysis

Present Situation Analysis (for short PSA) may be posited as a complement to target situation analysis (Robinson, 1991; Jordan,1997). If target situation analysis tries to establish what the learners are expected to be like at the end of the language course, present situation analysis attempts to identify what they are like at the beginning of it. According to Robinson (1991:8), “PSA seeks to establish what the students are like at the start of their language course, investigating their strengths and weaknesses.” Dudley-Evans & St-John (1998: 124) state that “PSA estimates strengths and weaknesses in language, skills, learning experiences.”

8.1.3 Deficiency Analysis

What Hutchinson and Waters (1987) define as lacks can be matched with deficiency analysis. According to Allwright (1982, cited in West, 1994), the approaches to needs analysis that have been developed to consider learners’ present needs or wants may be called analysis of learners’ deficiencies or lacks. From what has already been said, it is obvious that deficiency analysis is the route to cover from point A (present situation) to point B (target situation), always keeping the learning needs in mind. Therefore, deficiency analysis can form the basis of the language syllabus (Jordan, 1997) because

it should provide data about both the gap between present and target extra linguistic knowledge, mastery of general English, language skills, and learning strategies.

Table 1

Necessities, lacks and wants (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987:58)

	OBJECTIVE (i.e. as perceived by course designers)	SUBJECTIVE (i.e. as perceived by learners)
NECESSITIES	The English needed for success in Agricultural or Veterinary Studies	To reluctantly cope with a 'second-best' situation
LACKS	(presumably) areas of English needed for agricultural or Veterinary Studies	Means of doing Medical Studies
WANTS	To succeed in Agricultural or Veterinary Studies	To undertake Medical Studies

8.2.4. Strategy Analysis or Learning Needs Analysis

This type of needs analysis has to do with the strategies that learners employ in order to learn another language. This tries to establish how the learners wish to learn rather than what they need to learn (West, 1998, cited in Songhori, 2008:12). Allwright was the first to make a distinction between needs, i.e. the skills which a student sees as being relevant to him/her; wants, i.e. those needs on which students put a high priority in the available limited time, and lacks i.e. the difference between the student's present competence and the desired competence. His ideas were adopted by Hutchinson and Waters (1987), who advocate a learning-centred approach in which learners' learning needs play a vital role. Arguably, they advocate a process-oriented approach, not a product-or goal-oriented one. What learners should be taught are skills that enable them to reach the target, the process of learning and motivation should be considered as well as the fact that different learners learn in different ways (Dudley-Evans & St-John.1998).

8.2.5. Means Analysis (MA)

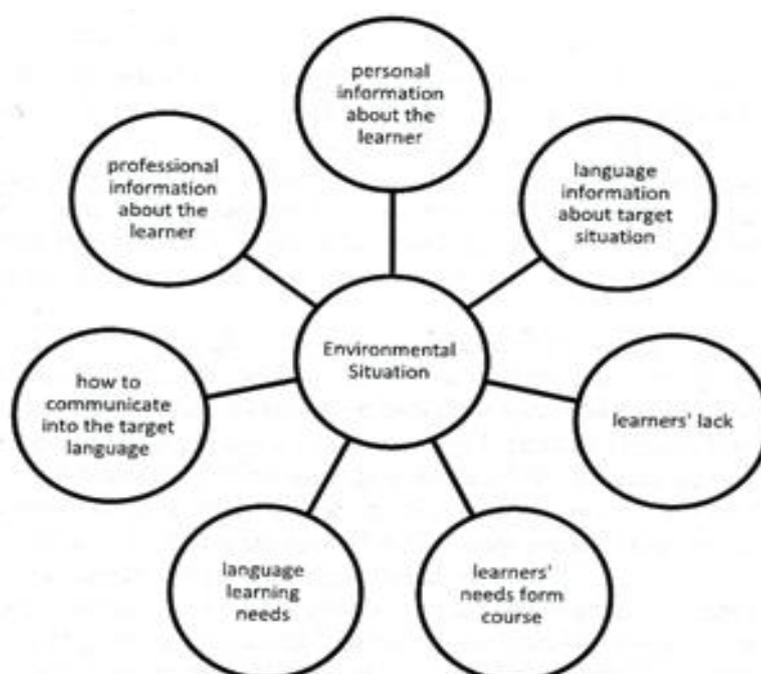
MA attempts to study the local situation i.e. the facilities, teachers and teaching methods in order to see how the language course can be implemented. (Holliday & Cook 1982 cited in Jordan, 1997: 27). Means analysis is mainly used for the purpose of designing a curriculum rather than a syllabus design.

8.3. Needs Analysis Process (NA)

Dudley-Evans and St-John (1998: 125) defined Needs Analysis (NA) as “professional information about the learners: The tasks and activities learners are/will be using English for [...] target situation analysis and objective needs.” They also consider NA as the process through which personal information such as wants, means and subjective needs are retrieved. In addition, they regarded NA as the process of deciding the learners’ English language skills, finding information related to linguistic, genre, discourse, determining what is expected out of the course, and finally establishing how the course will be administered and run. Needs Analysis can be detailed to include many important factors. One of the current theoretical frameworks of needs analysis was presented by Dudley-Evans and St-John (1998).

Figure 5

Needs analysis Components (Dudley-Evans and St John:1998)



They believe that an environment situation plays a major part and it seeks to comprehensively inform the course designer about the learners. The figure illustrates the theoretical framework suggested by Dudley-Evans and St-John (1998). This model can be viewed as the most comprehensive model for ESP needs analysis. This model of ESP needs analysis (1998: 125) focuses on (1) learners' professional information, (2) learners' personal information, (3) learners' language information about the target situation, (4) learners' lacks, (5) learners' needs from course, (6) language learning needs, (7) communication information in the target situation, and(8) environmental information.

Another way to look at needs is to make a clear cut division between present knowledge/required knowledge, objective/subjective needs, and perceived/felt needs (Dudley-Evans and St-John 1998). The difference between present and required knowledge goes back to the gap between present know-how and exigencies of the target situation. The difference between objective/subjective and perceived/felt needs lies in the nature of data based on the nature of sources used to collect the data required for NA, using outsiders and/or insiders views Dudley-Evans and St-John (1998). For example, tests are used to elicit objective needs and interviews to subjective ones. Very roughly, lacks fit into present knowledge, necessities fit into required knowledge, and wants fit into subjective needs.

8.4 .Steps in conduction Needs Analysis

There are different steps to follow while conducting a needs analysis in order to have reliable and valid results;

- a) Defining the purpose of NA, i.e. defining the aims and what is it that you want to learn from NA
- b) Delimiting the student population, i.e. who is the target audience? Whose needs are you measuring, and to whom will you give the required information?
- c) Deciding upon Approach(es) and Syllabus(es), i.e. the how and what the students need to learn in the course of a particular programme of language

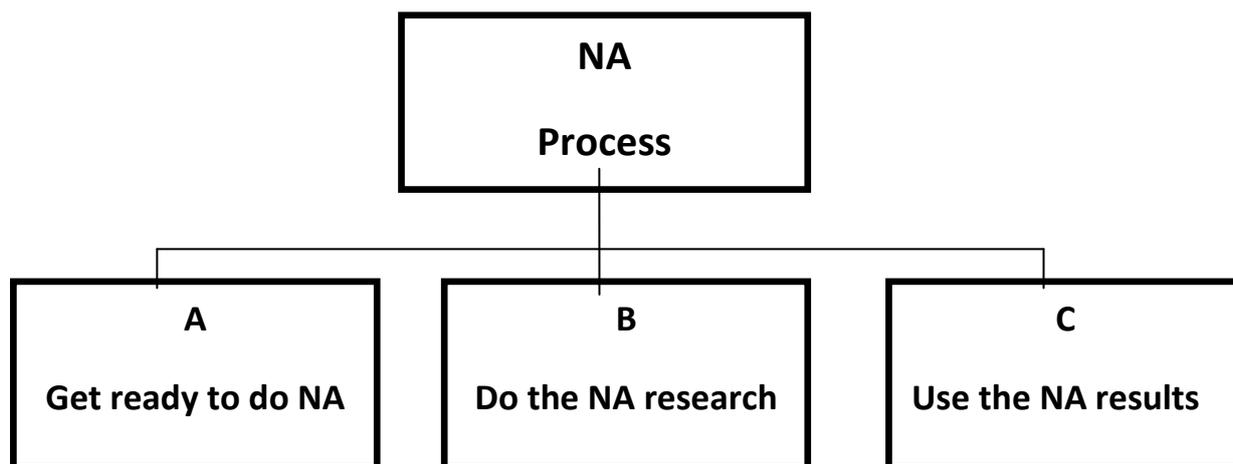
instruction (Brown, 1995). The content or the syllabus of the programme can be everything from structural to functional to task-based and so on (Long and Crooks, 1992; White, 1988; Wilkins, 1976).

- d) Recognizing Constraints, i.e. the framework imposed by learners, teachers, and the situation.

In order to put forward a balanced argument on NA and the steps taken to conduct Needs Analysis, a framework has been proposed by Brown (2009) and explains the stages of a comprehensive Needs Analysis. This framework consists of three general stages with ten steps. Brown's framework can be illustrated as follows:

Figure 6

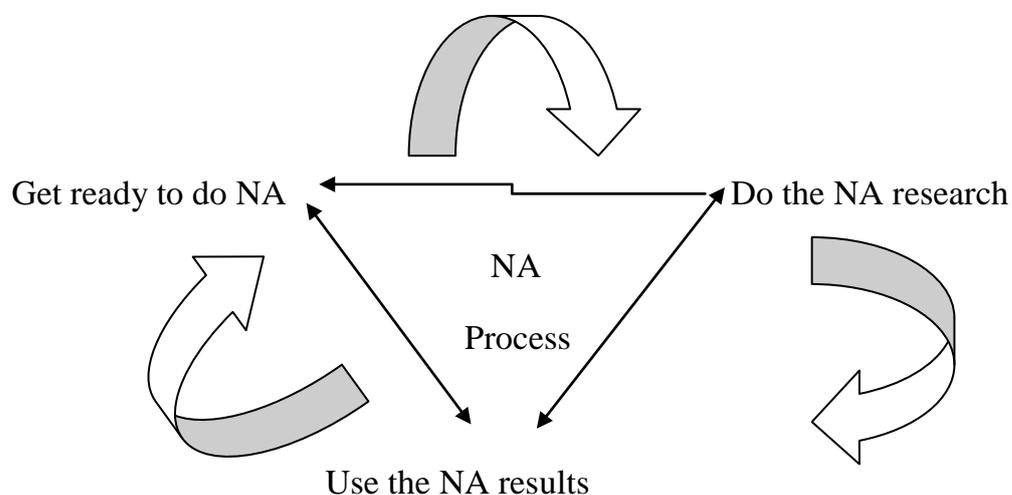
A Framework for doing NA (Adopted and adapted from Brown, 2009: 269).



In fact, Brown presents his framework in a linear fashion, but a cyclical shape was adapted by Mohammadi & Nacer (2013). The logic behind this modification goes back to the time of NA and the interaction among its different stages. A Needs Analysis might be done before a course starts, at the beginning of a course, be ongoing during the course or at the end of a course if it is going to be repeated with a different group of learners (Nation and Macalister, 2010). It is especially at this point that NA tends to be circular, shaping and reshaping the future courses and adding to their efficacy. The framework goes as follows:

Figure 7

A Framework for doing NA (Adapted by Mohammadi&Nacer, 2013:1015)



This figure exposes the major and general stages of doing a Needs Analysis. These stages come along with ten steps:

A. Get ready to do NA

1. Define the purpose of the NA
2. Delimit the student population
3. Decide upon approach(es) and syllabus(es)
4. Recognize constraints
5. Select data collection procedures

B. Do the NA research

6. Collect data
7. Analyze data
8. Interpret results

C. Use the NA results

9. Determine objectives
10. Evaluate the report on the NA project

8.5 Methods for gathering needs data

Needs assessment makes use of both subjective and objective information. Different instruments can be used to collect data about as questionnaires, interviews, tests, and observation.

8.5.1 The questionnaire

The questionnaire is viewed as list of a research or survey questions asked to respondents, and designed to extract specific information. It serves four basic purposes: to (1) collect the appropriate data, (2) make data comparable and amenable to analysis, (3) minimize bias in formulating and asking question, and (4) to make questions engaging and varied.

Moreover, a common understanding amongst scholars is that the questionnaire is an instrument used to collecting and recording information about a particular issue including a list of questions. For the fulfillment of this purpose, the questionnaire can be completed in one of the following two basic ways: (a) with the absence of researcher i.e. the respondents are given the questionnaire to answer with no reference or help of the researcher. (b) with the presence of the researcher. This last is referred to as an interview (structure, semi-structure, or unstructured). This does not deny that the questionnaire cannot be answered with the presence of the researcher.

8.5.1.1 Strengths of using the Questionnaire

The following Strengths motivated the researcher to use this instrument as a data collection method (Kemper, 2003)

- ✓ Good for measuring attitudes and eliciting other content from research participants inexpensive (especially mail questionnaires and group-administered questionnaires)
- ✓ Can administer to probability samples
- ✓ Quick turnaround
- ✓ Can be administered to groups
- ✓ Perceived anonymity by respondents possibly high

- ✓ Moderately high measurement validity for well-constructed and well-tested questionnaires
- ✓ Low drop rate for closed-ended questionnaires
- ✓ Ease of data analysis for closed-ended items

Furthermore, the main advantages of the questionnaire is that it is relatively easy to analyse and familiar to library staff and managers. Yet, it allows the researcher to get in touch with a large sample of the given population and can be contacted at relatively low cost as it is simple to administer. Additionally, the format of the questionnaire is likely to be familiar to most respondents; which in return make it simple and quick for them to complete it as they will have time to think about their answers and are not usually required to reply immediately

8.5.1.2 Types of Questionnaire

Most of us know the importance of questionnaires in collecting survey data from a large audience, but are uncertain about the placement of different types of questions in questionnaire. There are different types of questionnaires possible that pollsters can send to their audience, and the format of questionnaire depends entirely on what information is to be extracted from respondents. Two types of questionnaire can be listed here: open-ended and closed-ended. This categorization is – of course- based on the nature of the questions included.

- **Open Ended Questionnaire**

This format make the participants feel free when expressing their opinions about the topic or the issue they are asked about. In addition to this, the questions used have no predetermined set of answers. This means that the respondent is free to answer whatever he/she feels right. If so, the researcher can obtain true, insightful and even unexpected suggestions. In other words, reliable and visible data can be ensured.

- **Closed Ended Questionnaire**

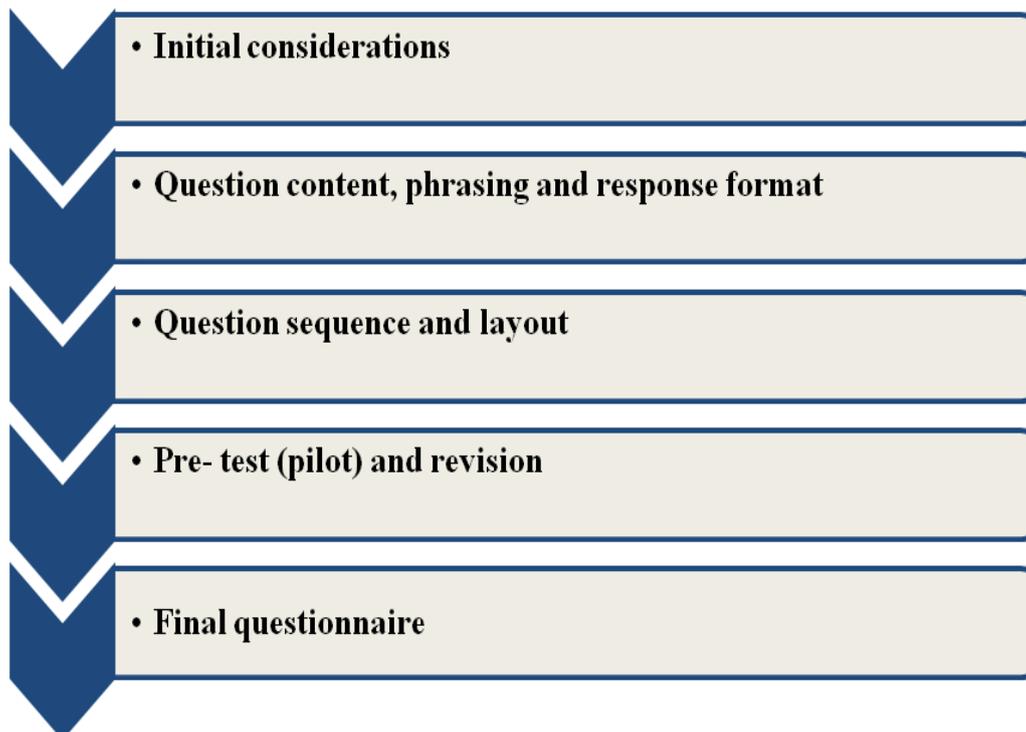
In this type, multiple choice questions are used. In other word, the participants are exposed to predetermined number of answers for each question. However, that number is not limited i.e. there is no rule of how many answers should be provided. One of the main advantages of including this type in case studies is the opportunity to perform preliminary analysis as the research will have a bird-eye view about what will be provided as answers.

8.5.1.3 Questionnaire Design

A careful consideration has been given to the design of the research questionnaire. This was to ensure greater validity and reliability of the information obtained. However, it was not an easy task since efforts were needed in developing the different stages of the design. The following figure illustrates more:

Figure 8

Questionnaire Design



8.5.1.4 Samples of questionnaires

Sample 1 Questionnaire designed by Bensafa (2015)

Students' Questionnaire

Dear students, the following questionnaire is addressed to gather information about your difficulties in writing and thus design the appropriate writing course in the future to help you write scientific paper to be published in scientific journals. So would you please answer the following questions.

A. General Overview about the Learning Career

I. How many years have you been studying English in the department?
.....

II. Do you think that English is important in your studies(**choose one of the following answers**)

Yes no to some extent

III. Your teachers of English, have they been subject specialist or language teacher?.....

IV. How do you rate your knowledge of the following skills? (**use X to choose the right column**)

	weak	acceptable	good	Very good
Reading				
Listening				
Speaking				
Writing				
Grammar				
vocabulary				

V. What do you most need in your studies? (**circle the needed skill**)

XI. What are the difficulties you generally encounter while writing? (**Use X to choose**)

sentence structure	
Lack of vocabulary	
Grammar	
Format	
About the content	
Organizing the content	
Language used	

C. description of the scientific writing course

XII. Have you ever written a scientific paper?

- No**
- Yes, how many?.....**

XIII. What do you know about how to write a scientific paper?

.....

.....

.....

XIV. Are there any particular criteria to writing a paper about physics?

- No**
- Yes (please explain).....**

.....

.....

XV. Have you received any training on writing about physics?

- No**
- Yes, please explain**

.....

XVI. How much difficulty you experience in writing the following sections of the scientific paper in English. **(Use X to choose)**

Section of the paper	none	little	some	quite a lot	a lot
1. The abstract					
2. The introduction					
3. The theoretical framework					
4. Instruments and methods					
5. exposing the results					
6. discussion of results					
7. Other sections					
8. conclusions					
9. acknowledgements					
10. The response to peer reviewers' comments.					

Can you please suggest any further recommendations or comments?

.....

Thank you for your collaboration

Sample 2. Questionnaire designed by Haddam (2008)

Teachers' Questionnaire

Dear colleagues

The following questionnaire is only an instrument of research which contributes greatly to the achievement of my magister thesis that aims at conducting a needs analysis to propose an English programme for students in the Institute of Biology.

Thank you for your co-operation

Mrs F. Haddam

Please tick (*) in the appropriate box the chosen answer or give a full answer where needed;

Question 1: Gender

-Male

-Female

Question 2: What degree do you have?

-Licence

-Magister

-Doctorate

Question 3: What is your field of specialism?

-Linguistic

-ESP

-Literature

-Civilisation

Question 4: How long have you been teaching at the university?

-At the English Department.....years

-At the 'Institute Peripheriques'years

Question 5: Did you have any special training in ESP?

-YES

-NO

Question 6: Do you find the amount of time assigned to the module of English you are teaching appropriate (ESP course)?

-YES

-NO

Question 7: What amount of time would you suggest for the module of English (as an ESP TEACHER?)

-Explain, briefly why:

Question 8: How would you describe your students' attendance (in ESP course)?

-Regular

-Average

-Irregular

Question 9: How would you describe your ESP' students in the course?

-Highly motivated

-Motivated

-Not motivated at all

Question 10: Is there any objectives and syllabus provide by the administration for the module of English you are teaching (in an ESP department)?

-Objectives (YES/NO)

-Syllabus (YES/NO)

-If 'yes', what are, briefly the main points of such objectives and /or syllabus?

Question 11: Which type of teaching materials did you use?

Question 12: On which ground did you select your teaching materials?

-Relevance to the topic

-Difficulty of English

Question 13: What did you focus most on in your teaching?

-Grammar

-Comprehension

-Writing

-Reading

-Pronunciation

-Terminology and translation

Question 14: Did you conduct a formal 'needs analysis' at the beginning of the course (in ESP course)?

-YES

-NO

-If 'yes' state, briefly what you consider to be the most important results of this analysis:

Question 15: Did you conduct an informal ‘needs analysis’ at the beginning of the course (in ESP course)?

-YES

-NO

Question 16: Did you enjoy your experience as an ESP teacher?

-YES

-NO

Question 17: What would you suggest to improve the teaching of English in the ‘Institute Pripherique’?

Thank you

8.5.2 Interview

Semi-structured or structured interview are data collection instruments or techniques. The researcher has a list of key themes, issues, and questions to be covered. In this type, the classification of questions can be changed depending on the direction of the interview. A guide (rubrics) is also used, but additional questions can be asked. (Kajornboon, 2004).

8.5.2.1 General Objectives

This instrument is rooted in the history of data collection instruments. Corbetta (2003:270) presents the semi-structured interview as follows: “The order in which the various topics are dealt with and the wording of the questions are left to the interviewer’s direction”. Within a given topic, Corbetta added that:

The interviewer is free to conduct the conversation as he thinks, to ask the questions he deems appropriate in the words he considers best, to give explanations and ask for clarification if the answer is not clear, to prompt the respondent to elucidate further if necessary and to establish his own style of conversation.

The strengths of this type of interview are the additional questions that can be asked and the ones that have not been anticipated in the beginning of the interview. Note taking or tape recording can help the researcher to report the interview. This gives him more opportunities to check out the views and opinions of the interviewees. In this vein, Gray (2004:217) notes that “probing is a way for the interviewer to explore new paths which were not initially considered”.

In the same path, David and Sutton (2004:87) argue: “Having key themes and sub- questions in advance lies in giving the researcher a sense of order from which to draw questions from unplanned encounters”.

Besides, Cohen (2006) raised the point that many researchers like to use semi-structured interviews because questions can be prepared ahead of time. This allows the interviewer to be prepared and appear competent during the interview. Additionally, the instrument allows informants the freedom to express their views in their own terms. Furthermore, semi-structure interviews can provide reliable, comparable qualitative data and encourages two-way communication.

Those being interviewed can ask questions of the interviewer. In this way it can also function as an extension tool confirms what is already known but also provides the opportunity for learning. Often the information obtained from semi-structured interviews will provide not just answers, but the reasons for the answers.

Also, when individuals are interviewed they may more easily discuss sensitive issues help field staff become acquainted with community members. Outsiders may be better at interviewing because they are perceived as more objective, i.e., using both individual and group interviews can optimise the strengths of both.

In sum, the researcher conducting a semi-structured interview is free than the one conducting a structured interview (kajornboon, 2004) in which the interviewer has to adhere to a detailed interview guide. Harrell and Bradley (2009:16) summarize the strengths of this instrument:

- ✓ Positive rapport between interviewer and interviewee. Very simple, efficient and practical way of obtaining data about things that can't be easily observed (feelings and emotions, for example).
- ✓ High Validity. People are able to talk about something in detail and depth. The meanings behind an action may be revealed as the interviewee is able to Speak for themselves with little direction from interviewer.
- ✓ Complex questions and issues can be discussed / clarified. The interviewer can probe areas suggested by the respondent's answers, picking-up information that had either not occurred to the interviewer or of which the interviewer had no prior knowledge.
- ✓ Pre-Judgment: Problem of researcher predetermining what will or will not be discussed in the interview is resolved with few "pre-set questions" involved, the interviewer is not "pre judging" what is and is not important information.
- ✓ Easy to record interview (video / audio tapes).

8.5.2.2 Samples of interviews

Sample.1 Interview designed by Lamri (2015)

Dear Colleague

I am conducting research in the field of teaching Legal English at university level. I would be grateful for the contribution that you may provide as teacher in the field by answering this interview.

Part One: Setting Information

1. What is your position in the university? - Part-time teacher, Full-time teacher
2. What is your post-graduate field of specialization?
3. For how many years have you taught ELP?
4. To what level (s) have you taught ELP?
5. Did you receive any training to teach ELP?

Part Two: Present Teaching Situation

6. What is the nature of the English language course you are teaching?

General English Legal English Other

7. What sub-skills in reading do you emphasize in your teaching?

8. What is the time allocated to the teaching of English per week? How much time do you devote to reading?

9. To what extent are you satisfied with the syllabus provided? If unsatisfied, what are your reasons?

10. Which reading strategies do you teach to your students?

11. Do you believe in any kind of cooperation between English teachers and subject specialists?

12. Do you give activities around the topic before the act of reading in order to facilitate it?

13. Do you supervise your students' reading process in class?

14. Do you give home reading activities to your students?

Part Three: Students' Academic Needs Identification

15. Do you proceed to a NIA of your students?

16. What is your focus when teaching reading?

Reading academic papers,

Reading law texts,

Reading legal letters,

Reading in general

17. What are the main weaknesses that you have observed in your students' when performing reading comprehension activities;

- Lack of Linguistic competence:

The ability to recognize the elements of the writing system;

Knowledge of vocabulary;

Knowledge of how words are structured into sentences

- Lack of Discourse competence:

Knowledge of discourse markers

How they connect parts of the text to one another

- Lack of Sociolinguistic competence: knowledge about different types of texts and their usual structure and content

- Lack of Strategic competence: the ability to:

Skim the main idea of the text.

Scan and identify text structure, confirm or question predictions.

Guess from context the meanings of unknown words.

Paraphrase the information and ideas in the text

18. Are the causes of the above mentioned weaknesses due to:

Insufficient teaching time devoted to ELP

Insufficient teaching time devoted to reading activities

Lack of materials (lesson books, exercise books etc...)

Students' negative attitudes towards the English language

Other.....

...

19. At which level do you think students have the greatest difficulty of comprehension?

at the Phonological level,

at the syntactic one

or at the , lexical level?

Part Four: Readiness for Blended Learning

20. Do you use audio-visual aids in the classroom? Which ones?

21. Do you use internet (in order to send lectures, language activities, instruction) in your teaching?

22. Would you like to use the blended approach to teach ELP?

23. Do you think that it is possible to use this approach in the present situation?

Why?

24. What do you suggest to your students to overcome their reading difficulties?

Thank you for your collaboration

Sample 2. Interview designed by Bensafa (2016)

Teachers' interview

Dear teachers, the following interview is addressed to gather information about the difficulties master students of physics encounter for writing their research papers.

I. Teachers' profile

1. How many years have you been teaching English?
2. Are you a language teacher or a subject specialist?
3. Which skills do you most focus on while teaching English in the department of physics?

Reading writing speaking listening

4. Have you received any training in teaching English for students of physics?

II. Issues, tensions, and challenges associated with writing

1. According to you, what is the importance of the writing skill compared to the other language skills?
2. Which assignments do you generally suggest to you students?
3. Do you teach your students about writing a scientific paper?
4. What are the common difficulties your students often experience while writing their papers about physics?
5. What are the possible reasons you may list for those difficulties your students face?

III. Methodologies and techniques to assist students overcome their difficulties in writing research papers.

1. **Do you raise your students' awareness about the necessity to make efforts to writing a research paper?**
2. **In what ways do you motivate your students** and realize that their writing skills are important for their future careers?

- 3. While teaching about writing; do you use any model of a research paper to follow? If yes explain**
- 4. Do you read and discuss with your students their research papers in your class?**
5. Based on your own professional experience, what would you please suggest particular recommendations or activities for you students to overcome their difficulties to writing their research papers?

Thanks for your collaboration

8.5.3 Tests

Test as an instrument is a valuable source to gather data and to evaluate the influence of a variable under specific conditions with specific subjects i.e. it can provide information about the learners' skills competence, the teaching procedure and the teaching materials. In this view, Bachman (1990) suggests that in addition to measuring learners' performances, tests can, also be considered as a kind of research instrument used to analyse the teaching and testing situation "...in a language programme a number of things are evaluated other than learner proficiency. These may include the effectiveness of particular methods or materials... learner/teacher satisfaction, teaching effectiveness, etc" (CEFRL: 177)

8.5.3.1 Samples of Tests

Sample reading Maze test designed by Lamri (2015)

Curriculum-Based Measurement: *Maze Passage: Examiner Copy*
Student/Classroom: _____ **Examiner:** _____ **Assessment**
Date: _____

Passing an Act **Professional English in Use Law**

All Acts must be submitted to both Houses of parliament in the draft form of a Bill.

The

legislative process involves three readings (**in**) both houses. At the first reading, (**the**) title is read to members of (**Parliament**) (MPs); at the second reading, MPs (**debate**) proposals.

Then a standing committee will (**scrutinize**) the provisions in the Bill and (**may**) amend it to ensure that it (**enshrines**) the principles debated and approved at (**the**) second reading. This is reported back (**to**) MPs. At the third reading, the (**bill**) is represented. The Bill then goes (**through**) readings in the upper house. The (**actual**) drafting of the legislation is undertaken (**by**) Parliamentary Counsel. Finally, a bill must (**receive**) Royal Assent from the monarch before (**it**) becomes law on a specified date. (**In**) fact, this stage has been reduced (**to**) a formal reading of the short (**title**) of an act in both Houses (**of**) parliament and is now a formality. (**Government**) Bills are introduced by the Government; (**Private**) Members Bills are proposed by MPs. (**Both**) methods may result in Public Acts (**that**) govern the general individuals or institutions.

Readability Estimation

Formula Value

Dale-Chall 7-8

Flesch Index 64.8/100 (plain English)

Curriculum-Based Measurement: *Maze Passage: Student Copy*

#/Correct: _____ **#/Errors:** _____

Student Name: _____ **Classroom:** _____ **Date:** _____

Passing an Act

Professional English in Use Law

All Acts must be submitted to both Houses of parliament in the draft form of a Bill. The legislative process involves three readings (**release, in, basin**) both houses. At the first reading, (**the, face, over**) title is read to members of (**Parliament, goat, broken**) (MPs); at the second reading, MPs (**went, upset, debate**) proposals. Then a standing committee will (**scrutinize, prevent, food**) the provisions in the Bill and (**fought, may, amused**) amend it to ensure that it (**son, solemnly, enshrines**) the principles debated and approved at (**vanish, rain, the**) second reading. This is reported back (**square, save, to**) MPs. At the third reading, the (**bill, side, throughout**) is re-presented. The Bill then goes (**dirty, husky, through**) readings in the upper house. The (**madly, actual, mend**) drafting of the legislation is undertaken (**rest, by, flown**) Parliamentary Counsel. Finally, a bill must (**neatly, took, receive**) Royal Assent from the monarch before (**it, promptly, sky**) becomes law on a specified date. (**Wood, Prevent, In**) fact, this stage has been reduced (**to, opinion, began**) a formal reading of the short (**title, morning, straight**) of an act in both Houses (**of, reject, soft**) parliament and is now a formality. (**Basket, Government, Glamorous**) Bills are introduced by the Government; (**family, Private, clearly**) Members Bills are proposed by MPs. (**Both, Amuse, Credit**) methods may result in Public Acts (**that, cord, went**) govern the general individuals or institutions.

8.5.4 Observation

The observation method is a research tool often used to measure and collect data about people's attitudes and behaviors in a natural setting and in a systematic manner. According to Stallings (1980: 469) common elements exist in almost all observational situations:

- a purpose for the observation
- operational definitions of all the observed behaviors
- training procedures for observers
- a specific observational focus
- a setting
- a unit of time
- an observation schedule
- a method to record the data
- a method to process and analyze data

8.5.4.1 Sample observation

Classroom observation checklist designed by Mahi (2021)

Observation Report

Institut National de Formation Supérieure des Sages-Femmes

Classroom Observation Report

Observer: **Session number:**

Course: **Date/ Time of observation:**

This form is used by the observer to report the findings from the classroom observation. It includes a checklist for both the teacher and learners of Medical English for Nurses at INFSSF institute. It aims at investigating the practice of CS in the ESP teaching situation and spotting learners attitudes towards their teacher's adoption of this practise.

a) Teacher's Checklist:

Occurrences of Teacher's CS during English session	Yes	NO	Comments
1. Translating			
2. Explaining (Help-switching			
3. Explaining task instruction			
4. Providing illustrations			
5. Increases learners' comprehension			
6. Emphasizing important points			
7. Clarifying misunderstood points			
8. Teaching time management			
9. Attract attention			
10. Reinforce a request			
11. Motivating learners' involvement			
12. Easing tension and injecting humor			
13. Shifting to new topics			

b) Learners' Checklist:

Occurrences of learners' CS during English session	Yes	No	Comments
1. Lack of content knowledge			
2. Lack of linguistic competence			
3. Lack of fluency in conversing			
4. Expressing their opinions and ideas			
5. Conveying precise and meaningful information			
6. Communicating with other classmates			
7. Habitual expressions			
8. Emphasis a point			
9. Mood of the speaker			

III. COURSE, CURRICULUM AND SYLLABUS

9. ESP Course Design

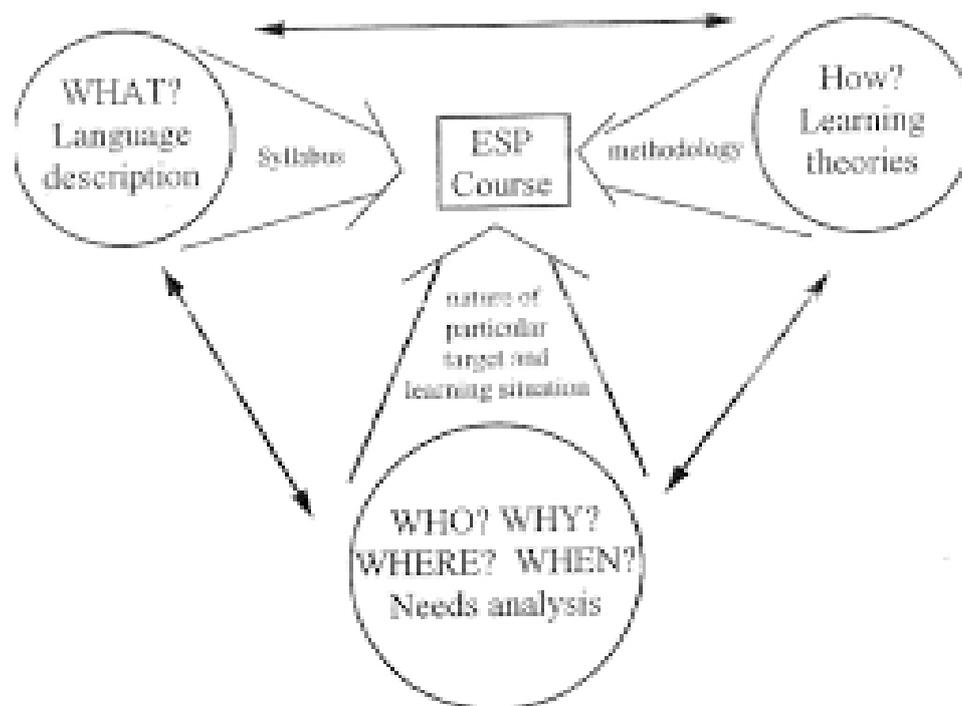
Essential to course design are the analysis of students' needs and the tailoring of the design to fit those needs. This means in practice that much of the work done by ESP teachers is concerned with designing appropriate courses for various groups of learners. Whereas, course design plays a relatively minor part in the life of the general English teacher courses here usually being determined either by tradition, choice of textbook or ministerial decree. While the ESP teacher, course design is often a substantial and importance part of the workload. Designing a course is fundamentally a matter of asking question in order to provide a reasoned basis for the subsequent processes of syllabus design materials writing, classroom teaching and evaluation. For Hutchinson and Waters (1987), to design an ESP course, three main headings should be taken into consideration: Language description, theories of learning and needs analysis. The teachers should look to the practical aspect that is often characterised as the distinguishing features of ESP-needs analysis: what are the necessities, lacks and wants of the learners.

9.1. Factors Affecting ESP Course Design

Hutchinson and Water (1987) emphasized on the fact that ESP teachers are concerned more with designing appropriate courses for various groups of learners. There are three factors affecting ESP course design: Language description, Learning theories, Needs Analysis. The interdependence of these factors in the course design process is very important. The course design must bring the learner into play at all stages of the design process.

Figure 9

Factors Affecting ESP Course Design (Hutchinson & Waters 1987:22)



The task for the ESP developer is to ensure that all three of these factors are integrated into syllabus. This is a difficult task due to the incredible amount of research required. Because ESP requires comprehensive needs analysis and because the learning-centered syllabus is not static, it is impossible to expect that the developer be in a position to identify the perfect balance of the abilities noted above for any particular group of learners.

9.1.1 Language Description

Language Description is the way in which the language system is broken down and described for the purposes of learning. Terms such as ‘structural’, ‘functional’ and ‘notional’ properly belong to this area. They refer to ways of analyzing and describing the language. They say nothing about how language items described can or should be taught.

9.1.2. Learning Theories

It is the Learning Theories which provides the theoretical basis for the methodology, by helping us to understand how people learn. It is also important to note that theories of learning are not necessarily confined to how people learn language, but can refer equally to the learning of any kind of knowledge, for example how to drive a car. In the area of learning theories the relevant terms we shall consider are ‘behaviourist’, ‘cognitive’ and ‘affective’

9.1.3. Needs Analysis

We have defined ESP as an approach to course design which starts with questions ‘why do these learners need to learn English? But it could be argued that this should be the starting question to any course General or ESP. All courses are based on a perceived need of some sort.

9.2 Approaches to Course Design

According to Hutchinson and Waters, course design is the process by which the raw data about a learning need is interpreted in order to produce an integrated series of teaching-learning experience; whose ultimate aim is to lead the learner to a particular state of knowledge. This entails the use of the theoretical and empirical information available to produce a syllabus; to develop a methodology for teaching those materials and to establish evaluation procedures by which progress towards the specified goals will be measured.

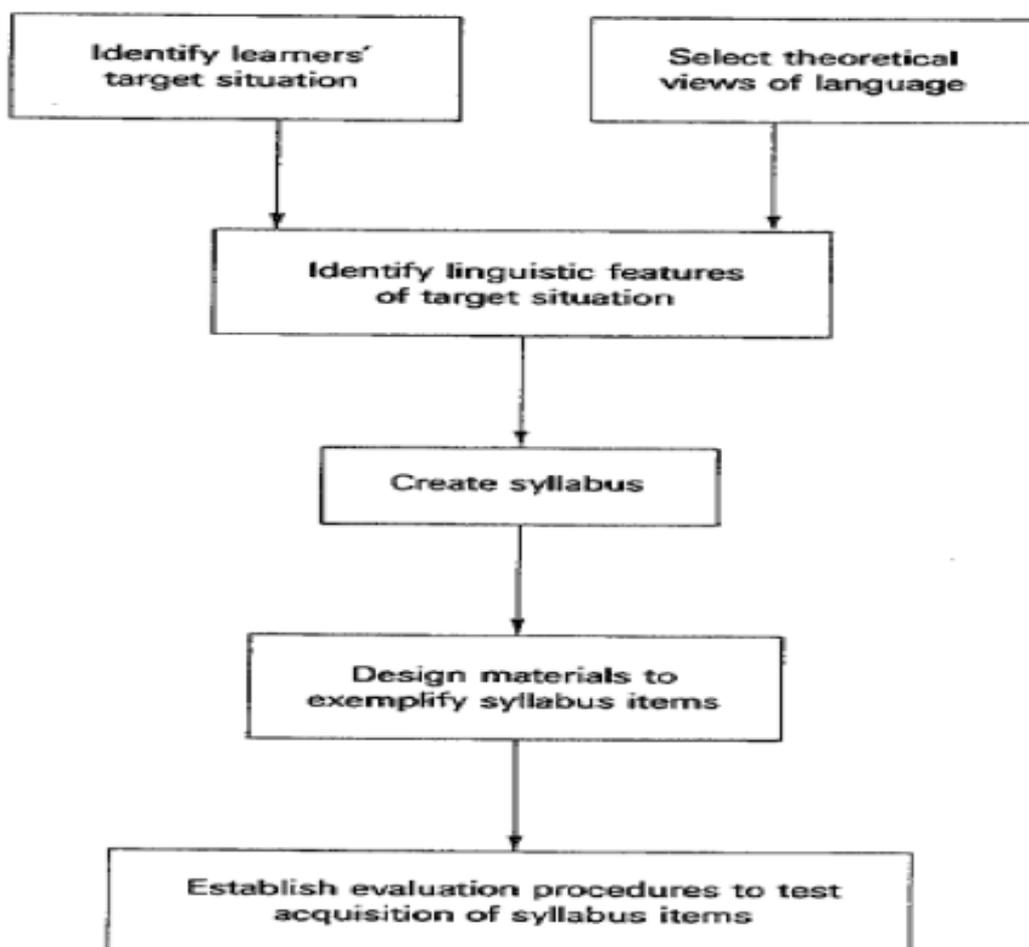
Three main approaches to course design can be identified: Language-centered, Skill-centered, and Learning-centered:

9.2.1 Language-Centered

This is the simplest kind of course design process and is probably the one most familiar to English Teachers. This aims to draw as direct connections as possible between the analysis of the target situation and the content of ESP course.

Figure 10

Language-centered approach (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987)



However, it has a number of weaknesses:

- a- It starts from the learner and their needs. It might be considered as a learner-centered approach. The learner is simply used as a means of identifying the target situation.

- b- It is a static and inflexible procedure, which can take little account of the conflicts and contradictions that are inherent in any human endeavour.
- c- It appears to be systematic. The fact that knowledge has been systematically analysed and systematically presented does not in any way imply that it will be systematically learnt. Learners have to make the system meaningful to themselves. And unfortunately we have to admit that we do not know enough about how the mind actually goes about creating its internal system of knowledge.
- d- It gives no acknowledgement to factors which must inevitably play a part in the creation of any course. Data is not important in itself.
- e- The language-centred analysis of target situation data is only at the surface level. It reveals very little about the competence that underlies the performance.

9.2.2 Skill-Centered

It has been applied in a number of countries, particularly in Latin America. Students in universities and colleges there have the limited, but important need to read subject texts in English, because they are unavailable in the mother tongue. In response to this need, a number of ESP projects have been set up with specific aim of developing the students' ability to read in English.

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) state that the role needs analysis in this approach is to help the ESP practitioner discover the potential knowledge and competences of the learner, and their perspectives of the target situation.

Skills centred model view language in terms of how the mind of the learner processes it rather than as an entity in itself. In addition, it tries to build on the positive factors that the learners bring to the course, rather than just on the negative idea of 'lacks'. Finally, it frames the objectives in open-ended terms, so enabling learners to achieve at least something. Yet, in spite of its concern for the learner, the skills-centred approach still approaches the learner as a user of language rather as learner of language.

9.2.3 Learning –Centered

This approach is based on the principle that learning is totally determined by the learner. As teachers we can influence what we teach, but what learners learn is determined by the learners alone learning is seen as a process in which the learners use what knowledge or skills they have in order to make sense of the flow of new information. Learning, therefore, is an internal process which is crucially dependent upon the knowledge learners' already have and their ability and motivation to use it. Learning is not just a mental process; it is a process of negotiation between individuals and society.

In a learning-centred situation; students are ultimately responsible for their own learning using different strategies. For example they have to engage in assigned learning activities and exert the effort required to learn. So, if students are supposed to take responsibility for their own learning, it is time to give them more control over the way learning experiences are structured. In addition to this, teachers delivering a learning-centred need to control aspects of the course to ensure that they meet their professional responsibility to create a course that addresses certain learning outcomes. In the same line, students need to control aspects of the learning environment to meet individual learning goals and maintain motivation.

The idea behind this approach is that the learner is the main actor in the learning process for this to happen it takes the following principles:

- Learning is totally determined by the learner who uses his knowledge and skills to make sense of new information.
- Learning is not just a mental process; it is a process of negotiation between individuals and society.
- Course design is negotiation process in which both the target situation influences the features of the syllabus and also it is a dynamic process in which means and recourses vary from time to time

10. Curriculum and Syllabus

This part will shed light on the key differences between the concepts of curriculum and syllabus. The aim behind drawing this distinction is to facilitate the process of design and development for both language teachers and ESP practitioners. Before speaking about the differences, it should be stressed that curriculum and syllabus are key components in any educational system.

10.1 Curriculum

Curriculum is an overall plan for a course or programme. It includes the following areas:

- ✓ the educational purpose of the programme.
- ✓ the content of the programme and the sequence in which it will be taught, (also known as the syllabus)
- ✓ the teaching procedures and learning activities that will be employed (i.e. methodology)
- ✓ the means used to assess student learning (i.e. assessment and testing)
- ✓ the means used to assess whether the programme has achieved its goals (i.e. evaluation)

According to Print (1993) curriculum as the *raison d'être* of education, the very substance of schooling. This means that the concept of curriculum is the total programme of formal studies offered by a school or institution, as in the secondary school curriculum.

10.1.1 Curriculum Alignment

Curriculum Alignment is the extent to which the different elements of the curriculum (goals, syllabus, teaching, and assessment) match. For example if a curriculum is organized communicatively, but assessment procedures are based on

grammatical criteria or if teaching materials in a course did not reflect the objectives there would be a lack of curriculum alignment.

10.1.2 Curriculum guide

Curriculum guide refers to a written document describing the academic curriculum of a school and usually containing a description of its teaching philosophy, its goals and objectives, and its methods of teaching and assessment.

10.1.3 Curriculum ideology

The beliefs and values which provide the philosophical justification for educational programmes and the kinds of aims they contain. An ideology represents a particular point of view concerning the most important knowledge and value from the culture. Common curriculum ideologies in language teaching are:

- ✓ *First academic rationalism*: the view that the curriculum should stress the intrinsic value of the subject matter and its role in developing the learner's intellect, humanistic values and rationality. This justification is often used for justifying the teaching of classical languages.
- ✓ *Second social and economic efficiency*: the view that the curriculum should focus on the practical needs of learners and society and the role of an educational programme in producing learners who are economically productive. This is the commonest aim associated with the teaching of English.
- ✓ *Third learner-centredness*: the view that the curriculum should address the individual needs of learners, the role of individual experience, and the *curriculum development* need to develop awareness, self-reflection, critical thinking, learner strategies and other qualities and skills believed to be important for learners to develop.

- ✓ *Fourth social-reconstructionism*: the view that schools and teaching should play a role in addressing social injustices and inequality. Education is not seen as a neutral process, and schools should engage teachers and learners in an examination of important social issues and seek ways of resolving them. This is the ideology of critical pedagogy.
- ✓ *Fifth cultural pluralism*: the view that schools should prepare students to participate in several different cultures and not merely the culture of the dominant social and economic group.

10.2 Syllabus

It seems of great importance to define ‘syllabus’ in order to have a better understanding of what it actually meant by the term in education. Hutchinson & Waters (1987: 80) define “Syllabus” as “... a document which says what will (or at least what should) be learnt”. In the same vein, Robinson (1991: 34) states that syllabus is “a plan of work and is, thus, essential for the teacher, as a guideline and context of class content.” The above assertions point out that the syllabus first concerns the teacher, and that it helps him/her plan courses.

Yalden (1984: 14) argued that: the syllabus replaces the concept of ‘method’, and the syllabus is now seen as an instrument by which the teacher, with the help of the syllabus designer, can achieve a degree of ‘fit’ between the needs and aims of the learner (as social being and as individual) and the activities which will take place in the classroom.

Basturkmen (2006:20) argues that “in order to specify what language will be taught, items are typically listed and referred to as the syllabus”. She exemplifies the definition by giving a standard view of the syllabus through the figure below.

Figure 11

Characteristics of a syllabus (Course in Language Teaching, CUP,1996)

A syllabus:

- 1- Consists of a comprehensive list of
 - content items (words, structures, topics)
 - process items (tasks, methods)
- 2- Is ordered (easier, more essential items first)
- 3- Has explicit document
- 4- Is a public document
- 5- May indicate a time schedule
- 6- May indicate preferred methodology or approach
- 7- May recommend materials

Another issue in defining ‘syllabus’ is that it is “an instrument by which the teacher,...., can achieve a certain coincidence between the needs and the aims of the learners, and the activities that will take place in the classroom” (Yalden 1987:86) that is to say that the syllabus is “a teaching device to facilitate learning” (Nunan 1988:6) which organises classroom activities according to learners aims and requirements after the process of needs identification and analysis.

10.2.1 Syllabus Design

Nunan (1988:5) states it ‘Syllabus design is mainly concerned with the selection and grading of content’. And According to Harmer (2001:295), every type of syllabus needs to be developed on the basis of certain criteria, such as ‘learnability’ and ‘frequency’, which can inform decisions about selection and ordering.

10.2.2 Syllabus Design Criteria

Harmer (2001) came out with the belief that when syllabus designers put syllabuses together they have to think about each item for inclusion on the basis of a number of criteria. The criteria he came out with are described below.

First Learnability: Some structural or lexical items are easier for students to learn than others. Consequently, simpler language items are to be taught at first place then increase the level of difficulty as the learners' language level improves. Learnability implies that, at beginner levels, it is simpler to deal with the uses of was and were right after teaching is and are, rather than presenting the third conditional after is and are.

Second Frequency: The inclusion of items which are more frequent in language, than those which are occasionally used by native speakers seems to have more sense especially at beginning levels. The use of see to express vision is less used than that which is equivalent with understand (eg. Oh, I see). It is, therefore, more logic to teach that second meaning of see which is more frequent in use than the first one.

Third Coverage: Some words and structures have greater coverage (scope for use) than others. Thus it might be decided, on the basis of coverage, to introduce the going to future before the present continuous with future reference, if it could be shown that going to could be used in more situations than the present continuous.

Fourth Usefulness: The reason that words like book and pen figure so highly in classroom (in spite of the fact that they might not be used so frequently in real language use) is due to their usefulness in that situation. Similarly, a word dealing with family members take place early on in a pupil's learning life because they are useful in the context of what pupils are linguistically able to talk about.

10.2.3 Designing an ESP Syllabus

An ESP syllabus requires that the target objectives and language that the learner will be expected to master must be broken down into an optionally sequenced series of teaching and learning points.

According to Breen (1987: 83) “the meeting point of a perspective upon language itself, upon using language, and upon teaching and learning which is a contemporary and commonly accepted interpretation of the harmonious links between theory, research, and classroom practice.”

When designing an ESP Syllabus, there are things to consider

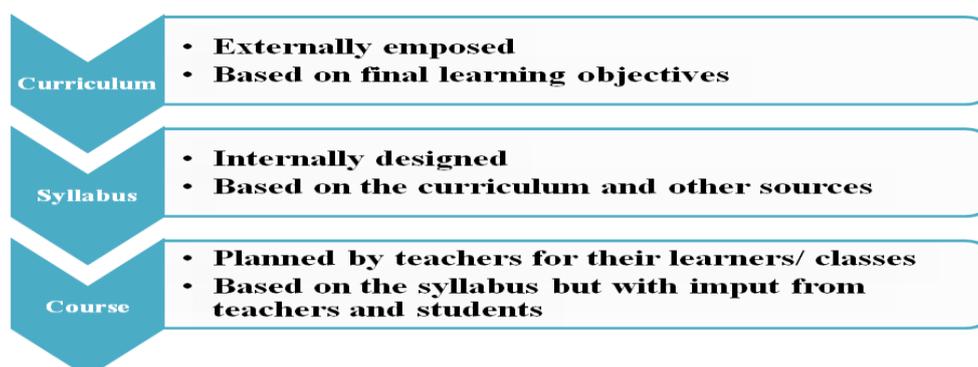
1. The Students (Age, Language Proficiency, Level of Competence, Goals, Interests and Contributions)
2. The Task (Communication Tasks and Language Skills)
3. The Text
4. External Constraints (Time, Resources, Terminal exams and Expectations)
5. Syllabus Format (Goals and Objectives, Topics/Activities/Skills, Time Frame, Teaching/Learning Strategies, Requirements/Expectations and Materials)

9.3 Differences between curriculum and syllabus

The above descriptions clarify the existing confusion between the two concepts. Hence, the curriculum encloses the general content for a course to be instructed in a definite period of time; while the syllabus gives details about the topics or units to be covered. The following table explains these differences

Figure 12

Major differences between curriculum, syllabus and course (Adapted from Prabhu 1984)



IV.TEACHING ESP

11. ESP materials

Deciding which ESP materials to be used determines the running of the course and underlines content of the lesson. Hutchinson and Waters, (1992, p 107) theorized that

Good material should help teacher in organizing the course or what is more it can function as an introduction into the new learning techniques, and support teachers and learners in the process of learning. Materials are also a kind of teacher reflection, “they should truly reflect what you think and feel about the learning process

From the above quotation, one can say that good material should be based on various interesting texts and activities providing a wide range of skills. Teachers determines which aspects of ESP learning will be focused on but one piece of material can serve for developing more than one skill, e.g. reading, listening, vocabulary etc. Materials should also function as a link between already learnt (‘existing knowledge’) and new information. (ibid)

Materials selection, adaptation, or writing is an important area in ESP teaching, representing a practical result of effective course development and providing students with materials that will equip them with the knowledge they will need in their future business life.

11.1 Materials defined

Materials are “anything which can be used to facilitate the learning of a language, including coursebooks, videos, graded readers, flash cards, games, websites and mobile phone interactions” (Tomlinson, 2012, p. 143). They can be

“informative (informing the learner about the target language), instructional (guiding the learner in practising the language), experiential (providing the learner with experience of the language in use), eliciting (encouraging the learner to use the language) and exploratory (helping the learner to make discoveries about the language)” (Tomlinson, 2012, p. 143). Ideally materials should be developed for learning rather than for teaching and they should perform all the functions specified above.

11.2 Materials Development

Materials development is a practical undertaking involving the production, evaluation, adaptation and exploitation of materials intended to facilitate language acquisition and development. It is also a field of academic study investigating the principles and procedures of the design, writing, implementation, evaluation and analysis of learning materials. Ideally materials development practitioners and materials development researchers interact and inform each other through conferences, publications and shared endeavours.

There have been a number of movements which have attempted to develop materials free approaches to the teaching of languages (e.g., the Dogme movement of Thornbury and Meddings (2001)) but it is commonly accepted that in most language classrooms throughout the world most lessons are still based on materials. Richards (2001, p. 251), for example, observes that “instructional materials generally serve as the basis of much of the language input that learners receive and the language practice that occurs in the classroom”. It is also commonly accepted that most language teachers use coursebooks and that no coursebook can meet the needs and wants of every (or even any) class (Tomlinson, 2010). This means that “Every teacher is a materials developer” (English Language Centre, 1997) who is constantly evaluating the available materials, adapting them, replacing them, supplementing them and finding effective ways to implement the materials chosen for classroom use.

Materials development must therefore be central to any course designed to train, educate or develop new or practising teachers and it must be accorded significance by the applied linguists and teacher trainers who run such courses and/or publish articles, chapters and books for use on them. In addition to the obvious pragmatic function of preparing teachers for the realities of classroom teaching materials development can also be extremely useful as a “way of helping teachers to understand and apply theories of language learning – and to achieve personal and professional development” (Tomlinson, 2001, p. 67).

11.3 ESP Material Adaptation

Adaptation denotes that languages teachers while in the ESP situation should look for the best of their classes. To do so, the following forms will be of great deal when opting for the process of materials adaptation. First Modifying the content by adding or deleting some parts to the material be it a textbook, a manuscript, or a recording. Second, reorganizing the content in terms of tasks; either by modifying or extending them according to the needs.

Now, the governing condition of all what has been said above is- as stated by Marand (2011:552 citing Graves 1996) -that abundant factors need to be taken into account while adapting materials. The most pivotal are: effectiveness in achieving the course objectives and appropriateness which encapsulates “student comfort and familiarity with the material, language level, interest and relevance”.

The last point to speak here is a frequent question asked by many ESP teachers or practitioners i.e. what are the ways of materials adaptation? But before, it should be stressed here that any material adaptation is based on an important previous process i.e. material evaluation. This last aims at investigating the deficiencies as well as the lacuna of ELT as to ESP materials. Coming back to the answer of the above question, it is summarised in the following table.

Table 2

Ways for Material Adaptation adopted from (Maley, 1998:281.)

Way	Description
Omission	The teacher leaves out things deemed inappropriate, offensive, unproductive, etc., for the particular group.
Addition	Where there seems to be inadequate coverage, teachers may decide to add to textbooks, either in the form of texts or exercise material.
Reduction	Where the teacher shortens an activity to give it less weight or emphasis.
Extension	Where an activity is lengthened in order to give it an additional dimension. (For example, a vocabulary activity is extended to draw attention to some syntactic patterning.)
Rewriting/ Modification	Teacher may occasionally decide to rewrite material, especially exercise material, to make it more appropriate, more “communicative”, more demanding, more accessible to their students, etc.
Replacement	Text or exercise material which is considered inadequate, for whatever reason, may be replaced by more suitable material.
Re-ordering	Teachers may decide that the order in which the textbooks are presented is not suitable for their students. They can then decide to plot a different course through the textbooks from the one the writer has laid down
Branching	Teachers may decide to add options to the existing

12. Teaching ESP

When it comes to the teaching of ESP, many researchers argue the idea that it is considered as an approach that focuses on language centred in both theory and practice. This leads to say that giving a definition of ESP establishing a context about how it is seen; at the present time; in relation to the rest of ELT branches is more than a necessity. According to Hutchinson and water (1987:16-20): “In the time honoured manner of Linguistics, we shall represent the relationship in the form of a tree”. They represent some of the common divisions that are made in ELT.

When looking to the top of the ELT tree (see appendix A), it shows the different branches at which individual ESP courses take place. This level is mainly divided into two types of ESP:

- ✓ For the requirements of academic studies the English needed is either: EOP, (English for Occupational Purpose), EVP, /English for Vocational Purpose, and VESL (Vocational English as a Second Language).
- ✓ EAP: English for Academic Purpose aiming at preparing individuals for work place as well as training.

This was about the top side of the tree; concerning the down, and at this level, the main concern is the nature of ESP courses related to a specific domain or area of interest (specialized courses). Here, three categorizations can be recognized: EST (English for Science and Technology), EBE (English for Business and Economics) and ESS (English for Social Sciences).

The last level to speak about is that ESP is just one branch of EFL (English as a foreign language) and /ESL (English as a second language). These two last formulate the main branches of English language teaching in general or what is referred to as EGP (English for general purposes. Now- and since we are talking about a tree-automatically it needs to be nourished. This is why communication and learning serve as the main roots without which that tree cannot survive.

Now, if someone tends to look at the analogy of a tree mentioned above, he or she will figure out what ESP is not about. The following criteria denote that idea. (Kristen, 2007)

- ✓ ESP is not just a matter of science words and grammar for scientist and so on. When we look at the tree, there is actually much hidden from view inside and beneath the tree although we know the leaves and the branches. They are supported by a complex underlying structure. The point is we need much more communication than just the surface features of what we read and hear and also we need to distinguish between performance and competence in relation to what people actually do with language and the range of knowledge and abilities which can enable them to do it.
- ✓ ESP is not different in kind from any other form of language teaching. It is based on the principles of effective and efficient learning. Even though the content of the learning is different; the processes of learning should be different for the ESP learner than for the general English learner.
- ✓ ESP is not a matter of teaching "specialized varieties" of English because the fact that language is used for a specific purpose. There are some features which can be identified as "typical" of a particular context of use, and which, later on help learners to be prepared to meet in the target situation.

To conclude this part, one can say ESP is a different form of ELT for the simple reason that it is an approach not a product. This idea is stressed by the fact that it (ESP) is based on learners' need with no emphasis on a given methodology or a particular type of teaching material. In addition to this the linguistic factor dominates both the origins and development of ESP where the focus is mainly on the nature of specific varieties of language use depending on both needs identification and analysis. This last, will be highlighted throughout this chapter. But before, what function does ESP have in the arena of ELT.

Typically, the rationale behind integrating ESP in ELT is to help language learners cope with features of language or develop the competencies needed to function in a discipline, professional practices, or work place. This led Benesch (1996)

to call for a critical approach to EAP (English for Academic Purposes) teaching. This view was supported by two main factors: first, the growing concern about the social and political implications of ESP teaching and second, the emergence of critical approaches in recent years. In sum, it is time to stand back from current practices in ESP teaching and consider the ideas and theories behind them.

In the same line with Benesch, Stern (1983) proposes a framework for analysis to examine ESP in practice and research comprising three (3) lines of enquiry: ideas about language, about learning, and about teaching. Here is a detailed discussion of these elements contributing in the formulation of the ESP approach and function as well.

When speaking about ESP teaching, it often takes- as a point of departure- the analysis and description of “language systems”. Hopper (1987:139) defines language systems as: “A set of abstract structures present for all speakers and hearers that is a prerequisite for the use of language.” Based on Hopper’s definition, three language systems can be seen as evidence in both ESP teaching and research. Furthermore, they represent the underlying functions of ESP. They are listed below.

12.1 Functions Related to Teaching and Research

The first function of ESP, is there to fulfil, is teaching. In this phase, a set of systems have to be covered: the grammatical structure which includes the rules governing the composition of clauses, phrases, and words. The core vocabulary that encompasses words frequently used and tended to be useful in a variety of situations. In sum, the primary function of ESP is to describe and ensure that learners are familiar with what is perceived to be the core of English. This was in teaching, so what about research?

Believing that research is a systematic process of collecting and analysing data to increase our understanding on a specific phenomenon (Leedy and Ormand, 2010), and in the same line with functions of ESP, the primary concern is to identify and describe the core structures. According to Helen (2008:44):

One of the major advantages of this approach to language description at a practical level is that fairly heterogeneous groups of ESP learners can be taught together; for example, English for General Academic Purpose's courses can be offered rather than English for specific academic purposes.

From Helen's (2008) argument, it is clearly seen that the set of basic structures, words, or generic patterns of text organization already mentioned above are seen to be the central underlying criteria of the ESP approach. This leads to say that having even a little knowledge about them is a prerequisite to language use regardless of specific domains. In line with these arguments, study of language use in the specific domain can come later.

12.2 Functions Regarding Language Use

In this part, our concern will be the description of language use and functional explanations of language. When dealing with the description of language use, the major focus is on the communicative purposes people wish to achieve and how language – as a means of communication- helps achieving those purposes.

When it comes to functional explanations of language, Brown and Levinson (1988: qtd in Helen, 2006:45) describe this fact as being: “To locate sources outside the linguistic systems that determine how language is organized.ESP has embraced such idea”.

As stated previously, the linguistic factor is a dominant one in ESP. This is why; the functional view of language is seen from two angles: first, the different types of linguistic enquiry in ESP, descriptions of speech acts, genres, and social interaction formulas used in professional, workplace, or academic environment. Second, the attempts made to identify how words are used in particular disciplines (such as economy or law) to express discipline- specific concepts or what it is called terminology.

In sum, the ESP approach is built on an assessment of purposes needs analysis, and the functions for which English is required. In fact, as a general rule, when

teaching EGP, the four skills i.e. listening; reading; speaking; and writing are stressed equally. However in an ESP context needs analysis plays a vital role in determining which of them is most needed by the student and consequently the syllabus will be designed accordingly.

In this sense, an ESP program, might, for example, emphasise the development of reading skills in students who are preparing for graduate work in business administration; or it might promote the development of spoken skills in students who are studying English in order to become tourist guides. (Lorenzo:2005). Now we move to examine the link between theories about language learning and ESP.

12.3 Functions towards Learning

Although explicit discussion of learning has been limited in the ESP literature, ideas about learning can be inferred from the course and materials designs developed and the types of research undertaken. We will divide this part into: ideas about the conditions needed in order for language learning to take place and the process through which learning is understood to occur.

Two ideas about the conditions and how these ideas are reflected in ESP teaching and research are as follows: the first idea (acculturation). The theory of acculturation can be broken down to include a few different topics; these include learning a new language, immersion, assimilation, and integration. Moreover, the concept is based on social considerations and is premised on the idea that ESP learners need to be enclosed social proximity or contact with their discourse communities (Schumann, 1986).

The second idea (input and interaction), it has been hypothesized that input which is comprehensible and interaction which has been modified best facilitate second language acquisition. Since the classroom is one of the few places where comprehensible input and modified interaction are made available, and since the teacher is an important source of input, this paper suggests that it is essential for ESL teachers to analyze what actually has gone on in their own language classrooms. Furthermore, is based on linguistic considerations and rests on the argument that

provision of sufficient linguistic input opportunities for interaction are prerequisites for language learning (Stern, 1992).

However, language learning does not occur because learners enjoy conditions favourable to learning; it occurs as a result of learners engaging in cognitive processes and mental activities. When it comes to perspectives about learning process can be divided into two explanations: inter-mental and intra-mental. The former explains language learning as resulting from the cognitive processes of individual learner. The later, as resulting, forms the social activity of learner (Mitchell and Myles, 1998).

Speaking about the inter-mental perspective- also known as information processing- it offered a view of learning as an individual mental activity composed of simple processes which take time and practice, and through practice there is a development from controlled to automatic processing (McLaughlin and Heredia, 1996). While the inter-mental perspective- also known as activity theory- offered a socio-cultural view of learning. It also offered a view of learning as shaped and constructed by the goals of the learners by suggesting that it is the learners who determine what they will learn and the same instructional task or activity is typically used by different learning objectives, and thus that the learner learns different things from them .

Another point should be mentioned here which is content- based approach. It is an approach related to language teaching and ESP which can be linked to information processing perspectives of learning. Advocates of this approach argue that language is best learned through the process of learning disciplinary or technical subject content (Kasper, 1997). It views the target language largely as the vehicle through which subject matter content is learned rather than as the immediate object of study. (Briton and Wesch, 1989: 5)

From all what has been said above, one can say that ESP is a student-centred rather than teacher- directed teaching method (Haines, 1989). But: Where is the role of the teacher clearly seen? How does it fit in the learning process? What are the responsibilities of the teacher? Are there specific methodologies in ESP teaching?

What are the objectives of teaching ESP? All these questions will be discussed in what follows.

A teacher who already has experience in teaching English as a second language (ESL) should recognize the ways in which his /her teaching skills can be adapted for the teaching of ESP. As an ESP teacher, you must play many roles: you may be asked to organize courses, to set learning activities, or establish a positive learning environment in the classroom, and to evaluate student's progress. To do so, ESP has certain methodologies to use.

The discussion of those methodologies was coined by Stern (1992) to refer to an overriding methodological principle covering a wide variety of classroom techniques and procedures at the planned level of teaching. We have the predominantly input; input –to-output; predominantly output, and output to input.

Two of the above mentioned strategies are input- based. The first (predominantly input) is linked to the idea that learning occurs through students being exposed to samples of language use (Krashen, 1992). The second (input-to-output) is linked to the idea that learners need first notice language forms and features, and then use them in their own production (Scott and Scott, 1984).

On the other hand, two are output-based. The first (predominantly output) is linked to the idea that learning occurs through students struggling to communicate and being pushed to reach their linguistic ceilings (Swain1985, 1998). The second (output -to- input) is associated with the idea that learners are ready to acquire new language when they have experienced a whole (a lacuna) in their repertoire and are offered a solution to that problem in the form of feedback (Swain, 1986).

Regarding the objectives behind teaching ESP, there is a variety of objectives in that process.

- ✓ The first is to reveal subject-specific language use which is linked to the linguistic knowledge objective and, to a lesser extent; the cultural knowledge objective (Stern's categorization; 1992).

- ✓ The second is to develop target performance competencies which can be described as an approach focused on developing the ability to perform the activities of an occupation (Funnel and Owen, 1992).
- ✓ The third is to teach underlying knowledge or competencies which is term used by Hutchinson and Waters (1985) to refer to disciplinary concepts from the students' field of study.
- ✓ The fourth is to develop strategic competence which acts as a “mediator” between external situational context and the internal language and background knowledge needed to respond to the communicative situation (Douglas, 2000, p38).
- ✓ The last is to foster critical awareness which means that ESP teaching should work to encourage the learners- who became members of the target environment- to change the target situation to better suit their needs. Thus, ESP teaching should help students realize that target demands may be up for negotiation and that they have a role to play in taking action to help this come about (Hyland, 2000 and Hamp, 2002).

To conclude this part, one can say that if the ESP community hopes to grow up and flourish in the future of ELT, it is more than necessary that the agents and practitioners understand what ESP actually represents. Only then, new members can join with confidence to collaborate with the existing ones for the sake of carrying the practices which have brought ESP to the position it has in EFL teaching today.

13. Assessment and Evaluation

ESP was developed in response to certain pressures. Advances in the theoretical foundations of language teaching have indicated the need to pay more attention to the individual learner. The world of commerce and technology was producing large numbers of people with specific language learning needs at the time. As a result, demand was generated for courses that equip individual students with the skills needed to perform particular tasks in English. Like any other language teaching course, ESP has requirements which are clearly highlighted by the fact that ESP has specific objectives.

ESP students and sponsors are investors in the ESP course and want to see a return on their investment of time or money. The ESP course managers are accountable to these investors. This responsibility has generated the demand for more and better evaluation procedures. Two levels of evaluation were therefore highlighted.

13.1 Learner Assessment

In any language course, students' performance must be assessed at any strategic point. That is, at the beginning or at the end. Student assessment is of great importance in ESP because it deals with the ability to perform particular communication tasks. The result of this type of evaluation allows sponsors, students and teachers to decide if and how much teaching is required.

Table 4

Comparing Assessment for Learning and Assessment of Learning Adopted from Ruth Sutton, unpublished document, 2001

Assessment for Learning (Formative Assessment)	Assessment of Learning (Summative Assessment)
Checks learning to determine what to do next and then provides suggestions of what to do—teaching and learning are indistinguishable from assessment.	Checks what has been learned to date.
Is designed to assist educators and students in improving learning.	Is designed for the information of those not directly involved in daily learning and teaching (school administration, parents, school board, Alberta Education, post-secondary institutions) in addition to educators and students.
Is used continually by providing descriptive feedback.	Is presented in a periodic report.
Usually uses detailed, specific and descriptive feedback—in a formal or informal report.	Usually compiles data into a single number, score or mark as part of a formal report.
Is not reported as part of an achievement grade.	Is reported as part of an achievement grade.
Usually focuses on improvement, compared with the student's "previous best" (self-referenced, making learning more personal).	Usually compares the student's learning either with other students' learning (norm-referenced, making learning highly competitive) or the standard for a grade level (criterion-referenced, making learning more collaborative and individually focused).
Involves the student.	Does not always involve the student.

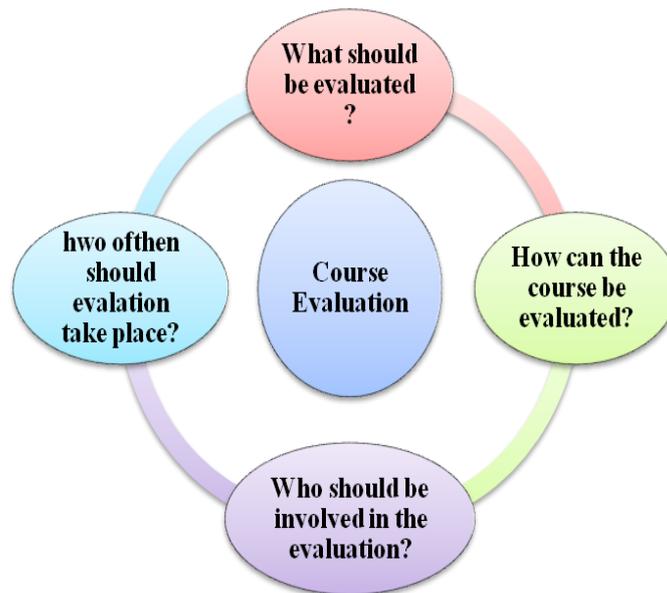
13.2 Course Evaluation

The ESP course evaluation helps determine whether or not you are achieving your goals. Course evaluation also plays a useful social role, showing the various parties involved (teachers, students, sponsors, etc.) that their opinions are important.

The following figure sum up the four aspects of ESP course assessment that should be considered: What should be assessed? How are ESP courses evaluated? Who should participate in the evaluation? When (and how often) should the assessment be carried out?

Figure 13

Question Related To Course Evaluation



From the above mentioned figure, the evaluation feedback is a key to quality assurance and development of courses. Engaging in course evaluations will give a chance to influence aspects of courses that matter to both teachers and students. In other words, teachers should go carefully through the feedback and use it to adjust courses according to their students needs. By doing so, future students attending the course will benefit more and the ESP course will sound more motivating.

Conclusion

To conclude with, ESP is a different form of ELT for the simple reason that it is an approach not a product. This idea is stressed by the fact that it (ESP) is based on learners' need with no emphasis on a given methodology or a particular type of teaching material. In addition to this the linguistic factor dominates both the origins and development of ESP where the focus is mainly on the nature of specific varieties of language use depending on both needs identification and analysis.

Now, if the ESP community hopes to grow up and flourish in the future of ELT, it is more than necessary that the agents and practitioners understand what ESP actually represents. Only then, new members can join with confidence to collaborate with the existing ones for the sake of carrying the practices which have brought ESP to the position it has in EFL teaching today.

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