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ESP Syllabus Design:

A Case Study of First Year International Commerce Students

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Abstract

The aims of English for specific purposes (ESP) courses are to prepare the learners in accordance with the specific skills and vocabulary needed in their own fields. Therefore, the foundation of all ESP is related to the simple question of why the learner needs to learn a foreign language. Through the present work the candidate tries to shed the light on a very crucial issue which exists at the level of the Department of Management at Djillali Liabes University. The absence of an agreed syllabus makes teaching and learning rather ambiguous; for these reasons the candidate wants to suggest a syllabus targeted for first year International Commerce students. The survey is undertaken through needs analysis. The work has been divided into four main chapters:

The first chapter states the importance of English as a means of communication and the need of ESP as a result of a rapid process of globalization and fast growth of technology and sciences. It also describes some of the most famous approaches including the Grammar Translation Approach, and the Competency Based Approach in foreign language learning (FLL).

The second chapter includes needs analysis which is undertaken via two questionnaires given to both the students and the teachers of English at the level of the Department of Management. It also encompasses the objectives of international commerce learners which resulted from the interpretation of the two questionnaires.

The third chapter concerns the psychological side of the research. It emphasizes the role of the language teacher in designing specific courses and materials that could respond to the needs of the ESP students.

The last chapter comprises a suggested syllabus. This syllabus has been designed on the basis of the first year International Commerce learners' needs. It also aims at improving their communicative abilities as well as preparing them to be enrolled in a professional milieu that is more and more influenced by the globalization effect.

List of Abbreviations

Acronyms

- EAP: English for Academic Purposes
- EBE: English for Business and Economics
- EEP: English for Educational Purpose
- EFL: English as a Foreign Language
- EGAP: English for General Academic Purposes
- EGP: English for General Purpose
- ELL: English Language Learning
- ELT: English Language Teaching.
- EOP: English for Occupational Purposes
- ESAP: English for Specific Academic Purposes
- ESL: English as a Second Language
- ESP: English for Specific Purposes
- ESS: English for Social Studies
- EST: English for Science and Technology
- EVP: English for Vocational Purpose
- FL: Foreign Language
- FLL: Foreign Language Learning
- FLT: Foreign Language Teaching
- GE: General English
- L1: Student's First/Native Language
- L2: Second Language
- LLS: Language Learning Strategies
- LSP: Language for Specific Purpose
- MT: Mother Tongue
- NA: Needs Analysis
- TEAL: Teaching English as an Additional Language
- TEFL: Teaching English as a Foreign Language
- TESL: Teaching English as a Second Language
- TESOL: Teaching English to Speakers of Second or Other Languages
- TL: Target Language
- UK: United Kingdom
- USA: United States of America
- VLS: Vocabulary Learning Strategies

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GENERAL INTRODUCTION

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

Though English is not the official language in many countries such as Algeria, France, Germany, it is currently the language most often taught as a second or foreign language around the world as in India, Algeria and Japan. It is believed that English is no longer the exclusive cultural sign of native English speakers, but it is rather a language that is absorbing aspects of cultures worldwide as it continues to grow. In fact, English is so widely spoken throughout the world; that it has been referred to as "the global language", "the lingua- franca" of the modern era.

Fast communication and exchange at various levels, notably politics and economy are more essential than ever before. New nations such as those included in the Commonwealth and the European Union have been born, and simultaneously the need for their people to intercommunicate more with each other and with the people of other nations developed. Today, around the world, more and more people are learning English as a means of communication. Coming from every nation, every race, and every walk of life, communities express the need to learn the English language. Among them are students, teachers and scientists, people who work in the government, technical people, and artists. That underlines that all kinds of people are willing to master the English language for their everyday life as well as for their professional occupation.

A huge interest and an outsized awareness both of the significance and the impact of English language teaching (ELT) and English language learning (ELL) are considerably growing up day after day, chiefly in the developing countries, as it is the case of Algeria, where the English language ^{has} ~~new~~ ^{known} a huge infatuation since the early 1960s, empowered by the economic tendency of the country. _{liberal}

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

With the globalization of trade and economy and the ongoing increase of international communication in various fields, the demand for ESP is increasing. Algeria like any other developing country is looking for acquiring not only General English (GE) but also scientific and technical English to respond with proud and efficiency to these changes.

It is important to help students adapt to today's competitive society, meaning that university needs to design ESP courses that can best prepare learners for future professional communication. ESP programmes would focus on developing communicative competence in a specific field, such as aviation, business or technology. Others would prepare students for work in fields such as medicine, engineering, tourism or graphic design.

All teaching settings require two interconnected criteria in an appropriate environment; one is of a pedagogical nature, the other is of a psychological one. A fundamental pedagogical element in every teaching situation is the syllabus. In fact, it is the backbone of any teaching task and plays an essential role for the teacher, the learner, and the administration's staff. It does not only help the teacher to set either short or long term objectives, but it also allows the administration to follow step by step the effective evolution of the teaching/learning process.

like programme *de DLU SBA*
The opening research question in that case, deals with the absence of a syllabus for first-year International Commerce students in the Faculty of Economics and Management in Sidi Bel Abbas. The non-existence of this pedagogical tool represents a real handicap for the English teachers, especially the new recruits. This constructs a rather difficult and ambiguous teaching setting, since the teaching objectives are not officially stated and a lack of homogeneous continuity from one year to another may be noticed.

The absence of an agreed syllabus and other teaching materials on the one hand, and the fact that English is attributed the label of a secondary subject matter in the Department of Management on the other hand, make some learners lose interest in learning it.

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

It is also undeniable that the psychological factors play a determinant role in the teaching/learning process, especially motivation and the role of the teacher. When the teacher manages to establish effective relationships with her/his learners that go beyond the classical ties dominant teacher/submissive learners, motivation will appear and teaching will become efficient. The opposite situation will lead the learners to manifest a negative attitude towards learning English.

English teachers very often deplore the absence of motivation and interest among international Commerce Students. The coefficient (1) and the timing (1h30 a week), of English courses and the absence of materials are major factors that lead to the lack of interest amongst learners.

The aim of the research was to consider the issues of learning English at a university level and explore the ways of improving the quality of learning through the design of a specific syllabus meeting students' particular language needs. So, the second research question, concerns the restriction of the communicative skill in the target language (TL) among the first year International Commerce students. Hence, how could the teacher improve her/his learners' competence to communicate effectively in English? The researcher highlights the use of communicative activities, such as whole group discussions, debates and role plays, which may prepare the learners to communicate with international elite around the world in their future career, if opportunities can be found at both domestic and foreign levels.

The present dissertation tries to improve the teaching setting in the Department of Management, to reduce negative cultural attitudes, including FLL that some learners may have about communicating in the TL, and finally to promote the international importance of English in the department. The survey is undertaken through a needs analysis (NA) of International Commerce students. This is done through a questionnaire which inquires the students about their learning weaknesses and expectations of the subject matter.

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

The dissertation is divided into four main chapters:

Chapter one describes the situation of English in the world and its necessity as a means for global communication and international exchange as well as its status in Algeria. It also describes the expansion of ESP as a result of technological progress. Some approaches mainly the Grammar Translation Approach, the Direct Approach, and the Competency Based Approach, that have marked the teaching history are also described as being the most efficient ones in FLL. One of the most important aspects of ESP is the cooperation between the language teacher and the subject teacher. This cooperation is fundamental since it helps the English teacher to be aware of the learners' needs in the subject matter and it can help her/him to adapt the teaching materials making them more relevant and interesting, bearing in mind that no training is granted to ESP teachers.

Ankhy
(1961)

The second chapter helps the researcher identify the target learners' needs. The analysis is undertaken through two questionnaires, one for the teachers of the Department, the other for the first year International Commerce students. The teachers and the learners' suggestions will help improving the teaching and learning situation in the Department. The goal of the NA is to identify International Commerce students' needs and the difficulties they encounter during the language learning process. Their answers will help the researcher propose an adequate syllabus related to the subject matter concerned.

The third chapter deals with the psychological aspect of the research. In fact, the main actors of the learning scene, namely the teacher and the learners influence either positively or negatively the learning process. They are also affected by a set of factors, such as the environment, motivation, and the learners' attitudes towards the foreign language. This chapter highlights the roles of the ESP practitioner as teacher first and then as course designer and materials provider, as collaborator, researcher and finally as evaluator.

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

The fourth chapter represents the practical part of the research. It includes the suggested syllabus for first-year International Commerce in the Department of Management. The researcher proposes a syllabus that fits to some extent the learners' needs and weaknesses, i.e. a thorough selection of activities and communicative tasks were suggested in order to improve the learners' linguistic performance and to prepare them for future communicative situation at work.

CHAPTER ONE

CHAPTER ONE

Approaches to ESP Learning

- 1.1. Introduction
- 1.2. English as a Means for Global Communication
- 1.3. Status of English in Algeria
- 1.4. Approaches to Foreign Language Teaching
- 1.5. Reasons behind the Emergence of ESP
- 1.6. ESP Defined
 - 1.6.1. Absolute Characteristics
 - 1.6.2. Variable Characteristics
- 1.7. Branches of ESP
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- 1.9. Characteristics of ESP Courses
 - 1.9.1. Materials Authenticity
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- 1.10. Communicative Competence in ESP
- 1.11. ESP in Algeria
- 1.12. English in the Department of Management
- 1.13. ESP vs. General English Language Course
- 1.14. Conclusion

Notes to Chapter One

1.5. Reasons behind the Emergence of ESP

Because globalisation affects the activity of every person nowadays, a new elite emerged in various countries where English is neither the first language spoken nor an official language. This elite composed of managers as well as programmers, designers, financiers and economists has a strong willingness to conquer the global labor market in the future. So, the appeal of an international exchange of ideas became essential in areas ranging from medical research to the political challenges of a global economy.

To meet these communication needs, courses that fall under the heading ESP emerged all over the world. Both universities and private institutions became aware of the vital role of understanding, speaking and expressing oneself using English.

In fact, since the early 1960s, ESP has become one of the major areas of EFL teaching. This development is reflected in the increasing number of universities such as the University of Birmingham, and Aston University in the United Kingdom (UK) that offer an MA in ESP as well as in the number of ESP courses proposed to overseas students in English speaking countries. In addition to these, there is now a notorious international journal dedicated to ESP discussion, "English for Specific Purposes: An international journal".

According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987) one of the leading reasons why English acquired its present considerable value worldwide was created by the effect of an entire new category of people willing to learn English, because it is the key to the international currencies of technology and trade and not mainly for the pleasure or prestige of knowing the language. Through time English has become the language of international communication. As Phillipson (1992:6) demonstrates:



English has a dominant position in science, technology, medicine, and computers; in research, books, periodicals, and software; in transnational business, trade, shipping, and aviation; in diplomacy and international organizations; in mass media entertainment, news agencies, and journalism; in youth culture and sport; in education system, as the most widely learnt foreign language.

(Phillipson, 1992: 6)

The development of world economy and technology as well as the widespread use of computers and the Internet reinforced the actual prevailing position of English at both the national and the international levels.

1.6. ESP Defined

Robinson (1991:2) mentions that ESP is for studying English in a specific discipline or as a school subject. But what does ESP refer to?

ESP "almost by definition, is language in context" (Robinson, 1991: 20). Munby (1978) proposes a definition of ESP where he emphasizes the importance of the learners' communication needs saying: "ESP courses are those where the syllabus and materials are determined in all essentials by the prior analysis of the communication needs of the learner". As to McDonough (1984), he argues that ESP is a focus of language teaching activity which certainly has its own range of emphases and priorities. It is stressed that ESP is a kind of language teaching activity.

Whereas, Hutchinson and Waters (1987:19) provide us with a wide-ranging definition of ESP which states the following:

ESP is an approach to language teaching in which all decisions as to content and method are based on the learner's reason for learning.

(Hutchinson and Waters (1987:19))

As they suggest ESP could be seen purely as an 'approach to teaching', and not as 'a product', or what Dudley-Evans describes as an 'attitude of mind'.

As far as Strevens (1988) is concerned, he defines ESP by making a clear distinction between what he calls absolute and variable characteristics. So, according to Strevens "English for Specific Purposes is a particular case of the general category of special-purposes language teaching". In fact, Strevens' definition (1988: 1-2) makes a distinction between four absolute and two variable characteristics. However, Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998), in a more recent study, have modified Strevens' definition (5) and exposit their revised view on the essence of ESP from the following two perspectives:

1.6.1. Absolute Characteristics:

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

1.6.2. Variable Characteristics:

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

As it could be noticed, although influenced by Strevens' distinction of characteristics, Dudley-Evans and St. John have suggested that the absolute characteristic proposed by Strevens that 'ESP is in contrast with General English' has no relevance. They have revised and increased the number of variable characteristics and affirm that ESP is not necessarily linked to a specific discipline. Furthermore, ESP is likely to be used with adult learners

although it could be used with young adults in a secondary school setting. The division of ESP into absolute and variable characteristics, in particular, is very helpful in resolving arguments about what is and is not ESP. From the definition, we can see that ESP can but is not necessarily concerned with a specific discipline, nor does it have to be aimed at a certain age group or ability range.

All the above definitions show that ESP is part of ELT that may be used, in specific teaching situations with a different methodology from that of GE. ESP is not a special kind of English language, for specialized aim or specific purpose and special language are two different notions. Mackay and Mountford (1978) mentioned that the only practical way in which we can understand the notion of special language is as a restricted repertoire of words and expressions selected from the whole language because that restricted repertoire covers every requirement within a well-defined context, task or vocation.

Whereas a specialized aim or a specific purpose refers to the purpose for which learners learn a language, not the nature of the language they learn. Besides, in practical teaching, it is hard to draw a clear line between where GE courses stop and ESP courses start, although we try to use such names as Business English or Medical English, etc. to distinguish between ESP and GE. The common core of language is often used both in GE and in ESP.

Hutchinson and Waters (1987:53) summed up the difference between the ESP and GE approaches as "in theory nothing, in practice a great deal". Therefore, ESP is part of ELT in theory, and the purpose for which learners learn is different from that of GE, the former being more specific or specialized, whilst the latter remains more general.

1.7. Branches of ESP

ESP is divided into 3 branches: English for Science and Technology (EST), English for Business and Economics (EBE) and English for Social Studies (ESS). Each of these branches fall into two categories: English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Occupational Purposes (EOP)/ English for Vocational Purposes (EVP). An example of EAP for the EBE branch is: English for Economics, whereas an example of EOP for the EBE branch is English for Secretaries (refer to figure 2 below).



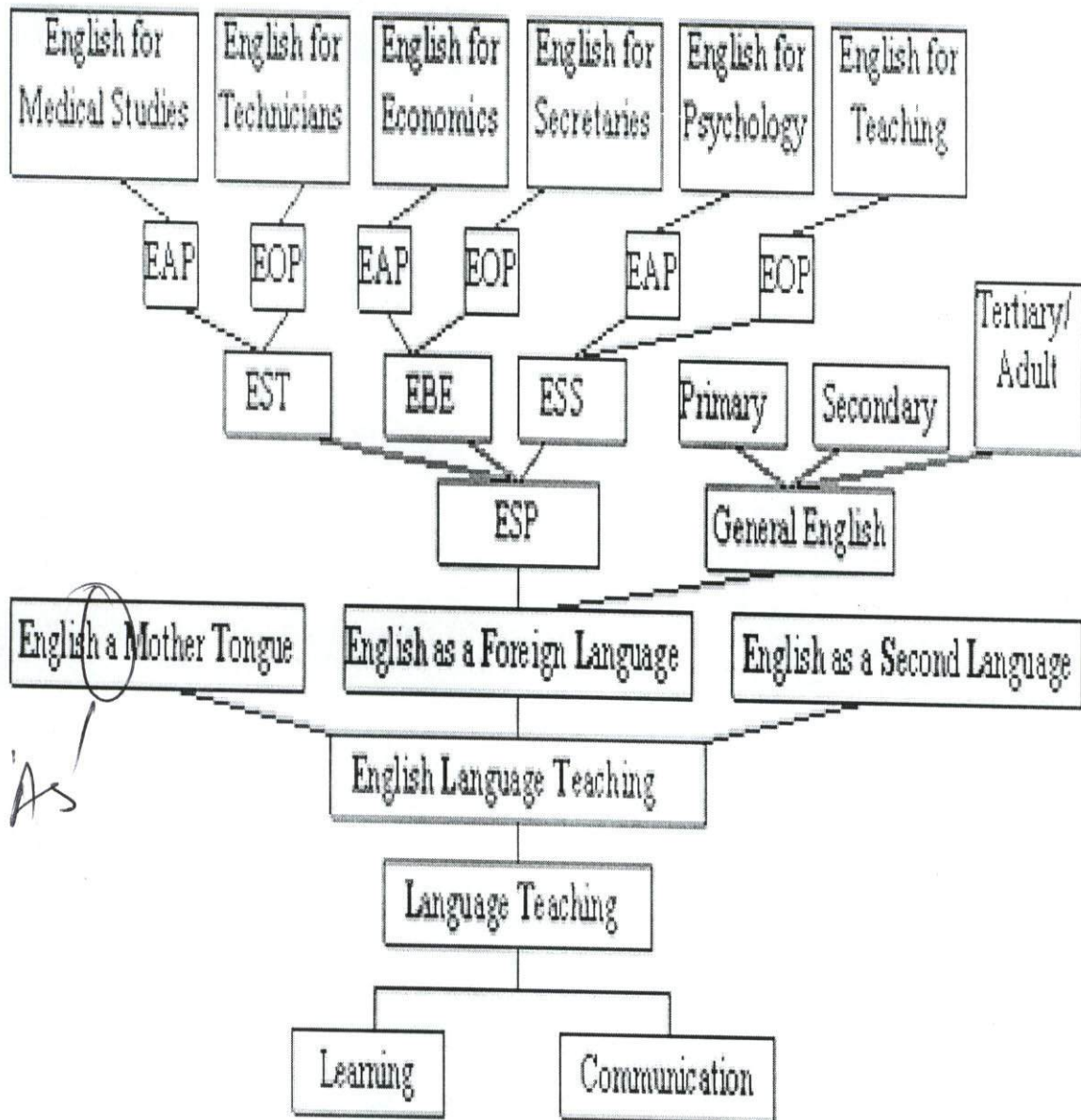


Figure 2: Simplified tree of ELT

(Hutchinson, T. & Waters, A. (1987). English for Specific Purposes.
Cambridge: Cambridge University Press)

EAP: English for Academic Purposes

EOP: English for Occupational Purposes

EST: English for Science and Technology

EBE: English for Business and Economics

ESS: English for Social Studies

1.8. Types of ESP

There are mainly two types of ESP that are widely accepted at present within the ESP teaching sphere. These are EAP and EOP. However, some specialists such as Carter, Robinson, Jordan as well as Hutchinson & Waters do not divide ESP into the same branches.

Carter (1983) for example classifies ESP into three types: English as a restricted language, EAP and EOP, and English with specific topics. Jordan (1997) suggests almost the same model and notably develops Carter's second type into the two principle branches of ESP: EOP and EAP. He divided EAP into English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP) and English for General Academic Purposes (EGAP). As to Robinson, he proposes another division of ESP where he places EOP and EAP/EEP (English for Educational Purposes) under the heading of ESP.

Finally, as far as Hutchinson & Waters (1987) are concerned, they divide ESP into three main branches: English for Science and Technology (EST), English for Business and Economics (EBE), and English for Social Studies (ESS). Each of these subject areas is further divided into two branches, according to whether the learner needs English for academic study (EAP) or either for work or training; and the latter regroups EOP, English for Vocational Purpose (EVP), and Vocational English as a Second Language (VESL).

The distinction of the various branches of ESP is essential because the language used in the aviation field is not the same as the one used by waiters. This example illustrates the type of English as a restricted language. Mackay and Mountford (1978) clearly illustrate the nuance that may exist between the two languages used in the field previously mentioned 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.

(Mackay and Mountford, 1978: 4-5)

Further more; Mackay and Mountford emphasis the fact that "restricted language" is totally different from "language" and it is linked to specific situations. According to Mackay and Mountford this will lead the speaker to be embarked in a vicious circle, since their communicative competence will be completely confined to their professional or studying area:

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.

(ibid, 1978:4-5)

Thus, following Hutchinson & Waters' 'Tree of ELT' (1987) ^{see} (refer to figure 2 ~~above~~), an example of EOP for the EST branch would be 'English for Technicians' whereas an example of EAP for the EST branch would be 'English for Medical Studies'.

Nevertheless, Hutchinson and Waters (1987) make clear that a "clear-cut distinction" does not exist between EAP and EOP since:

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.

(Hutchinson and Waters, 1987: 16)

Perhaps this distinction justifies Carter's rationale for regrouping 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.

Though the end purpose is the same, the means taken to achieve the objective is very different indeed.

The third and last type of ESP identified by Carter (1983) is English with specific topics. Carter explains that it is only here where emphasis shifts from purpose to topic. This type of ESP deals exclusively with anticipated future English needs of, for example, scientists having needs of mastering English for postgraduate reading studies, attending conferences or working in foreign institutions. However, it could not be considered as a detached type of ESP. Rather, it is a basic part of ESP courses or programs which focus on situational language.

1.9. Characteristics of ESP Courses

Carter (1983) identifies characteristics of ESP courses which are discussed here. He states that there are three features common to ESP courses:

- a) Material authenticity,
- b) Purpose-related orientation, and
- c) Self-direction.

1.9.1. Material Authenticity

If we take into consideration Dudley-Evans' (1997) claim that ESP could be proposed at an intermediate or advanced level, then, the use of authentic learning materials is entirely possible. Closer examination of ESP materials will follow. In fact, authentic content materials, modified or unmodified in form, are a feature of ESP.

1.9.2. Purpose-Related Orientation

The purpose-related orientation refers to the simulation of communicative tasks required of the target setting. Carter (1983) mentions student simulation of a conference, involving the preparation of papers, reading, note taking, and writing.

1.9.3. Self-Direction

Self-direction is typical of ESP courses in that the "... point of including self-direction ... is that ESP is concerned with turning learners into users" (Carter, 1983: 134). To make, self-direction occur, the learners must benefit of a certain degree of freedom to decide when, what, and how they will study.

1.10. Communicative Competence in ESP

Today, it is commonly recognized that the aim of language teaching is to develop appropriate communicative competence in a given TL and culture among every language learner. Accordingly, teaching would focus on both the linguistic system of the TL as well as on those norms of interaction that are shared by members of a given speech community in order to establish successful communicative situations. These norms of interaction are associated with pragmatic competence, a key component of the communicative competence construct. This competence refers to the learners' ability to use different linguistic formulae in an appropriate way and in a particular social and cultural context. Thus, fostering learners' pragmatic competence seems to be necessary, and particularly in an ESP context, where learners' opportunities to be in contact with the target language outside the classroom context are rare and limited or sometimes, even inexistent. In this regard, it seems to be important to provide learners with not just specific linguistics needs, but also with an adequate pragmatic knowledge required for their future jobs.

1.11. ESP in Algeria

English is the most widespread language in the world. It was established that most international conferences are held in English. The increasing number of Algerian scholars, researchers in universities and companies attending these international conferences and needing to present papers and the results of their research are likely to turn learning English. To respond with proud to this growing demand and to equip its students with critical minds, the Algerian Ministry of Education introduced the teaching of

whose primary goal was to promote ESP to Algerian level.

English at all levels of education, including middle and secondary schools and universities. The latter introduced English in almost all the faculties, such as: computing, economics and management, technology, social sciences. The aim of such an enterprise is to prepare the future educated elite to be a significant agent on the international economic and scientific arenas.

In fact, today young and adult Algerians are involved in the study of English for a variety of specific purposes, mainly to use it as a medium for communicating information and news and to do international business, scientific researches and diplomacy. Nevertheless, although making efforts to teach terminology related to the learners' field of study, some teachers because of the lack of syllabi normally suggested by the Ministry of Education rise some questions that remain unanswered, such as: what could the English teacher teach to this range of students with specific needs? Or, how could a language teacher teach specific topics which s/he was not trained for?

1.12. English in the Department of Management

ESP tutorials at the department of management have always been called English tutorials and not ESP tutorials. They have never been defined or delimited by a programme. The ESP teachers are free to organize them as they "like". Consequently, there is a mess in teaching this course and one can easily notice the confusion made between GE and ESP. Most teachers teach rather GE than ESP and this for various reasons. The first is that the teacher, who was not trained to teach ESP, is generally not aware of the specialized courses or is not interested in them and prefers to teach grammar and General vocabulary. The second is the fact that the time available in class is very limited (1h30 a week) and does not permit to teach both GE and ESP.

The low frequency of studying English as well as the low coefficient attributed to the subject matter make students uninterested in improving their knowledge. The only reason why students attend to the tutorials is that the administration takes actions against absenteeism.

- Gathering information about the learners' purpose of pursuing a learning programme. Their attitude to learning English language, their previous learning experiences, as well as cultural background would also shape partly this information gathering process. This information can be gathered through various sources including educational institutions and through the learners themselves.
- Conducting a 'Present situation analysis' which may supply information about the efficiency of the established programme vis-à-vis future and present needs of the learners.
- Gathering information concerning the preferred styles of learning or learning needs.
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This approach may be valuable for gathering information concerning attitude, belief and opinion. However, any change or innovation entails more than these factors and it requires a complete evaluation of all the contextual factors such as learning needs and learning styles.

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The aim of this study is to find out what are the lacks and the needs of the first year International Commerce students in the Department of Management. For these reasons the methodology followed was both quantitative and qualitative. As prescribed by Ellis (2004), the questionnaire remains the best method that requires learners to self-report on some aspect of their language learning.

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The purpose of the questionnaire was to gather quantitative data. The latter encompasses generally two types of questions; these are namely open-ended questions and closed-ended questions (i.e. fixed response questions). Open-ended questions enable respondents to manage what they want to say and how they wish to say it. They can give details and qualify their responses and avoid the limitations of specific categories of responses. This may result in as many variations of answers as there are respondents. With closed-ended questions, the researcher has some control of both the type and quality of response. These types of questions suggest a range of responses from which the respondent may choose. In general, closed questions are quick to complete and straight forward to code and do not discriminate unduly on the basis of how articulate the respondents are (Wilson & McLean 1994, as cited in Cohen *et al.*, 2000).

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Questions 1, 2, 3 deal with whether the learners understand their English teacher, how often they take part during the tutorial and whether or not they find the time allocated to the English course sufficient.

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Question 1 (table 1) do you understand all what your English teacher says during the lecture?

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The question concerns the learners' comprehension of the English tutorial.

During the interpretation of the learners' answers, it appeared that only twenty one (21) students answered that always understand what their teacher says. Thirty four (34) of them answered they sometimes do. Four (04) of them said that they never understand the English tutorial. This may imply that some

NOTES TO CHAPTER ONE

1- No event in recent times has produced as many explanations as the 11th September attacks. These manifestations of violence were, in fact, a series of coordinated suicide attacks by al-Qaeda upon the USA on September 11, 2001. Attributing the sole responsibility for 9/11 to al Qaeda leads to ask the following question: what caused al Qaeda to launch the attacks? There are many possible answers; among these: *Poverty* in the world, *The clash of civilizations* which was predicted by Samuel Huntington arguing that clashes between civilisations would replace cold war rivalries, and 9/11 seemed to justify his theory or the spread of communications technology since the humiliation felt by some Muslims seems to be amplified by the communications revolution.

2- The research of the British Council (2008) states the following:

Status of English	Numbers of speakers
Official language	2 billion in 27 countries
Native language	375 million
Second language	375 million
Foreign language	750 million

Table 1.2: Status of English in the world

(The British Council (2008): http://the.English_dept.tripod.com/ex.html).

Remark: nowadays, one out of four (1/4) of the world's population speaks English to some level of competence .

3- In fact, the areas specified by Graddol (1997) in section 1.2 highlights that English is being used as a lingua franca in all spheres of international activity such as politics, academics, economics, technology and culture. It is meant by the term 'Lingua Franca': "the language used over a wide geographic area as a means of communication—generally to facilitate commerce and trading—by people who have no other language in common." (Microsoft Encarta Encyclopedia, 2003).

4- English is taught at university level in Algiers and Boumérdes for Mathematics students as teachers had studied and been trained in the United Kingdom and the United States of America.

5- Strevens' (1988: 1-2) definition of the Absolute and Variable Characteristics of ESP is as follows:

- Absolute Characteristics

ESP consists of English language teaching which is:

- designed to meet specified needs of the learner;
- related in content (i.e. in its themes and topics) to particular disciplines, occupations and activities;
- centred on the language appropriate to those activities in syntax, lexis, discourse, semantics, etc., and analysis of this discourse;
- in contrast with General English.

- Variable Characteristics:

ESP may be, but is not necessarily:

- restricted as to the language skills to be learned (e.g. reading only);
- not taught according to any pre-ordained methodology (pp.1-2).

CHAPTER TWO

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ESP Learners' Needs and Objectives

- 2.1. Introduction
 - 2.2. Needs Analysis
 - 2.3. NA Taxonomies
 - 2.4. Process of Developing a new ESP Course
 - 2.5. NA Uses in Language Curriculum Planning
 - 2.6. Approaches to NA
 - 2.7. Procedures and Description of the Questionnaire
 - 2.7.1. Questionnaires
 - 2.7.2. Description of the Students' Questionnaire
 - 2.7.3. Interpretation of the Learners' Questionnaire
 - 2.7.4. Description of the Teachers' Questionnaire
 - 2.7.5. Interpretation of the Teachers' Questionnaire
 - 2.8. Data Analysis
 - 2.9. Identification of Aims, Objectives, Goals and Learners' Needs
 - 2.10. Conclusion
- Notes to Chapter Two

CHAPTER TWO

ESP Learners' Needs and Objectives

2.1. Introduction

ESP is known as being a learner-centred approach to teaching English as a foreign or second language. It is supposed to meet the needs of most learners who need to learn a foreign language for use in their specific fields, such as science, technology, medicine and academic learning.

NA procedures made their appearance in language planning during the 1970s and became largely prevalent in language teaching. It was warmly welcomed by ESP teachers as an approach to course design, which focused on learner's needs.

The second chapter then, includes a NA of first year International Commerce students and an enquiry about the teachers' views of the English language situation in the Department of Management. This NA is done through two questionnaires in order to respond to a particular extent to the present and probably future targeted expectations of the learners.

2.2. Needs Analysis

Why do students need to learn English? It is supposed to be the prelude question that every language teacher needs to ask, either for designing GE courses or ESP courses. As stated by Hutchinson and Waters (1987:53) "what distinguishes ESP from general English is not the existence of a need as such but rather an awareness of the need". This 'awareness' will influence the language course content. Moreover, they emphasize the fact that the least of an ESP approach to course design would be NA, since it is the awareness of a target situation.

NA is seen as a basic principal of ESP (Robinson 1991:7) and most of the information on NA initially came from ESP (West 1994:2). This is probably due to the fact that a NA approach is more useful when learners' needs are linked to a 'discrete set of communicative situations' (Tudor 1996:70). This factor reduces the utility of NA approach for GE teaching as the needs of the learners' in GE are not specifiable (Hutchinson & Waters 1987:53). However, Hutchinson & Waters (ibid) promotes the use of NA for GE on the basis that in language learning there is always a noticeable need of some kind. Sharing the same opinion Tudor (1996:70) argues that even if the 'needs are less specific, choices still have to be made' and that 'course content should be based on an analysis of the situations in which the learner will be required to use the language, whether these situations and the language needs which arise out of them can be specified with precision or only in terms of a general orientation'.

Thus, NA has an importance in all kinds of language learning and teaching situations whether for specific purposes or general purposes and makes a learning programme more relevant to the real life communication need of the learners.

2.3. NA Taxonomies

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) identify the following divisions of needs:

1) **Target Needs:** according to Hutchinson and Waters (1987) '**target needs**' is an umbrella term that covers at the same time the learners' necessities, lacks and wants as following:

- a) **Necessities:** i.e. "the type of need determined by the demands of the target situation, that is, what the learner has to know in order to function effectively in the target situation" (p. 55).
- b) **Lacks:** identifying necessities alone is not enough according to the authors. In fact, they believe that the teacher also needs to know what the learners already know, as this helps them –teachers– decide which of the necessities the learner lacks. In other words,

the teacher needs to match the target proficiency against the existing proficiency, and the gap between them is the learner's lacks.

- c) **Wants:** neither the course designer nor the teacher can ignore learners' wants and their views about the reasons why they need language, as students may have a clear idea about the necessities of the target situation and will certainly have a view as to their lacks. However, this might be a problem as the learner's views might conflict with the perceptions of the course designers and teachers.

2) **Learning Needs:** Hutchinson and Waters (1987) assert that it is not enough to base a course design simply on the target objectives, and that the learning situation must also be considered. They add that the target situation alone is not a reliable indicator, and that the conditions of the learning situation, the learners' knowledge, skills, strategies, and motivation for learning are of prime importance. Using Hutchinson and Waters (1987) analogy of the ESP course as a journey, learning needs (the route) is the means that will enable learners to move from the starting point (lacks) to the destination (necessities).

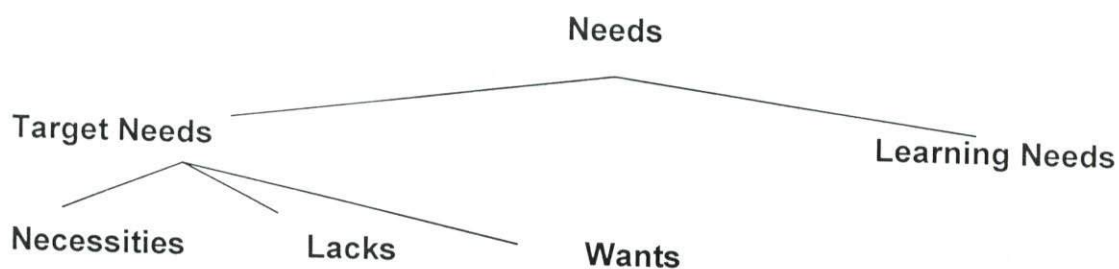


Figure 3: Hutchinson and Waters' taxonomy of NA

(Kandil, A. : <http://ilearn.20m.com/research/needs.htm>)

2.4. Process of Developing a new ESP Course

When evaluating an ESP course and identifying the language needs of the learners, needs analysis is not the only parameter to be taken into account by the ESP teacher. There are other steps that had to be considered.

According to White (1988), there are six steps in developing a new ESP course. These are:

Stage 1: The first stage consists in conducting a NA. Needs analysis can reflect two types of information about the learners. The first gives information on their present level on ESP and the second information on what to achieve in ESP in the future work domain.

Analyzing the learners' needs plays a crucial role in an ESP context, since many language problems may result as teachers' not paying attention to learners' needs and denying the fact that the learners are a source of basic information.

The most important tools and techniques that an ESP practitioner has to take into consideration when conducting a NA at this stage are:

1. **Interviews:** interviews can be either structured or unstructured.
 - Structured interviews: through this kind of interviews definite questions are given to the ESP teachers, learners or administrators and needed information is collected.
 - Unstructured interviews: here the ESP teachers, learners or administrators are asked predetermined questions on the problems and expectations and the language needs of the learners and their voices are recorded for examination;
2. **Questionnaires:** ESP teachers can form them paying great attention to which items to include and which not to include. The task of designing a questionnaire entails an expertise as the questionnaires need to be arranged to elicit information on intended

areas, if not needless items in the questionnaires lead the analysis conductors to wrong results;

3. **Suggestion box:** the teacher may put a suggestion box in the class so that the learners may write their language needs, expectations and lacks on a piece of paper and put it into these boxes.

Stage 2: At this level, ESP teachers have a precise idea of what to teach, how to teach, and when to teach. As Graves (1996) states, goals are general statement or final destination, the learners need to achieve. Objectives show certain methods of achieving these goals. Nunan (1988) agrees that the following form the objective of a course:

1. Students will learn that.....
2. Students will be aware of.....
3. Students will develop.....

Stage 3: Reaching this point teachers could determine which features of ESP learning will be incorporated, included and used in the syllabus to meet the learners' needs and expectation. The course may focus on technical areas or vocabulary part of the target language.

Stage 4: When the content of the ESP course is formulated, the following stage will deal with deciding, selecting and developing materials that best meet the learners' needs.

Stage 5: In this step in order for the course to be efficient and make the learners understand the subject areas given in an ESP material, the teacher would provide the learners with activities following a certain order which may be may be deductive or inductive.

Stage 6: After giving the learners the course according to the result of needs analysis, the ESP teacher needs to reevaluate the learners at the end of the course in order to check whether the learners have reached the intended level

or not. If they have not reached this level, the assessment starts from stage 2 again, with the formulation of goals and objectives. If they have reached the intended level, the details of the curriculum is formulated and the process ends.

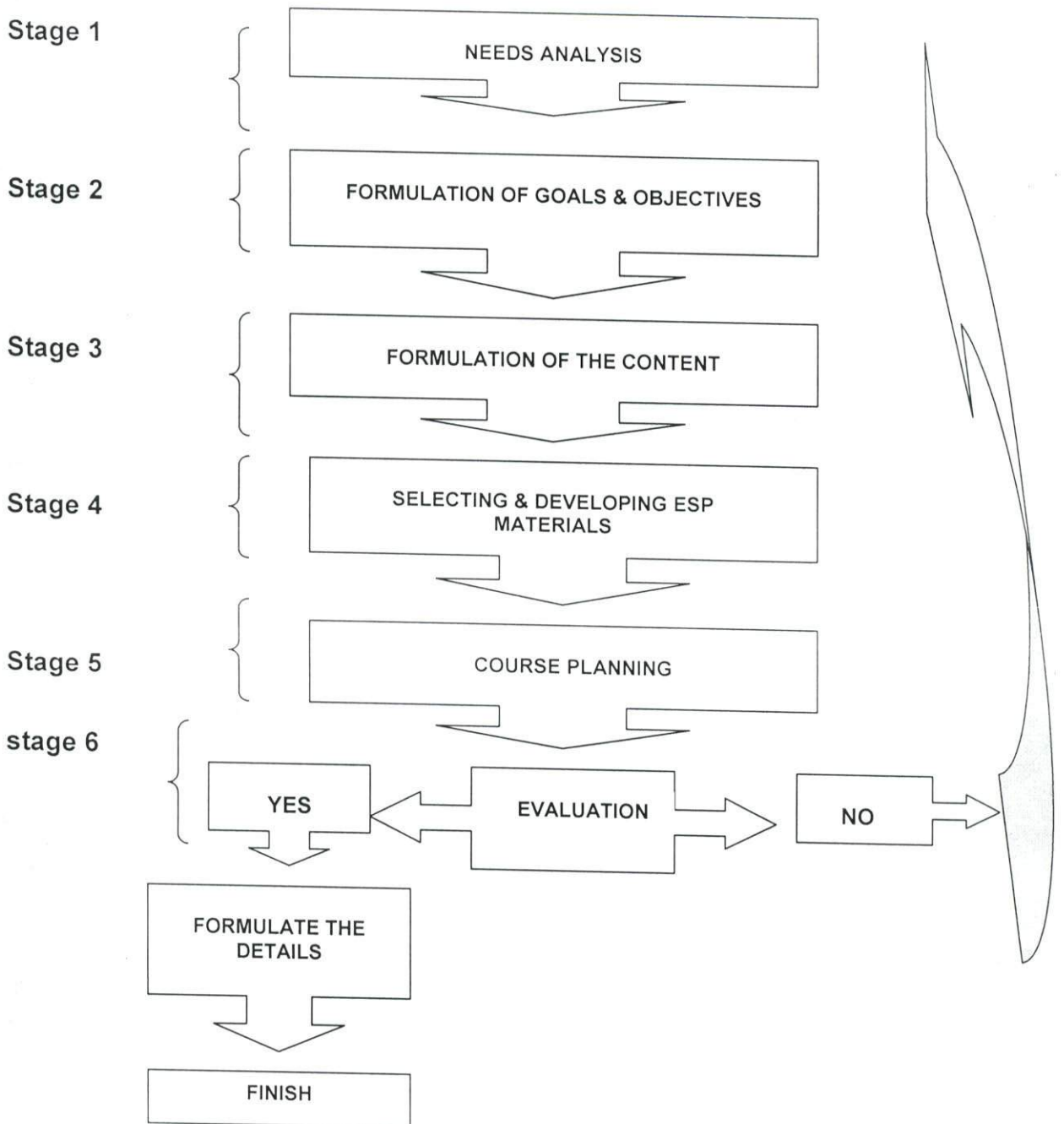


Figure 4: Steps in developing an ESP course (adapted from White (1988)).

2.5. NA Uses in Language Curriculum Planning:

Richards (1990:2) considers NA as 'fundamental' to the planning of general language courses and in language curriculum planning, NA can be used as a means to:

- 1) serve as a device for gathering an extensive range of input into the content, design, and implementation of language programme through involving all the stakeholders (Richards 1990:1).
- 2) help in setting goals, objectives and content for a language programme by determining general and specific language needs (ibid:2).
- 3) NA can be instrumental in providing data which can be used for reviewing and evaluating an existing programme (ibid).
- 4) help teachers in understanding the local needs of the students and making decisions in pedagogy and assessment for further improvement (Tarone & Yule 1989).

NA has been criticized for its limitations despite a wide scope of its functionality (Nunan 1988:43). Widdowson (cited in Nunan 1988:43) is of the opinion that syllabuses based on precise needs and specific ends can result in insufficient and limited competence, without developing learners' ability to spontaneous communication. He argues that syllabuses with general purposes are process-oriented, more educative in function and lead to general competence, whereas Nunan (1988:45) claims that courses based on NA can result in more meaningful and interesting learning experiences as they are more relevant to the potential purposes of learners' language use.

However, a learning programme which is not relevant to the needs of the learners cannot result in productive learning experience because need is also linked to motivation and motivation has an effect on learning. Thus, learning experiences not matching the needs of the learners can de-motivate learners. NA can play a vital part at all stages of the execution of a programme as it provides a tool for assessing the needs, and measures can be adopted to meet them and thus keep motivation sustained by bringing in relevance and giving the learning experience more precision.

2.6. Approaches to NA:

A shift from a narrow approach to broadening the scope of NA has resulted in a range of frameworks. These frameworks have been categorised as target situation analysis, present situation analysis, strategy analysis, learning-centred approaches, means analysis and language audit (West 1994:8-12, Jordan 1997:23-28).

- **Target situation analysis framework** has been proposed by Munby and focuses on the needs of the learners at the end of a language course (Robinson 1991:8).

- **Present situation analysis** also called Deficiency situation analysis attempts to establish what the students know at the beginning of the language course (Jordan, 1997:24).

- **Strategy analysis** spotlights information gathering about the preferred learning styles and strategies of the learners (Jordan, 1997).

- **Learning-centred approach** has been suggested by Hutchinson & Waters (1987). It is based on the assumption that learning is determined by the learner and this framework encompasses target needs which include necessities, lacks and wants, and learning needs which denotes what the learners need to do in order to learn.

- **Means analysis approach** takes into account information regarding contextual constraints which include cultural attitudes, resources, materials, equipment and methods (Jordan 1997:27).

- **Language audit** seeks to define language needs for companies, regions or countries (ibid).

Nevertheless, Dudley-Evans & ST. John (1998:125) suggest a distinct framework in the case of a NA that aims at evaluating learners' and teachers' attitudes, opinions and beliefs towards a proposed or intended change or innovation. This framework could be as follows:

- Gathering information about the learners' purpose of pursuing a learning programme. Their attitude to learning English language, their previous learning experiences, as well as cultural background would also shape partly this information gathering process. This information can be gathered through various sources including educational institutions and through the learners themselves.
- Conducting a 'Present situation analysis' which may supply information about the efficiency of the established programme vis-à-vis future and present needs of the learners.
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Question 1 (table 1) do you understand all what your English teacher says during the lecture?

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Table 2.1: Learners' ability to understand English

The question concerns the learners' comprehension of the English tutorial.

During the interpretation of the learners' answers, it appeared that only twenty one (21) students answered that always understand what their teacher says. Thirty four (34) of them answered they sometimes do. Four (04) of them said that they never understand the English tutorial. This may imply that some

students do not master the basis of the English language. So, the integration of basic language proficiency may be beneficial for them.

Question 2 (table2) do you take part during the English courses?

- Always
- Sometimes
- Never

	Respondents	Percentage
Always	15	25.42%
Sometimes	40	67.79%
Never	04	06.77%

Table 2.2: Participation of the learners during the lesson

This question concerns the learners' ability to take part during the English course and aims at providing many details about their participation during the English tutorial.

Fifteen (15) students answered that they always talk in English while participating in the course. Forty (40) of them said that they sometimes do while four (04) replied that they never talk in English during the tutorial. The learners argue that this is a consequence of a previous negative experience in studying English.

Question 3 (table3) is the time allocated to English course:

- Sufficient?
- Not sufficient?

	Respondents	Percentage
Sufficient	14	23.72%
Not sufficient	45	76.27%

Table 2.3: Time allocated to English tutorial

The question is related to the learners' opinion about the time allocated to English. It tends to find out whether or not they were satisfied or they required additional hours.

The enquiry disclosed the fact that more than the half (45 students) of all the respondents think that studying English just one hour a week was not enough whereas only fourteen (14) students believed that the time allocated to English was satisfactory.

Question 4 (table4), how long have you been studying English?

	Respondents	Percentage
5 years	27	45.76%
6 years	23	38.98%
7years	02	03.38%
8 years	05	08.47%
10 years	01	01.69%
11 years	01	01.69%

Table 2.4: English learning length

Question four concerns the learners' English language length before entering the university.

Among the respondents twenty-seven (27) studied English for 5 years; twenty three (23) of them for 6 years; two (02) for 7 years; five (05) for 8 years and 01 for 10years as well as 01 for 11 years. It appeared through this question that two (2) students have studied English since the fourth year of primary school level.

Question 5 (table5) Do you like to attend English classes?

- yes
- no

	Respondents	Percentage
Yes	55	93.22%
No	04	06.77%

Table 2. 5: Learners' feelings towards English

The question includes the learners' attitudes towards the English language.

The data gathered divulged that fifty five (55) of the learners answered positively whereas the minority (04) answered negatively.

Question 6 (table6) Do you find the texts you work on:

- Easy
- Difficult
- Incomprehensible

	Respondents	Percentage
Easy	33	55.93%
Difficult	20	33.89%
Incomprehensible	05	08.47%
No answer	01	01.69%

Table 2. 6: Understanding the English texts

The sixth question tackles the learner's capacity in understanding and taking benefits from English texts.

The study of the answers revealed that the half (33) of the questioned learners find the texts easy. Twenty (20) of them answered that they meet some difficulties in understanding the texts. Five students (05) replied that

they do not understand the suggested texts. One (01) student could not answer since he was absent each time the class dealt with reading. This implies that the English texts are not too difficult for the present stage although involving specified vocabulary.

Question 7 (table7) Which area of English do you find the most difficult and need to improve?

- Speaking
- Vocabulary
- Pronunciation
- Writing
- Grammar
- Listening
- Reading

	Respondents	Percentage
speaking	21	35.59%
Vocabulary	13	22.03%
Pronunciation	07	11.86%
Writing	02	03.38%
Grammar	13	22.03%
Listening	03	05.08%
Reading	00	00%

Table 2.7: difficult areas of English for the learners

Speaking remains the most difficult skill for many learners (21). During the lectures the learners expressed their will to master such a skill which implies the ability to speak about any topic without preparation. ESP vocabulary causes difficulty for thirteen (13) learners. Seven (07) learners answered that they encounter many difficulties in English pronunciation. Only

two of them (02) complained about the writing skill. Grammar, for its part is considered by thirteen (13) students as a difficult area of English learning whereas listening skill represents a complexity for only three (3) learners among the fifty nine answered. No one of all the learners questioned find reading difficult, because generally students do not attach much importance to reading. However, students do not seem to have been taught the reading sub-skills like skimming and scanning and prefer to translate ESP passages word for word using bilingual dictionaries. Such an approach makes reading time-consuming and boring.

Question 8

When being asked to make some suggestions in order to make the English lectures more efficient, almost all the students proposed to have more exercises through which they will have the opportunity to use and speak English. They also suggested having more translation when dealing with related vocabulary. The vast majority of learners complained about the fact that the time allocated to the English tutorial was not enough and would like to have more lectures. Some of the respondents drew attention on the fact that the audio-visual aids were never used and would like to have some lectures in language laboratories.

2.7.4. Description of the Teachers' Questionnaire

The questionnaire was given to four (04) teachers in the Department of Management. The questionnaire comprises 8 questions.

The two first questions deal with the teachers' status in the faculty as well as their degree.

The third question tends to demonstrate whether or not the teachers received any training to teach ESP.

The fourth question tends to reveal the teachers' impressions about the time allocated to English tutorials at the level of the Department of Management, i.e. is the time devoted to learn English enough to improve the learners difficulties?

Question five is an enquiry about the influence of the students' number on the quality of the tutorial.

The sixth question seeks to show how many teachers use specific materials including texts related to the learners' field of study as well as exercises and why do they so whether the answer is positive or negative.

Questions seven and eight enquire about the learners' lacks according to their teachers and to what extent is a syllabus important in the learning/teaching process.

2.7.5. Interpretation of the Teachers' Questionnaire

Among the whole English teaching staff, four (04) teachers have answered the questionnaire.

Question 1 What is your status in the faculty?

- part time teacher
- full time teacher

	Respondents	Percentage
Part time teacher	04	100%
Full time teacher	00	00%

Table 2. 8: Teachers' status in the faculty

The results of the questionnaire revealed that the four (04) teachers of English are part time teachers.

2 Rem 2
Question 2 What is your degree?

- B.A
- Magister
- Doctorate

What degree do you hold?

	Respondents	Percentage
B. A	04	100%
Magister	00	00%
Doctorate	00	00%

Table 2. 9: teachers' degree

The table above shows that the four part time teachers possess a B.A in English.

Question 3 Did you have any ESP training courses?

- yes
- no

	Respondents	Percentage
Yes	00	00%
No	04	100%

Table 2.10: teachers' ESP training

It appears from the above table that the four (04) teachers have never received any training in teaching ESP. The case of the four teachers can be considered as representative of the actual situation of the language teachers through the Algerian universities who had ever been trained to teach the language to students with specific needs.

Question 4 Do you think that the time allocated to English lectures is:

- enough
- not enough

	Respondents	Percentage
Enough	00	00%
Not enough	04	100%

Table 2.11: time allocated to English

It seems that the four teachers agree on the fact that the one hour and a half allocated to the English tutorial is not enough since the learners have so considerable lacks that cannot be improved through an hour and a half per week.

Question 5 Do you think that the number of students per group influence the lecture quality?

- yes
- no

	Respondents	Percentage
Yes	04	100%
No	00	00%

Table 2.12: influence of the students' number on the lecture

As shown in the above table the four teachers do agree on the fact that the number of the students per group influences the tutorial quality, since according to those teachers too many students in the same group may lead to less concentration caused by the noise. It also prevents the teacher from giving particular attention to each, or at least to the majority of the learners.

Question 6 Do you use any special material designed for the specific needs of the students?

- yes
- no

	Respondents	Percentage
Yes	02	50 %
No	02	50%

Table 2.13: use of specific materials.

Question 6 has shown that two (02) teachers never use specific materials related to the learners' specific needs. One of these two teachers argued that at university the learners are supposed to work on their own doing their own researches and that the teacher is just a guide. However the second one admitted that since she had never been trained to teach ESP she had not developed specific 'strategies' that could help her in achieving her specific language teaching task. The two (02) other teachers answered that they used texts and exercises related to the learners' field of study.

Question 7 In which aspect of English do you think that students need support?

The four teachers agree on the fact that learners suffer from a lack of vocabulary related to their field of study as well as to the daily life. This lack of vocabulary leads to a deficiency to communicate with ease either in the class or outside the class in a future work place.

Question 8 To what extent syllabus design is essential for the students and the teachers?

The responses to this question gave the impression that the four teachers consider syllabus design as an essential part of the learning/teaching process. It is highly regarded by all the teachers as a guide to what to teach and to what would be learned.

2.8. Data Analysis

The data gathered through the questionnaires revealed some very important answers to the research questions that were set up. The information collected disclosed crucial problems and lacks encountered by the teachers as well as the learners in the Department of Management in the Faculty of Economics and Management of Sidi Bel Abbes. After such an investigation,

the learners' needs and deficiencies have become clearer and the teaching/ learning objectives can be easily identified.

What seems to be clearer is that the teacher would begin by assessing the learners at the beginning of the course in order to check their general language proficiency. If the teacher notes that the learners do not master the general and fundamental patterns as well as structures of the English language, s/he would undertake to provide the learners with Basic English (i.e. the fundamental patterns and structures) in order to be able to move to the more specific language related to their field of study.

When the teacher notes that the learners have acquired such patterns and structures of Basic English, s/he will be able to satisfy her/his learners' needs vis à vis. speaking and then communicating in the TL as it was expressed by the majority of the students. Indeed, twenty one (21) among the fifty nine (59) already questioned learners argued that they suffer from a lack of oral expression fluency or in other words, they experience some communicative deficiencies which they want to overcome.

If we refer to Second Language Acquisition (SLA) communicative competence has been defined as:

"the ability of a person to behave adequately in a flexible manner when confronted with actions, attitudes and expectations of representatives of foreign cultures"
(Meyer, 1991: 137).

Communication, thus, is not based only on speaking fluency and in order to improve the speaking skill / communicative competence of the learners, the language teacher has to consider the three other skills, as it is clearly demonstrated by Mc Donough and Shaw (2003), It is important to realize that 'communicative' can in fact refer to all four language skills.

In deed, the four skills namely reading, writing, listening and speaking, to which Mc Donough and Shaw (2003) refer and which have been, in the past, "treated somewhat in isolation, have in fact, so much in common with each other, that it makes much more sense to treat them holistically" (Wray & Medwell 1991:3). These skills have to be worthy considered by the ESP teacher when designing a specific syllabus creating a balance between the receptive as well as the productive skills

In order to create a successful communication, the ESP teacher has to develop with her learners the ability to use a specific jargon characteristic of their specific future professional context. The ability includes using a more generalized set of academic skills, such as conducting research and daily life language to communicate effectively in an informal way, despite of professional context, for example: chatting with foreign nationality colleagues.

However, to succeed in this task the ESP teacher has to cooperate with the specialist teachers, at least while designing the syllabus in order to propose to her learners themes and contents that are relative to their fields of study.

2.9. Identification of Aims, Objectives, Goals and Learners' Needs

Formulating goals and objectives for a particular course allows the teacher to create a clearer picture of what the course is going to be about. Aims and objectives are often used loosely and interchangeably, although they are very different. Other words such as goals and purposes are used to express aims whereas learning outcomes are used similarly to objectives. The terminology has become a minefield, where clear definitions of both terms try to delineate the existing differences.

On the one hand, an aim is a general statement of intent. It describes the direction in which the learner will go in terms of what they might learn or what the teacher will do. Very often aims are not measurable since they refer to the widest level. Widdowson (1983:6-7) means by aims "the purposes to which learning will be put after the end of the course".

Widdowson

On the other hand, an objective is a more specific statement about what the learner should or will be able to do after learning. It refers to specific gains / behaviours. In other words, objectives are specific statements of educational intention which define either general or specific outcomes.

Graves (1996:17) defines objectives as "the specific ways in which the goals will be achieved", whereas according to Harmer (1991:269) they may refer "to activities, skills, language type or a combination of them all". Nunan (1988) gives a clear description of how the teacher should state objectives. Depending on what is desired, objectives may sound like the following:

- Students will learn that ...
- Students will be aware of ...
- Students will develop ...

Goals, however, are statements of educational intention which are more specific and narrower than aims. They should be realistic; otherwise the students would be de-motivated. They may include an entire programme, subject area, or multiple grade levels. In other words a goal is something we want to achieve and in the case of language learning, Graves (1996:17) argues that goals are "general statements of the overall, long term purposes of the course". In this sense Harmer (1991) explains that they are related to the acquisition of a profession in the future or the communication with the members of the target language community. Goals should aim not only at the acquisition of certain knowledge and skills but also at the development of a positive attitude towards language and culture.

Widdowson (1981) comments on learners' needs and objectives making a clear distinction between "needs" and "objectives". He argues that the expression 'learner needs' is open to two interpretations. The first can refer to what the learner needs to do with the language once he has learned it. According to Widdowson (1981) this is a goal-oriented definition of needs and it is related to terminal behaviour, the end of learning. The second interpretation can also refer to what the learner tends to do in order to actually

acquire the language. This is a process-oriented definition of needs, and is related to traditional behaviour, the means of learning.

Corder (1973) said that the content and structure of a syllabus is connected with the learner's objectives or of society. These objectives must be specified in terms of what he wants or must be able to do in terms of social behaviour and linguistic performance. This is known as his "terminal behaviour". But Ingram (1982) maintains that a clear specification of objectives provides a means of ensuring coherence of language activities in responding to learner needs.

Hawkey (1984) suggests that research learner needs should be taken into account when specifying objectives. Van Ek (1976) sums up the situation by saying that language learning objectives must fit learners' needs, and that they should specify the following components:

- i. the situations in which the foreign language will be used, including the topics to be dealt with;
- ii. the language activities in which the learner will engage;
- iii. the language functions which the learner will fulfill;
- iv. what the learner will be able to do with respect to each topic;
- v. the general notions which the learner will be able to handle;
- vi. the specific notions which the learner will be able to handle;
- vii. the language forms which the learner will be able to use;
- viii. the degree of skill with which the learner will be able to perform.

(Van Ek (1976) as cited in The English Teacher Vol. XIX July 1990)

Small V
Nevertheless, the teacher could keep in mind a well known method for setting effective objective and goals which is the "SMART" way(2). In fact the acronym "SMART" stands for: **S**pecific, **M**easurable, **A**greed, **R**ealistic, and finally **T**ime-Constrained. So, in this respect and in order to create a suitable and motivational atmosphere in the classroom, the teacher could set objectives that are:

1. Specific, i.e. the objective could be concrete, detailed, focused and well defined. Asking some of the following questions may help achieving this task :
 - **WHAT** am I going to do with my learners? This helps the teacher's objective to be action-orientated and focuses on what is most important.
 - **WHY** is this important to do at this time?
 - **WHEN** do I want this to be completed by the learners?
 - **HOW** am I going to do this?
2. Measurable, i.e. if the measurement source is identified and the teacher is able to track the results of her learners' actions, as they progress towards achieving the objective, this means that the objective she has set is definitively measurable. Measurement is the standard used for comparison. In fact, measurement helps teachers to know when her learners have achieved the objective she had previously set for them.
3. Achievable, i.e. it will be more difficult to keep learners motivated if the objective is too far in the future.
4. Realistic, i.e. the teacher should get sure that the resources could get done. The achievement of an objective requires resources, such as, skills, equipment, etc. to support the tasks required to achieve the objective.
5. Time-Constrained also Time-Bound, i.e. setting deadline for the achievement of the objective. If the teacher does not set a deadline, she may take too much time within one topic and neglecting others passing over the equitability required to execute the tasks.

2.10. Conclusion

This chapter was an attempt to shed some light on the first-year International Commerce students needs through conducting a NA. A great deal of care has been taken to strike a balance between theory and practice. The reason behind this chapter was also to critically reflect on NA and the lack of such procedure at the level of the Department of Management since a critical observation of ELT in the Department of Management has shown that NA is unfortunately non-existent. Students' needs are simply intuited for them by their different teachers at various stages of their enrolment in the university rather than analyzed or assessed.

NOTES TO CHAPTER TWO

1- The uses of NA mentioned in section 2.4. refer to the fact that this process of information gathering can be used for a range of purposes since it can be helpful in determining whether a programme should be implemented by finding out if it matches the goals and objectives of the learners for learning a language and at the same time it can help in improving various components of the programme and making these more oriented to the needs of the learners. NA can also help in evaluating an existing programme and if found deficient can help in establishing the need for introducing a change that fit the learners' needs.

2-The smart way of setting goals and objective is well established and widely recognized among company managers. This fact does not impede its use by language teacher and syllabus designers.

CHAPTER THREE

CHAPTER THREE

Factors Influencing ESP Learning

- 3.1. Introduction
 - 3.2. Motivation in SLL/FLL
 - 3.3. Learners' Attitudes towards the Foreign Language Learning
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CHAPTER THREE

Factors Influencing ESP Learning

3.1. Introduction

While learning a second/foreign language (L2/FL) as well as ESP, learners may encounter internal and external difficulties. Internal factors involve personality, self-esteem or personal attitude while external ones refer to all social and cultural conditions associated with the entire environment in which language learning takes place. Like the factors such as students' learning style that hinder the acquisition of knowledge in any academic context, internal and external elements also play a crucial role in deciding the final outcome of the L2/ FL study. From one side this chapter will address some of the external and internal factors that influence either positively or negatively a learner's achievement in his/her L2/FL learning. From another side the difference between both the language teacher and the ESP practitioner roles will be discussed.

3.2. Motivation in SLL/FLL

The intrinsic side, or in other words the personality traits related to the affective domain plays an important role in SLA (Hilgard, 1963; Arnold, 1999; Bloom, 1964) as well as in FLL. It was demonstrated through many researches such as those conducted by Gardner and Lambert (1927) on motivation or by Coopersmith (1967) on self-esteem that our communicative competences are influenced by our personal variables and the perception of these by others.

According to Deci and Ryan (1985) learners are intrinsically motivated when they are interested in learning tasks and outcomes for their own sake, and that results in internal feelings of self-determination and competence. On the other hand, Deci and Ryan (1985) note that learners are extrinsically motivated if they carry out some actions to achieve some instrumental end, such as earning a reward or avoiding a punishment.

Through their research Gardner and Lambert (1972) identify two interconnected types of motivation, namely instrumental and integrative. According to Gardner and Lambert students with instrumental motivation acquire a language for some reasons such as: get a better job, read technical material, or to study in the country where the language is spoken, as to integrative motivation, it is held by students who want to join with the culture of the L2 group and become involved in social interchange in that group. (Brown, 2000).

Spolsky (2000) considers motivation as an important component of a model of language learning. Because of its importance to language learning, there is growing interest in the creation of a motivation model that can help develop methodological applications to improve the teaching and learning of a L2/FL.

Studies like Yashima (2002) find out that motivated learners exhibit more self-confidence than some of their peers in their L2. In fact, the availability of both motivation and self-confidence within some learners results in a greater willingness to communicate. Noels et al. (2000) also find a strong correlation between instrumental motivation and Self-Determination Theory, which deals with students' need for competence, satisfactory social connections and autonomy.

Although there is contrasting evidence as to whether instrumental or integrative orientation is better, both types have been shown to lead to successful language learning (Brown 2000; Ellis 1994). What is made clear by Brown (2000) is:

That second language learners benefit from positive attitudes and that negative attitudes may lead to decreased motivation and, in all likelihood, because of decreased input and interaction, to unsuccessful attainment of proficiency.

Brown (2000: 181)

3.3. Learners' Attitudes towards the FLL

Gardner (1985) views attitudes as a component of motivation, which refers to the combination of effort plus desire to achieve the goal of learning plus favourable attitudes towards learning the language. Most teachers may notice that their students' learning potential is enhanced when attitudes are positive and motivation runs high. The research into the link between positive attitudes and successfully learning a L2/FL supports this simple observation. However, it is important to understand that many variables are involved because we are dealing with complex social and psychological aspects of human behaviour. For example, students' ability to learn a L2/FL can be influenced by their attitudes towards the target language, the target language speakers and their culture, the social value of learning the second language, and also the students' attitudes towards themselves as members of their own culture (Ellis 1994). In addition, EFL teachers should bear in mind that all students possess positive and negative attitudes in varying degrees, and that the negative ones can be changed by thoughtful instructional methods, such as using materials and activities that help students achieve an "understanding and appreciation of the foreign culture" Brown (2000: 181).

3.4. Culture in FLL Context

Although central in the field of foreign language teaching, the relationship between knowledge of a foreign language, and knowledge of the culture from which that language derived seems to be rarely discussed; nevertheless Brown (2000) considers the junction of culture and affect as a valuable feature of the communicative process. According to him culture is very important in the process of second language learning:

Language is a part of culture, and a culture is a part of a language; the two are intricately interwoven so that one cannot separate the two without losing the significance of either language or culture.
(Brown, 2000: 177)

There's a better illustration example which shows the close relationship between language & culture; is language & culture are 2 sides of the same coin

The fact highlighted by Allen (1985: 138) that "The primary reason for second language study in the earlier part of this century (1960s) was access to the great literary masterpieces of civilization" has gone. Brooks (1968) emphasized the significance of culture for language learning as equal to the study of literature. Communication prevailed in SLL and FLL along with spoken rather than written language.

During the 1990s, some French researchers (Flewelling, 1994; LeBlanc, 1990; LeBlanc & Courtel, 1990) promoted the cultural syllabus and its importance was reaffirmed by Stern (1992). The European emphasis on cultural studies has developed further and has been supported by empirical research (Buttjes & Byram, 1990; Byram & Esarte-Sarries, 1991; Byram, Esarte-Sarries & Taylor, 1991). The importance of culture in SLL and FLL has improved as our understanding of language and communication has evolved. This reality is reflected in current methods of language learning and teaching, including the recent Tapestry approach (1) (Scarcella & Oxford, 1992).

As Nemni (1992) makes it clear, there are still some aspects of the teaching approach of culture both in the SLL/FLL class and the literature that have not really been clarified. However, studies in the field have moved from merely describing the sociocultural context of the L2/FL (Nostrand, 1966) to speaking of contexts of competence (Berns, 1990). These studies considered second culture acquisition (Robinson, 1991) and aimed at preparing learners for meaningful culture learning (Mantle-Bromley, 1992). They had developed a new philosophy of teaching culture (Oxford, 1994), and teaching and learning language and culture (Byram, Morgan & Colleagues, 1994). The fact that culture teaching and learning is a developing area in applied linguistics is further revealed through the growing list of the latest publications (including Cargill, 1987, and Harrison, 1990) that deal solely with this aspect of language teaching.

According to anthropologists, there are over 164 different definitions attributed to culture (Schneider, 1995: 25). In fact, culture could be seen as an iceberg shared into three main levels (Figure 5 below). Behaviours and artefacts which represent the tip of this iceberg can be easily observed but they are rooted in a deeper level of values and beliefs held by a certain culture, which in turn reflects its underlying worldview.

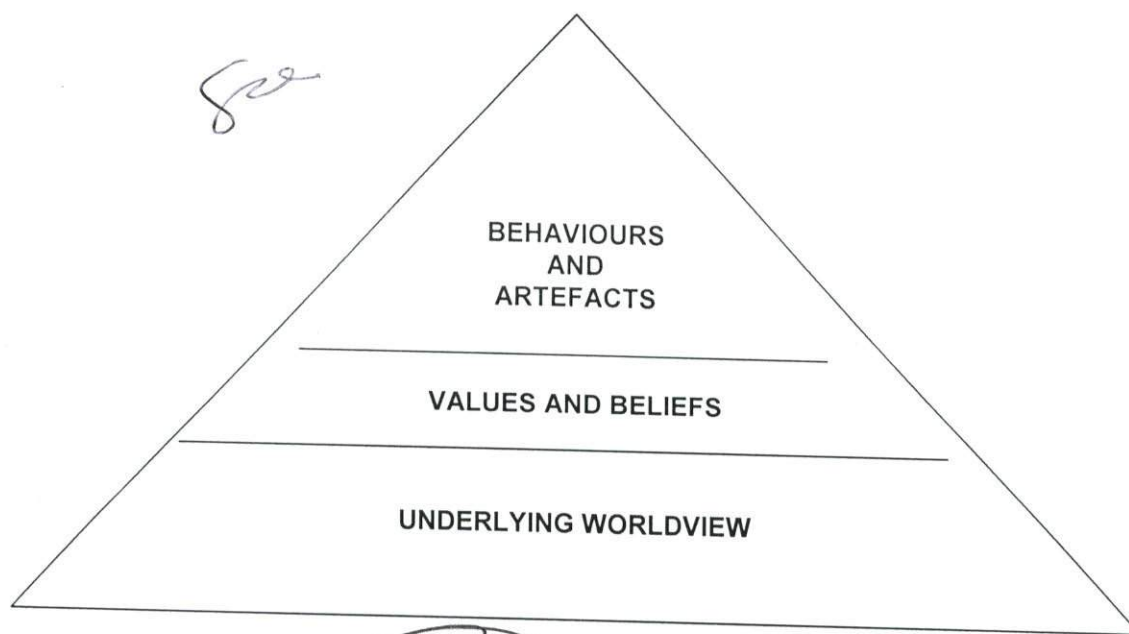


Figure 5: three levels of culture

(Adapted from Schein (1984) as cited in Schneider (1995: 25))

Language and culture are narrowly interrelated. If we were to place language on one of the levels of the pyramid, it would come on the top but its roots go deep into the lower levels. Thus, language reveals the world of its users, such as beliefs in human nature, time, human activity, social relationships, and greetings, forms of address, and space. Language use depends on the cultural background of the user.

It seems to be complicated trying to find an agreed definition of culture because of the increasingly changing societies. This fact is reflected by Kroeber and Kluckhohn's (1954) study who found over three hundred definitions of culture. The various definitions underline the difficulty and scope of the issues involved in communicating and teaching about culture.

Nevertheless, the development of culture teaching in SLL/ FLL has led to a current understanding of culture.

Robinson (1988) suggests a symbolic definition of culture. He considers culture as a dynamic "system of symbols and meanings" where "past experience influences meaning, which in turn affects future experience, which in turn affects subsequent meaning, and so on" (Robinson, 1988: 11).

Adaskou, Britten & Fahsi (1990: 3-4) define culture on specific level by suggesting four meanings of culture:

1. Aesthetic Sense includes cinema, literature, music, and media,
2. Sociological Sense includes the organization and nature of family, interpersonal relations, customs, and material conditions.
3. Semantic Sense covers the whole conceptualization system which conditions perceptions and thought processes
4. Pragmatic/Sociolinguistic Sense refers to the background knowledge, social and paralinguistic skills, and language code which are necessary for successful communication.

These aspects of culture provide more substance to the general definition of culture and reflect its various dimensions. These four senses of culture outline the substance of culture teaching in SLL/FLL classes.

3.5. Culture in an ESP Context

The diverse levels and aspects of culture discussed to some extent above show that the understanding of what culture implies in SLL as well as in FLL is varied. In L2 and FL teaching and learning, defining culture is considered as a continuum. This allows stressing various culture scopes at different points, and spotting the main differences that may exist between L2 and FL contexts. For ESP teachers and learners in varied contexts, different aspects of culture may well be more or less important at various levels of language proficiency.

So, learning a FL involves learning about the culture of its native speakers, which is no less relevant in the context of ESP:

... if a non-native speaker appears to speak fluently (i.e. is grammatically competent) a native speaker is likely to attribute his/her apparent impoliteness or unfriendliness, not to any linguistic deficiency but to boorishness or ill-will.

(Thomas, 1983: 91-112)

The cultural gap, even small, is sufficient to affect the ESP classroom. Indeed, the learners' cultural background may have an impact on their ability to understand information in the TL (which is, in this case English). Particular attention could be directed towards cultural differences that are not always contemplated in ESP teaching. This factor needs to be taken into consideration by ESP practitioners when preparing or adapting authentic materials for teaching purposes.

It seems that even specifically designed didactic materials, which are meant to be used all over the globe, includes texts and exercises that, transmit realities of the English-speaking countries. However, this could not be perceived as a constraint but rather as a challenge and an opportunity to use the ESP classroom as a space to involve students in exploring the culture of the target language, while focusing on their core subject. According to Swiderski (1993) each language classroom could be an experiment in learning culture, accordingly, including cultural learning in such specific areas of ELL could facilitate sociolinguistic and communicative competence of the ESP learners, who will not only learn a second language, but will also become more aware of their L1 values and attitudes.

3.6. English Language Teacher vs. ESP Practitioner

Nowadays, although the learning/teaching process is more oriented toward a learner-centred approach, the teacher is still considered as an essential factor in the educational setting.

Among many other attributes either the language teacher or the ESP practitioner, are supposed to be linguistic models, cultural mediators as well as a mentors and more important they have to be aware that their roles have to vary to fit what they want the learners to achieve.

3.6.1 English Language Teacher

The language teacher is considered as a significant and determinant intervening in FLL. He has, generally, two basic sets of roles to fulfil, while interacting and sharing his knowledge with his learners, the first set deals with instruction, evaluation as well as socialisation, whereas the second set is concerned with motivating learners preserve control and of course, creating an adequate environment for learning.

In the classical "old fashioned" schools, teaching was about "the transmission of knowledge"; the teacher played the role of controller and was the only authority in the class directing conversations and setting pace and tone.

Things evolving, FLT witnessed huge changes in the domain; hence, the learners became at the centre of all researches, with a unique will that is to enhance students' FLL. This is for example the main aim of the *Learner-Centred Approach*, where it is the students needs which drive the syllabus and it is the students' learning experiences and their responses to them which are supposed to be at the core of a language course.

In this approach the teacher is rather a facilitator, a resource, a prompter and a tutor, and to achieve these roles a teacher needs, according to Tudor (1996) some qualities such as *maturity*, *intuition*, and *educational skills* to develop students' awareness of language learning.

The teacher's role and behaviour have to change from one activity to another, from one stage of an activity to another and finally from one

approach of the course to another. If the teacher masters all these changes his effectiveness in achieving his task will be greatly enhanced.

When listing the characteristics of the good and worst teachers, Hoyle (1969) states the following:

...The successful teacher will be highly adaptable in his behaviour. The skilful teacher can play the role of comedian, kindly uncle, confident, or any other informal role, but yet retain the capacity to return with ease to a more detached role when necessary without losing the goodwill of his pupils...
(Hoyle, 1969: 62-63)

In fact, Hoyle (1969) advises teachers to adopt their teaching as well as behaviour in the class. By being versatile and adaptable to various situations teachers will succeed in achieving their task. He carries on and warns teachers of losing control of the class as well as the authority that they have upon their learners:

...a less accomplished teacher may play his informal roles successfully, but then have difficulty in reasserting his authority and lose the goodwill which he has generated by becoming aggressive in his struggle to retain control...
(Ibid, 1969: 62-63)

According to Hoyle (1969) the successful teacher is the one who has the skill to form accurate perceptions of the classroom situation. As the changes which occur within this situation, a good teacher is also aware of his roles which are appropriate to various situations, and possesses the personality skills which allow him to adjust to varying situations.

Harmer (2001:57) argues that there are eight roles that could be performed by a teacher and which "aim to facilitate the students' progress in some way or other..."

The teacher plays the role of controller when he is totally in charge of the class, especially when introducing a new language; he controls all what the learners do, say and what language they use. It is useful to play this role during an accurate reproduction stage and in general during lockstep activities. This control, however, could be relaxed to some degree, and during communicative activities or the practice of receptive skills.

Perhaps the most important role that a teacher has to perform is the one of organiser, since the success of many activities depends on good organisation and on the students knowing exactly what they are to do. Organising, often involves giving the learners information and clear instructions by simply telling them precisely and concisely how they are going to do the activity. It also implies putting them into pairs and/ or groups and finally closing things down when it is time to stop.

A skilled teacher will plan out what s/he will say beforehand and then say it clearly and concisely; when organizing an activity the teacher must not assume that all the students have understood the instruction that is why the students' MT could be used in order to check that they have grasped what they have to do.

According to Harmer (2001) the organisation of an activity could be divided into three main parts concluded by a feedback as follows:

- At first the teacher gives a lead in, i.e. s/he introduces the subject, by engaging a brief discussion with the students in order to start thinking about it.
- As soon as the lead in stage has been accomplished the teacher instructs or demonstrates, i.e. s/he gives clear and targeted explanation about what the learners have to do and how, or s/he could provide them with a demonstration of the activity before giving the instructions.

- Then the teacher starts or initiates the activity; at this point the students may need to know how much time they have got and exactly when they should start.
- Finally, the teacher stops the activity when the students have finished and/ or when other factors, such as students getting bored, the lesson coming to the end, show the teacher and the students that it is time to stop.
At this point the teacher must organise some kind of feedback by asking questions, such as 'did you enjoy that?' or a more detailed discussion of what has taken place during the activity.

The teacher has to act like assessor because students are always expecting from her/him indications of whether they are improving their English or not. The teacher has to offer a constant feedback and correction. The students need to know how and for what they are being assessed; their teacher has to tell them what s/he is looking for, and so they can measure themselves against this.

The teacher acts like prompter when s/he feels the need to encourage her/his students to participate or make suggestions about how her/his students may proceed in an activity when there is a silence or when they are confused about what to do next. This role has to be performed with discretion for if the teacher is too aggressive s/he starts to take over from the students, whereas the aim is that s/he should be helping them only when it is necessary. The teacher may participate, when activities like simulations are taking place. It is often difficult to do so as equal to her/his students since s/he knows all the details and materials.

In such situations students will expect and allow their teacher to dominate; it is up to her/ him to avoid this. The teacher's participation will often

improve the atmosphere in the class and will give the students a chance to practise English with someone who speaks it better than they do.

Very often the language teacher is considered as a resource. This is why s/he should always be ready to offer her/his help to her/his students if it is needed, by providing them with some vocabulary for example, especially when students are involved in some kind of writing task.

There is however, an exception when dealing with communication activities, where the teacher is expecting from her/his students to perform solely in English on their own with no external help. In this case the teacher could no more act as resource.

The fusion of the prompter role with the resource one leads the teacher to act as *tutor*. In fact, the teacher is improvised *tutor* when working on a project with her/his learners. In this case s/he can work with reduced groups, pairs or individuals, guiding them on a path they have not already thought about. This role implies intimate relationship with each learner ensuring that each individual or group had been seen and talked to during the class. This is just to prevent some learners from feeling neglected comparing to their peers.

Although it is difficult to act as *tutor*, it remains vital for the teacher to do so; since it makes feel the learner supported and helped. Notwithstanding, the teacher needs to make the balance as not to impede learners' autonomy or be just unhelpful. The teacher needs to act like observer to give learners feedback when working by groups or individually, but also to judge the success of different materials and activities in order to make changes in the future - if necessary -.

When observing the teacher could take notes not only about the positive but also the negative aspects of the learners' performances. Moreover the teacher would not be too intrusive by hanging on their every word, by getting too close to them, or by officiously writing things down all the

time, s/he would also avoid drawing attention to himself as it may distract learners from the task they are involved in. The role of *observer* could be performed independently from other roles as well as simultaneously when controlling or organizing learners and even when giving feedback.

Indeed, it is up to the teacher to know when and how to switch from her/his role of facilitator aimed at simplifying the learning process to her/his role of educator where s/he is considered as an example suitable for imitation. Although it is not an easy task the teacher would reflect a "perfect" functional literacy (i.e., the ability to speak the TL) and simultaneously a cultural literacy, depending on the objectives of the course during the university year.

3.6.2. ESP Practitioner

Master (1997) argues that ESP teachers are language teachers who have trained themselves in a specific area of ESP. Nevertheless the definition of ESP systematically leads to a debate about the various roles performed by the ESP teacher (or the ESP practitioner (Swales, 1985)). The latter has supplementary roles to those of the general purposes English teachers. Robinson (1991) stated that the ESP teacher does not only teach. Very often, he is involved in designing, setting up and administering the ESP course. During and at the end of the course, the ESP teacher is likely to be involved in evaluation and testing. To set learning objectives, and to establish a positive learning environment may be taken into consideration as additional tasks.

- Designing Courses

ESP teachers set learning goals, with some fundamental tasks comprising selecting, designing and organizing course materials, as well as supporting their learners in their efforts, and providing them with feedback on their progress.

- Setting Goals and Objectives

The conditions for learning in the classroom are arranged by the ESP teachers and it is their task to set long-term goals and short-term

objectives for learners' achievement. The teachers' knowledge of students' potential is crucial in designing a syllabus with realistic goals that takes into account the learners' concern in the learning situation.

- Creating a Learning Environment

The teachers' skills for communication and mediation create the classroom atmosphere. A FL is better learned and acquired when learners are given the opportunities to use it, in the circumstances with their teachers, since they may be the only English speaking people available to them. Learners must be self-confident in order to communicate, and ESP teachers as the GE language teacher have the responsibility to help build the learner's confidence.

- Evaluating Students

The teachers are a resource that assist learners identify their language learning problems or difficulties and find solutions, find out the skills they need to focus on, and take responsibility for making choices which determine what and how to learn. Teachers will provide information to the learners about how they are progressing in their language learning.

As it was noticed by Master (1998) the first focus of ESP was on lexis and grammatical structures, but today we are witnessing a progress in ESP movement due to the appeal of globalization, as John (Cited in Master, 1998) emphasizes ESP should prepare students in the most efficient way, for the content and task to which they will be exposed.

In this respect, ESP practitioners have to teach and provide specified learners population with what is most appropriate for them. So, according to Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998), in the ESP classrooms the teacher has to perform 5 distinct roles, additional to the four previously mentioned tasks. These roles include teacher, collaborator, course designer and material provider, researcher, and finally evaluator.

The first role as 'teacher' could be used as equivalent to that of the 'general English teacher; the ESP teacher will necessarily teach the language, including the common core lexis of academic or professional worlds, and the language related to the key genres that learners will need to be able to use (Dudley-Evans, 1998) . Teaching the lexis related to the learners' field does not exclude teaching the common four skills, as well as developing their awareness of communicative strategies involved in the activities they undertake

The ESP practitioner has to collaborate with the field specialist so, that to meet his learners' needs. However, this collaboration does not have to end at the development stage. On the contrary, it has to be extended and maintained during the whole teaching / learning process. Another axis of collaboration has to be mentioned, when team teaching is not possible. In fact, the ESP practitioner could collaborate with his learners, who will be more familiar with the specific content of materials than he is.

The ESP practitioner, like the 'general English teacher' sometimes does, has to design courses and provide materials relying frequently on his sense of creativity and resourcefulness, because of the lack of books in some disciplines as well as approved syllabi related to the target field. Nevertheless, one of the principal controversies in the field of ESP is 'how specific those materials should be?' On the one hand, Hutchinson ^{et al} (1987: 165), argue that the grammatical structure, functions, discourse structure, skills, as well as strategies of various disciplines are similar, that is why they could support materials that embrace a broad range of field. On the other hand, some more up-to-date researches have revealed this not to be the case. Hensen (1988), as an illustration demonstrates clear differences between anthropology and sociology texts while Anthony (1997) shows single features of writing in the field of engineering. Unfortunately, because of the lack of specialised textbooks in all the fields except in computer science and business studies, most of ESP practitioners tend to use topics from various disciplines making much of the materials redundant and perhaps even confusing the learners as to what is appropriate in the target field (Anthony, 1997).

Some ESP practitioners are then confronted - because of the lack of adequate materials specially designed for the learners- to develop original ones, by their own. It is when achieving this task that the 'researcher' side of the ESP practitioners emerges, with results leading straightforward to the realization of adequate materials for the class.

The last role which is 'evaluator' has unfortunately been neglected by all most all ESP practitioners till the last few years. According to Johns et al (1991), there have been few empirical studies that test the effectiveness of ESP courses. Yet, Dudley-Evans (1998) in an article presented in the ESP Japan conference argues that:

The ESP practitioner will be involved in ... the testing of learners' achievement during and at the end of a course

(Dudley-Evans, 1998).

He carries on by emphasising that:

Evaluation of courses and teaching materials should be carried out both during and at the end of the course.

(ibid, 1998).

It is worth saying that for those teachers newly embarked in the ESP 'adventure' their main focus will be on the two first roles previously mentioned: 'teacher' and 'course designer and materials provider'.

According to Dudley-Evans the practitioners will begin to take on the other roles only after gaining some experience and self-confidence. It will be the starting point that will draw all the differences between the GE teacher and it will be very often challenging, satisfying and stimulating (Dudley-Evans, 1998).

3.7. ESP and Language Learning Strategies

The last twenty years witnessed a major shift within the field of language learning and teaching since researches started giving more emphasis on learners and learning rather than on teachers and teaching. Indeed, alongside this shift the primary concern of the researchers dealing with the area of FLL focuses on how learners process new information and what kinds of strategies they employ to understand, learn or remember the information.

Edge (1993) claims that "All learners are different". No two individuals have the same knowledge, or skills, or expectations... Learners are also influenced by their age and by their educational, social and cultural backgrounds. (Edge, 1993: 9). Further more he argues that some learners are more successful than others due to characteristics typical to 'good' language learners. These characteristics are positive attitude about learning, strong motivation toward learning, self-confidence as well as well-constructed strategies to manage learning independently.

But what is meant by language learning strategies (LLS)? In fact, research into LLS began in the 1960s, in most of the research on LLS, the fundamental stress has been on:

identifying what good language learners report they do to learn a second or foreign language, or, in some cases, are observed doing while learning a second or foreign language
(Rubin and Wenden, 1987:19).

The term LLS has been defined by many researchers such as Wenden and Rubin (1987:19) who consider learning strategies as "... any sets of operations, steps, plans, routines used by the learner to facilitate the obtaining, storage, retrieval, and use of information." Richards and Platt (1992:209) who mention that learning strategies are "intentional behavior and

thoughts used by learners during learning so as to better help them understand, learn, or remember new information." On the other hand Faerch and Casper (1983:67) stress that a learning strategy is "an attempt to develop linguistic and sociolinguistic competence in the target language."

According to Stern (1992:261) who considers that LLS are conscious techniques that the language learners intentionally use in order to achieve their goals states the following:

the concept of learning strategy is dependent on the assumption that learners consciously engage in activities to achieve certain goals and learning strategies can be regarded as broadly conceived intentional directions and learning techniques
Stern (1992:261)

Thus, all language learners including ESP learners use LLS(2) that have been identified and described by researchers such as Wenden and Rubin (1987), O'Malley *et al.* (1985), Oxford (1990), Stern (1992), Ellis (1994), either consciously or unconsciously when processing new information and performing tasks in the language classroom. Since language classroom is like a problem-solving environment in which language learners are likely to face new input and difficult tasks given by their instructors, learners' attempts to find the quickest or easiest way to do what is required, that is, using LLS, is unavoidable.

Since the amount of information to be processed by language learners as well as ESP learners is high during the process of language learning, these two types of learners use diverse LLS in performing the tasks and processing the new input they encounter. Actually, observable and conscious as well as non observable and unconscious LLS are good indicators of how learners approach tasks or problems faced during the process of language learning. In other words, LLS give language teachers as well as ESP practitioners helpful indications about how their students assess the situation, plan, select

appropriate skills so as to understand, learn, or remember new input presented in the language classroom.

3.8. LLS and Communicative Competence

It has been noticed by many researches such as those previously mentioned (section 3.7.) that the language learner able to use a wide variety of LLS appropriately can improve his/her language skills in a better way. In this respect, it could be said that:

- Metacognitive strategies improve organization of learning time, self-monitoring, and self-evaluation.
- Cognitive strategies include using previous knowledge to help solve new problems.
- Socioaffective strategies include asking native speakers to correct their pronunciation, or asking a classmate to work together on a particular language problem.

Thus, developing skills in such three areas can lead the language learner to learning independence and autonomy whereby s/he can take control of his/her own learning. Lessard-Clouston (1997:3) states that LLS contribute to the development of the communicative competence of the students. Being a broad concept, LLS are used to refer to all strategies learners use in learning the targeted foreign language and communication strategies are simply one type of LLS. Thus, the ESP practitioner aiming at developing the communicative competence of her/his learners would be familiar with LLS.

As Oxford (1990:1) states, LLS "... are especially important for language learning because they are tools for active, self-directed movement, which is essential for developing communicative competence." While developing the learners' communicative competence, either the language teachers or the ESP practitioners can train simultaneously students to use LLS sine they can help them become better language learners through

training them to develop and use such good strategies. It can be considered to be the appreciated characteristics of a good language teacher (Lessard-Clouston 1997:3) and thus of a good ESP practitioner.

3.9. ESP Practitioner's Role in Strategy Training

It is a fact that each learner within the same classroom may have different learning styles and varied awareness of the use of strategies. The teacher cannot attribute importance to only one group or only give input by using the auditory mode. The ESP practitioner like the language teacher would, thus, provide a wide range of learning strategies in order to meet the needs and expectations of his students possessing different learning styles, motivations, strategy preferences, etc.

In addition to the students, the ESP practitioner would also analyze the teaching materials he/she is using to see whether they already include LLS or language learning strategies training. The ESP practitioner should look for new materials if LLS are not already included within his materials.

The ESP practitioner would also study her/his own teaching method and overall classroom style. Analyzing her/his lesson plans, the ESP practitioner can determine whether her/his lesson plans give learners chance to use a variety of learning styles and strategies or not. The language teacher can also be aware of whether his strategy training is implicit, explicit, or both. It should be emphasized that questioning himself/herself about what s/he plans to do before each lesson and evaluating his/her lesson plan after the lesson in terms of strategy training, may better prepare the ESP practitioner to focus on LLS and strategy training during the process of her/his teaching, i.e. to be auto reflective.

3.10. Reading in ESP Context

Reading is a complex cognitive activity, and its development can be promoted by two approaches which are extensive reading, i.e. to develop word recognition and general language proficiency as well as intensive reading practice which deals with detailed comprehension and teaching reading strategies.

Another aspect of learning reading as well as writing includes vocabulary that is needed for comprehension and for production. In fact, Dudley Evans & et. al., (1998:83) agree on the importance of vocabulary:

In comprehension, deducing the meaning of vocabulary from the context and from the structure of the actual word is the most important method of learning new vocabulary. For production purposes, storage and retrieval are significant

(Dudley Evans & et. al., 1998:83).

The fact that reading skill plays a central role in the process of FLL leads to consider it in an ESP context, since the ESP learners' proficiency or deficiency in this skill would have a great impact on their future academic and professional progress. El-Bashbishy (1993) pointed out the significance of reading skills for the students who study English for specific purposes. She also indicated that it has been proved that reading is the most important skill needed for those learners.

ESP learning is generally associated with a particular content area such as business, engineering or biology. For such learners it is often reading knowledge of the specialist area, which is perceived as important, rather than proficiency regarding the other skills, namely listening, speaking, and writing.

When ESP had been established as a distinct discipline within ELT, applied linguists took the view that there were important differences between academic courses such as the English of Commerce and that of Physics.

Thus, accordingly it was argued that in order to motivate this range of learners to read, texts could be selected from the learners' specialist area. But, the view that there are specific "engineering" texts, as opposed to "biology" ones for instance has long been challenged by both teachers and researchers.

Deep studies of texts, in order to show that there was a typical syntax, lexis, or organizational pattern in texts in specific subject areas were unsuccessful. Therefore the conceptual and communicative features of specialist texts started to be considered. That is, interest focused on the way key ideas in texts was transmitted through a range of topics which are selected to demonstrate the communicative functions of English which are common in a whole range of academic writing.

The kinds of function included are: to give instructions, to describe, to report event, and to generalize. What all the more recent trends in ESP seem to share is the assumption that reader strategies can be generalized across subject boundaries. Attention has shifted from a narrow focus on specific purpose texts to a broader consideration of the features representative of all texts written for formal, academic purposes. Therefore, ESP reading is involving shared and common strategies across languages and specific situations.

Alderson (1984, cited by Dudley Evans & St. John, 1998:74) showed that 'poor reading in a foreign language is due in part to poor reading in the L1, together with an inadequate knowledge of the foreign language. Learners need to reach a threshold level of language knowledge before they are able to transfer any L1 skills to their L2 reading tasks'.

Learners' difficulties in reading are the result of either limited vocabulary or its inappropriate usage. This point is emphasized by Buckmaster (2003) who claims that the most important 'skill' to be developed in an ESP context is a very large vocabulary.

There are some effective techniques for teaching vocabulary and reading to ESP learners, the following seems to be the most helpful:

- Lexical Approach Activities

The aim of such activities is to:

- explore authentic text,
- draw learners' attention to lexical items
- teach reading strategies, free and summary writing

In fact, reading texts that provide classroom materials for exploring language represent the basis for the Lexical Approach activities. The selected text is exploited in a manner to draw the learners' attention to the lexical items following the usual pre-reading, while-reading and post-reading activities.

- Pre-reading activities are directly linked to the text. The most common task is of prediction. Learners are asked to work in pairs and predict what the text is about from the title, the pictures (if any available), brainstorm related vocabulary, predict key words, or to predict from the topical sentences (if given).
- While-reading activities entail skimming for the gist and scanning for specific information.
- Post-reading activities lead to answering comprehension questions such as multiple choices, True or False, matching words and definitions, matching paragraphs and summarising sentences, etc. The most challenging activity for learners is to ask their peers their own questions, and then answer their peers' questions. The latter enables teachers to introduce speaking into a reading class.

- Re-Translation Activity

The aim of such activity is to:

- Find grammatical patterns and lexical items in sentences
- seek accuracy and authenticity ,
- develop learners' cooperation

The procedure to deal with this kind of activity engages the teacher to:

- Select two short ESP passages which do not contain new vocabulary,
- Split the class into two groups of equal number of pairs,
- Give pairs in each team different passages of similar difficulty to translate into the mother tongue.
- After finishing translation, students exchange their translated texts with partners.
- The following task is to retranslate their peers' work back into English.

Teachers have however, to make sure that students do not have original texts at this stage. Finally, learners sit next to their peers and compare their translations with the original texts.

Discussion of grammar patterns, vocabulary usage, accuracy of translation, etc. and resolving any misunderstandings that may have affected the accuracy of translations and finding appropriate equivalents is of paramount importance.

3.10. Text Selection

Text selection has been an area of debate and research in the field of EFL pedagogy. As far as ESP is concerned text selection and adaptation is considered only as one step in the difficult process of designing ESP teaching materials.

The basic problem in the process of text selection and adaptation is that, not being a specialist in the specific area, the ESP practitioner cannot decide by himself/herself how to adapt the text so that the most important information in terms of subject matter will remain. Cooperation with the subject specialists can be a solution of this problem. The best solution, however, is an authentic text designed to teach English in the specific field of study, but such texts are so difficult to find that the ESP materials designer would not miss the opportunity to use such a text no matter where she/he finds it, and adapt it a little, if necessary.

Another important decision the materials writer has to make is how difficult the texts could be from the point of view of subject matter. On the one hand, the texts must not be too difficult, because neither the ESP teacher, nor the learners have such a high level of professional knowledge, and this can lead to misunderstanding while interpreting the texts. On the other hand, the text must not be too popular, because the 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 demotivation the text would contain some challenge activating the professional knowledge of the trainees.

3.10.1. Simplification

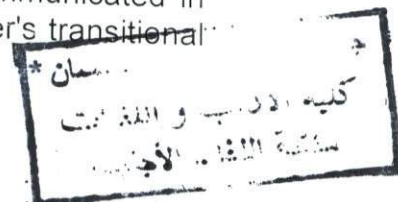
According to Widdowson (1979:179), simplification in language teaching refers to "a kind of intralingual translation whereby a piece of discourse is reduced to a version written in the supposed interlanguage of the learner ". There are some simplification techniques that are used in order to make materials accessible to learners. Very often these techniques include, lexical simplification –and even omission- as well as the simplification of some compound and complex sentences that are broken into a number a simpler component sentences.

Furthermore Widdowson (1979) suggests two different levels at which simplification can be carried out. So, the first level would be an operation on 'usage', since the simplification in this case insists on the way in which the language system is manifested. In other words the simplification is based on replacing words and structures with close semantic equivalents in the learners' interlanguage. Whereas the second level of simplification would deal with an operation on 'use'. In fact, simplification at this level is exclusively concerned with the way the language system is realized for the expression of proposition and the performance of illocutionary acts, i.e. simplification insists, according to Widdowson on:

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Making explicit in different terms the propositional content of the original and the ways in which it is presented in order to bring what is communicated in the original with the scope of the learner's transitional communicative competence

(Widdowson, 1979:179).



However, some characteristics of the simplification have a different importance since it underlies not only the production of 'simplified readers but also the whole process of syllabus design (ibid, 1979). So, repetition and redundancy are frequently used in order to make the transmitted message understandable and as direct as possible. Hence, the redundancy, for example, may be intended to enhance and facilitate the ability to build up understanding of an argument on the basis of auditory presented material. This is what Widdowson maintains. In addition, it is sometimes necessary to make explicit what is just implicit in the original version. Finally, when the original material seems to be difficult to understand, it could be rewritten, in order to make it easier to grasp.

When used to design a syllabus, the approach to simplification described above is likely to produce texts that are shorter than the original in the first few units of the course, but others as long as the original towards the end. Step by step, the degree of lexical, syntactic and conceptual simplification ought to be progressively reduced as the course goes on, so that by the last units the modified versions will be more direct versions of the original. This progressively closer approximation to the original is of course, aimed at facilitating the development of general comprehension skills and transfer to other areas.

3.10.2. Authenticity

Text authenticity had witnessed an increasing infatuation during the last years since a great number of ESP practitioners have become concerned with the problem of saying whether a given text is a genuine (3) example of material in a given content area.

Three main approaches have been then taken to this problem, the first is direct, i.e. an authentic text is an authentic text. In this case extract from reputable textbooks, articles, as well as papers,...etc are qualified as '*authentic*', and would be used by the practitioners from the field concerned. In other words the classroom strategy for ESP practitioner is to facilitate to learners deal with such original sources.

However, there is a principle weakness concerning this approach which leads to ask the following questions:

- 1 what if learners are unable to handle the complexity of such original materials?
- 2 what is the teacher to do in this case?
- 3 how can s/he help learners to deal with difficult texts?

In fact, there is little guidance on this point. Another intricacy with original texts (Mead, 1978; Johns, 1979) is that it is not sufficient for the text itself to be genuine. This means that there is a need to valid the whole teaching situation. Accordingly, one can question:

- Where the authenticity lies in a situation where an excerpt from original materials is used in a language teaching class?
- What does overall framework does the text relate to?
- What part does it play in the specialist course?

Without such connections to actual specialist teaching and learning the '*authentic*' text would exist in a vacuum, and consequently cannot be really authentic.

Another approach proposed by Mountford (1974) emerged as a reaction against the fact that the first view of authenticity as to give adequate and complete pedagogic answers failed. In fact, this second approach was an attempt to better describe authenticity in more efficient ways. Mountford's approach is based on the principle that a text can be simplified, or "re-created"⁽⁴⁾ without losing its authenticity. Furthermore he advanced that the speech acts of the original will be retained in the simplified version. The approach described above has the advantage that a text can be adapted to different levels of complexity so that learners can progressively master a great number of difficult texts, while at the same time the text involved is still genuine.

There is an analogy with translation here, since the aim of the "re-creation" is to convey meaning. The superficial can be transformed and modified, but the most important is kept.

Clearly the flexibility to the teacher provided by this new definition of authenticity is welcome. It permits the ESP practitioner to carry on the chore of teaching students the best way(s) to deal effectively with texts that are becoming progressively more difficult. Nevertheless, problems still exist with the "re-creation" approach. It is worth pointing out that the vital aspect within a text is the speech acts. There are many other things besides which are expected to be important components of the original.

The theory of authenticity has to take into account many determinant factors which are the outcomes of difficult text. Among these we could mention: propositional organisation, presuppositions, grammatical and lexical complexity, as well as knowledge of the total area.

However, the subjective nature of the "re-creation" technique of simplification is avoided in the third approach to text authenticity (Johns, 1979). In other words, this third approach claims that an authentic text must have an authentic context. Sinclair (1979) and Morrow (1978) simply state

that an authentic text is any text which will actually be used and have some communicative function.

Thus Morrow writes:

An authentic ~~text~~^a is a stretch of real language, produced by real speaker or writer for a real audience and designed to convey a real message of some sort. . . .
(Morrow, 1977: 13)

*incomplete possible **

This approach, fill in the gaps of the already mentioned proposals. Instead of attempting a characterisation of authentic text appeal is made to more objective criteria, standards that are external to the language teaching situation and which accept the judgement of the subject specialist.

However, similarly to the two first approaches, the latter, has also some disadvantages and weaknesses. First of all, it simply defines what authentic texts are, as it acts specifically at the level of identifying some texts as authentic. It does not propose any supplementary elements to the understanding of authentic texts, and of the significant dimensions along which text can vary.

3.10.3. Modification

A great number of researches have been undertaken on the question of whether to use modified texts or not. A real controversy arose since some researches have shown that modified texts do improve reading comprehension whereas others have shown that the most simplified version of a text is not necessarily; the one that obtains better comprehension results by students reading it.

Indeed, it appeared from the present study that very often the authentic texts are not the most appropriate, mainly in the case where learners are not linguistically mature enough to face these complexities of understanding. It was with one of the modified versions that learners achieved better understanding regarding comprehension.

All these results come to show that there is something about the kind and amount of modification that should be looked into and analysed carefully. These are the factors that might hold the clue as to how we could modify a text to suit the students' level and ultimately allow for progression.

The aim of text modification is to add, remove or simply modify the language of texts to enable language learners to better understand what may have not been previously accessible due to their lack of the target language proficiency, background knowledge, or reading ability. Modifying texts could also challenge language learners to read more difficult texts, sharpening their vocabulary knowledge, sentence-level understanding and use of reading strategies.

3.11. Some Vocabulary Learning Strategies:

Since lexical knowledge is closely linked to learning a language, as the latter depends much on vocabulary understanding alongside with grammar and structure of the TL to be learned, research into the effectiveness of various types of vocabulary learning methods as well as instructional techniques has been of considerable value to L2 research and pedagogy. In the last few decades there has been an increasing interest in vocabulary learning strategies (VLS) as they are found to facilitate L2/FL vocabulary learning. The interest in these strategies has also paralleled a movement which promoted a teaching-oriented perspective to one that emphasizes the learner's active role in the learning process.

If LLS can be defined as "specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations." (Oxford, 1990: 8), VLS constitute knowledge about what students do to find out the meaning of new words, retain them in long-term memory, recall them when needed in comprehension, and use them in language production (Catalan 2003, in: Ruutemets, 2005). Then it could be said that VLS are subcategory of LLS.

Research on the use of vocabulary strategies has revealed that language learners use different strategies while learning. Successful vocabulary learners were found to be active strategy users who were conscious of their learning and took steps to regulate it whereas poor learners displayed little awareness of how to learn new words or how to connect new words to old knowledge (Ahmed, 1989). Thus, an additional role of the ESP practitioner could be to assist poor language learners in becoming more effective learners by allowing them to individualize the language learning experience and to facilitate their awareness of strategies which they can use to learn on their own after they leave the language classroom.

According to Schmitt (1997, 2000), in deciding which vocabulary learning strategies to recommend to L2 learners, one needs to consider the specific learning context as the effectiveness with which learning strategies can be both taught and used depends on a number of variables, i.e. the students' proficiency level, their motivation and purposes in learning the L2, the tasks and texts being used.

3.10.1. Memory Strategies

Schmitt (1997) defines Memory strategies as "approaches which relate new materials to existing knowledge". Also known as Mnemonics Memory strategies have been found to enhance remembering through connecting new knowledge with familiar words and images (Levin, 1983; Mastropieri, Scruggs, & Fulk, 1990; Woolfolk, 1993). These strategies involve relating the word to be retained with some previously learned knowledge, using some form of imagery, or grouping (Mastropieri & Scruggs, 1991).

3.10.2. Learning Vocabulary from Context

Presenting vocabulary in contexts allows for the learner to retain not just the referential meaning of the words, but also to retain "the syntactic, pragmatic, and even the emotional information from their context" (Gu and Johnson, 1996: 646). It seems that it is easier to learn and remember vocabulary when it is presented within a context, rather than in a list or in a

set of flash cards. "Context" means all the words in a text which bound the unfamiliar words, and also the nonlinguistic situation in which the words are used. The familiar aspects of the linguistic and nonlinguistic context contribute their own meanings and set up associative links. This makes it possible at least to guess at the meaning of unknown words and later to recall their meanings by mentally associating them with the context in which they were first seen.

Gairns and Redman (1986) propose various procedures the teacher may use to present meaning or help students grasp the meaning of words they have never come through. These are: visual techniques, verbal techniques, translation, contextual guesswork and dictionary use.

- **Visual techniques** comprise flashcards, photographs, blackboard drawings, wallcharts and realia (real objects), and are particularly useful to present items of vocabulary such as food, furniture, professions, places and activities.
- **Verbal techniques**, on the other hand, are useful to explain more abstract concepts and include illustrative situations, synonymy and definition, contrasts and opposites, scales and examples.
- **Translations** can be a very efficient way of explaining meaning, saving time spent on unsuccessful explanations.
- **Contextual guesswork** involves the use of context to derive an idea of the unknown meaning and is guided by: a) topic and title; b) grammatical structure; c) punctuation; d) parallelism; e) anaphora; and f) other words in the redundancy of discourse.

3.12. Conclusion

This third chapter tried to shed the light on the fact that although the language learner as well as the ESP learner is important in the teaching/ learning process and deserves all the researchers' interests; the role of language teacher cannot be neglected and ignored since he/she has much to do with the task of motivating, creating a positive attitudes toward the FL as well as helping the learners to achieve a consistent level of language proficiency.

Indeed, the teacher has to be aware that in order to achieve this proficiency his/her learners need to exploit some strategies that are sometimes unknown for them and for this s/he has the duty to teach them either explicitly or implicitly.

NOTES TO CHAPTER THREE

1. The term Tapestry approach is used by Scarcella and Oxford (1992) in a book entitled: The Tapestry of Language Learning: The Individual in the Communicative Classroom. The authors of this book do not focus on language acquisition theory or research but rather on classroom practice, particularly in the adult academic or pre-academic ESL classroom. As an overview, it succeeds admirably, touching on most of the issues that concern active ESL teachers. The authors present a consistent viewpoint throughout, drawing heavily on Vygotsky's Zone of Proximate Development (Vygotsky, 1978) and Canale and Swain's (1980) discussion of communicative language teaching. The authors strongly advocate integrative skills classes and content-based instruction (although the last half of the book treats the traditional skills separately).

2. Taxonomy of LLS

There are many LLS classification such as:

- Rubin's (1987) Classification of Language Learning Strategies

According to Rubin, there are three types of strategies used by learners that contribute directly or indirectly to language learning. These are:

* Learning Strategies

They are of two main types, being the strategies contributing directly to the development of the language system constructed by the learner Cognitive Learning Strategies and Metacognitive Learning Strategies.

- Cognitive Learning Strategies

Rubin identified 6 main cognitive learning strategies contributing directly to language learning:

- Clarification / Verification
- Guessing / Inductive Inferencing
- Deductive Reasoning
- Practice
- Memorization
- Monitoring

- Metacognitive Learning Strategies

These strategies are used to oversee, regulate or self-direct language learning. They involve various processes as planning, prioritising, setting goals, and self-management.

- Communication Strategies

They are less directly related to language learning since their focus is on the process of participating in a conversation and getting meaning across or clarifying what the speaker intended. Communication strategies are used by speakers when faced with some difficulty due to the fact that their communication ends outrun their communication means or when confronted with misunderstanding by a co-speaker.

- Social Strategies

Social strategies are those activities learners engage in which afford them opportunities to be exposed to and practise their knowledge.

Oxford's (1990) Classification of Language Learning Strategies

Oxford's (1990:17) taxonomy of language learning strategies is shown in the following:

- DIRECT STRATEGIES
 - I. Memory
 - II. Cognitive
 - III. Compensation strategies
- INDIRECT STRATEGIES
 - I. Metacognitive Strategies
 - II. Affective Strategies
 - III. Social Strategies

It can be seen that much of the recent work in this area has been underpinned by a broad concept of language learning strategies that goes beyond cognitive processes to include social and communicative strategies.

O'Malley's (1985) Classification of LLS

O'Malley et al. (1985:582-584) divide language learning strategies into three main subcategories:

- Metacognitive Strategies

It can be stated that metacognitive is a term to express executive function, strategies which require planning for learning, thinking about the learning process as it is taking place, monitoring of one's production or comprehension, and evaluating learning after an activity is completed

- Cognitive Strategies

Repetition, resourcing, translation, grouping, note taking, deduction, recombination, imagery, auditory representation, key word, contextualization, elaboration, transfer, inferencing are among the most important cognitive strategies.

- Socioaffective Strategies

As to the socioaffective strategies, it can be stated that they are related with social-mediating activity and transacting with others. Cooperation and question for clarification are the main socioaffective strategies (Brown 1987:93-94).

Stern's (1992) Classification of LLS

According to Stern (1992:262-266), there are five main language learning strategies. These are as follows:

- Management and Planning Strategies

These strategies are related with the learner's intention to direct his own learning. That is to say that the learner must:

- decide what commitment to make to language learning
- set himself reasonable goals
- decide on an appropriate methodology, select appropriate resources, and monitor progress,
- evaluate his achievement in the light of previously determined goals and expectations (Stern 1992:263).

- Cognitive Strategies

They are steps or operations used in learning or problem solving that require direct analysis, transformation, or synthesis of learning materials. In the following, some of the cognitive strategies are exhibited:

- Clarification / Verification
- Guessing / Inductive Inferencing
- Deductive Reasoning
- Practice
- Memorization
- Monitoring

- Communicative - Experiential Strategies

Communication strategies, such as circumlocution, gesturing, paraphrase, or asking for repetition and explanation are techniques used by learners so as to keep a conversation going. The purpose of using these techniques is to avoid interrupting the flow of communication (Stern 1992:265).

- Interpersonal Strategies

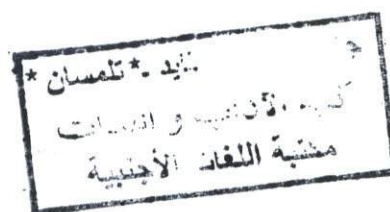
They should monitor their own development and evaluate their own performance. Learners should contact with native speakers and cooperate with them. Learners must become acquainted with the target culture (Stern 1992: 265-266).

- Affective Strategies

Learning training can help students to face up to the emotional difficulties and to overcome them by drawing attention to the potential frustrations or pointing them out as they arise (Stern 1992:266).

3- As defined by Widdowson (1979) "when we have conformity on the part of the writer we may say that the discourse is genuine whether or not it is authentic from the reader's point of view".

4- Mountford used the term 're-creation' instead of simplification.



CHAPTER FOUR

As for ↗

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CHAPTER FOUR

Suggestions and Recommendations

- 4.1. Introduction
 - 4.2. Curriculum vs. Syllabus
 - 4.2.1. Curriculum
 - 4.2.2. Syllabus
 - 4.3. Syllabus Types
 - 4.3.1. Synthetic and Analytic Syllabi
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CHAPTER FOUR

Suggestions and Recommendations

4.1. Introduction

It seems that it is effort demanding and time consuming for new teachers to experiment the task of planning and designing an appropriate syllabus that best fits a specific group of learners. ESP teachers who lack the 'savoir-faire' of designing courses that will tackle effectively the specific language needs of their learners, are frequently faced with a range of complexities and problems, especially when analysing the target needs of the learners. Quality ESP courses are of prime importance in all educational contexts. But unfortunately, very often new teachers are not afforded the necessary planning time before starting teaching specific groups of learners. In addition, the lack of training of some teachers could be mentioned as a fundamental handicap, since very frequently most teachers enrolled in teaching ESP are not specialists.

Thus, because of these constraints, teachers need to be mindful of developing courses that are learners-centred and they require some help to meet their learners' English language needs.

4.2. Curriculum vs. Syllabus

Commonly perceived as essential units of second language programmes, curricula and syllabi, can appear under various forms. They can represent various theories of learning and be realised in various ways.

However, before reviewing language-syllabus design, it is necessary to reveal the differences between the terms 'curriculum' and 'syllabus', that may generate great confusion in the literature, since these can, at times, be very close in meaning, depending on the context in which they are used (Nunan, 1988: 3).

Several definitions of 'curriculum' and 'syllabus' have been suggested through time. Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (Summers, 2001:332, 1464) defines 'curriculum' as "the subjects that are taught by a school, college, etc., or the things that are studied in a particular subject" and a 'syllabus' as "a plan that states exactly what students at a school or college should learn in a particular subject". It is also important to highlight the existing distinction between British and American usage. Where the term 'curriculum' in the United States is used for a particular course instruction and encompasses all aspects of the planning process, implementation and evaluation of curriculum (Nunan, 1991), the term 'syllabus' is not practically used at all in such area.

However, other definitions of 'curriculum' associate it to the totality of the content to be taught and educational aims that are realized within one educational system. According to Markee (2002) 'curriculum' discloses a programme's educational philosophy, specifies its purpose and course content and identifies the possibilities of its implementation. It also includes assessment and evaluation criteria and the materials that are worked out by teachers and can be modified for a specific audience and course. In its turn 'syllabus' represents course content and its sequence. As to Allen (1984), he offers a clear distinction, similar to that which has been prevalent in Europe, the curriculum being concerned with planning, implementation, evaluation, management, and administration of education programmes, while the syllabus focusing more narrowly on the selection and grading of content (Allen, 1984:61, cited in Nunan, 1988: 8). Traditional 'curriculum' development includes planning, which consists of needs analysis, goal and objectives setting, implementation, which consists of methodology and development of teaching aids, and evaluation (Nunan, 1991).

Elliot (1998) points out that 'syllabus' concerns course content. It allows teachers to pass information to students in an efficient way. Other methodologists such as Skelton and Willis consider that 'syllabus' involves a list of things teachers want their learners to learn. Reilly (1988) admits that a language teaching syllabus entails the incorporation of subject matter (what to

talk about) and linguistic matter (how to talk about it). We can distinguish between the syllabuses that are purely linguistic, where the emphasis is laid on the grammatical and lexical forms of the language on the one hand and on the other hand the purely semantic or informational syllabuses, where the emphasis is on information: language is only a tool for acquiring it. For syllabus design it is vital to decide what will be taught and in what order.

4.2.1. Curriculum

Since the recent introduction of 'curriculum theory' while the 1980s, into the field of educational studies, the importance of 'curriculum' as a concept witnessed great interest and infatuation in second-language programmes.

Although there is little general agreement on actual form and function, interpretations lead to two main views. In the first of these, the term 'curriculum' refers to the substance of a programme of studies of an educational system. Stenhouse (1975) defines the curriculum as "an attempt to communicate the essential properties and features of an educational proposal in such a form that it is open to critical scrutiny and capable of effective translation into practice" (Stenhouse, 1975:4).

In the second and more recent meaning, the whole teaching/ learning process is included in the concept of 'curriculum', comprising not only materials, equipment, and examinations, but also the training of teachers. In this view, curriculum is concerned with "what can and should be taught to whom, when, and how" (Eisner & Vallance, 1974:2). Thus, Nunan adds to his curriculum "elements designated by the term syllabus along with considerations of methodology and evaluation" (Nunan, 1988: 14). White et al. see curriculum as "concerned with objectives and methods as well as content" (White et al. 1991:168). Such a definition includes consideration of the philosophical, social and administrative factors of a programme.

4.2.2. Syllabus

The next step after analyzing the target situation needs and the learning situation needs and defining the course objectives is designing a syllabus. Therefore, it seems of great importance to define the term *syllabus* in order to have a better understanding of what it actually means and to which aspects and dimensions of ELT it is related. In the field of ELT/ELL many definitions have been suggested such as that of Breen who views a syllabus as:

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.

(Breen, 1987a:83)

But, the latter description may seem too broad and similar to some of the definitions of 'curriculum' already mentioned in the subtitle 3.2.1. Prabhu's on the other hand specifies that a syllabus is "specification of what is to be learnt" (Prabhu, 1987:89). For Allen (1984), the syllabus is "... that subpart of curriculum which is concerned with a specification of what units will be taught" (Allen 1984:61), whereas for Wilkins' (1981: 83-89), syllabuses are "specifications of the content of language teaching which have been submitted to some degree of structuring or ordering with the aim of making teaching and learning a more effective process."

While Nunan (1988) takes a wider, non-specific view of "... a framework within which activities can be carried out: a teaching device to facilitate learning" (1988:6), and Prabhu (1987) proposes "a form of support for the teaching activity that is planned in the classroom and a form of guidance in the construction of appropriate teaching materials" (1987:86). In contrast, Kumaravadivelu sees the syllabus as:

a preplanned, preordained, presequenced inventory of linguistic specifications imposed in most cases on teachers and learners" and claims that this is a "widely recognized" perspective

(Kumaravadivelu, 1993 b: 72).

Because different educational theories and approaches diverge on the goals and functions of syllabuses, an agreed common definition for "syllabus" may seem impossible. However, syllabi tend to be representations, reflecting the originator's ideas about language learning:

Every syllabus is a particular representation of knowledge and capabilities. And this representation will be shaped by the designer's views concerning the nature of language, how the language may be most appropriately taught or presented to learners, and how the language may be productively worked upon during learning.

(Breen, 1987a:83)

4.3. Syllabus Types

The evolution of syllabus design can be perceived as a progression of assumptions about language learning, for these reasons syllabi can be classified according to several criteria. Breen for example use two main paradigms or frames of reference to classify syllabi, one of these being 'propositional', and the other termed 'process' (Breen, 1987a: 81).

The emergent paradigm is concerned with how something is done (Breen 1987b:160), including how to communicate in the classroom and how to learn how to communicate, and it is typified in task-based and process syllabi:

In essence, each of the four types of syllabus offer alternative answers to the question: What does a learner of a new language need to know, and what does a learner need to be able to do with this knowledge?

(Breen, 1987a:85).

In examining each syllabus type, Breen further breaks this question down into five sub-questions:

- i) "What knowledge does it focus on?"
- ii) "What capabilities does it focus on and prioritise?"
- iii) "On what basis does it select and subdivide what is to be learned?"
- iv) "How does it sequence what is to be learned?"; and
- v) "What is its rationale?"

4.4.1. Synthetic and Analytic Syllabi

Long & Crookes (1993), paralleling Breen's attention to paradigms, suggest a distinction between "two superordinate categories, analytic and synthetic syllabi" (1993:11 cited in Wilkins 1974; 1976),

In this type of syllabus acquisition is a process of gradual accumulation of independently taught parts, building up to the whole structure of the language. The learner is exposed to a deliberately limited sample of language at any time, and has to "re-synthesise the language that has been broken down into a large number of small pieces with the aim of making this learning task easier" (Wilkins, 1976:2). Thus synthetic syllabi:

... rely on learner's (assumed) ability to learn a language in parts (e.g. structures and functions) independently of one another, and also to integrate, or synthesise, the pieces when the time comes to use them for communicative purposes.

(Long & Crookes, 1993:12)

The term 'synthetic' encompasses many traditional syllabuses such as the structural, the lexical, the notional, the functional, and most situational and topical syllabi.

- **Structural Syllabus**, (formal or grammatical syllabus) is a syllabus in which forms and structures, usually grammatical form the fundamental organizing feature. A structural syllabus proceeds gradually from easy grammatical structure to more complex grammatical structure. According to Jureckov (1998) this type of syllabus characterizes the model of foreign language teaching at its beginning. It focused only on one language aspect which is grammar.

Using the structural syllabus, makes accessible the grammatical material and the generative character of the syllabus but it failed because there is not so much grammar to learn to set up a syllabus based only on grammar (Skelton and Willis, 2004).

- **Functional-Notional Syllabus** emerged during the 1970s. It can be considered as the most popular alternative to the structural syllabus because it combines a notional (conceptual) aspect (time, age, color, space, movement, cause and effect); and a functional aspect (intentional or purposive use of language). These two aspects are considered as important elements to syllabus design. Wilkins (1976) describes functional-notional syllabus as a semantically-based syllabus which identifies the meanings (the notions) and the communicative acts (the functions). This syllabus was one of the first syllabi, which was based on a communicative teaching/learning approach. Because of the communication that it involves, functional-notional syllabus can be considered as a partly analytic one.

- **Lexical Syllabus**, according to Skelton and Willis (2004) it consists of 'grammar, expressions of notions and functions but the organizing principle is lexical'. The advantage of lexical syllabus is the fact that it represents the material (lexis) in an understandable and accessible way but its drawback is that it can be very long, even several pages per word because most English words have several meanings, depending on the context.

- **Relational Syllabus** was developed in the 1980s. It is founded on the basis of "notional relations such as cause-effect, or discourse relations, such as question-reply, or clause structure" (White, 1988: 78). This syllabus failed to be popular because it includes only limited elements of the total linguistic system.

- **Skill-Based Syllabus** can be defined as a specific way of using language that combines structural and functional ability. Skills are things that people must be able to do to be competent in a language, relatively independently of the situation or setting in which the language use can occur. Reilly (1988) adds that skill-based syllabus combines linguistic competences (pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, etc.) and generalized types of behaviour (socialising, presentations, etc.). The primary aim of such an instruction is to learn the specific language skills then develop more general competence in the language.

- **Situational Syllabus** another framework around which to organise language is that of various situations. According to Reilly (1988) the content of language teaching is formed by real or imaginary situations in which a foreign language is used. Quite often a situation involves a group of participants engaged in performing an activity in a specific situation. Teaching the language that the learners can come across in various situations is the major aim of a situational syllabus. The situational syllabus promotes students' motivation, since it is possible to set up real-life situations

- **Topical Syllabus** uses topics as their units of analysis. Many EFL course books are structured according to this principle but it also involves a weakness because its use can be quite problematic as it is difficult to forecast what it will contain.

In 'analytic' syllabi, prior analysis of the total language system into a set of distinct pieces of language is largely unnecessary:

Analytic approaches ... are organised in terms of the purposes for which people are learning language and the kinds of language performance that are necessary to meet those purposes.

(Wilkins, 1976:13).

Therefore 'analytic' syllabi refer to the operations required of the learner and not to what the syllabus designer does. "Since we are inviting the learner, directly or indirectly, to recognise the linguistic components of the language he is acquiring, we are in effect basing our approach on the learner's analytic capabilities" (Wilkins, 1976:14). Analytic syllabi present the L2, without linguistic interference or control, and rely on the learner's ability to induce and infer language rules, as well as on innate knowledge of linguistic universals. Procedural, process and task syllabi are examples of the analytic syllabus (Long & Crookes, 1993:11).

- **Task-based Approach** seeks to better understand the way languages are learnt (Foster 1999). Markee (2002) characterizes task-based language syllabus as a relatively new type of syllabus, which promotes learners' communication in the target language and Willis defines task-based learning as "a communicative language teaching with a systematic focus on language form. [...] This approach allows natural integration of all skills and encourages in the learner a concern for both accuracy and fluency." (Willis, 1998: 1).

The task-based syllabus promotes real communication situations in the foreign language. In addition such teaching/learning "offers a comprehensive exposure to language in use, through listening and reading, and provides opportunities for both spontaneous and planned speaking and writing" (Willis, 1998: 1). The Task-based learning framework is composed of three main components:

- Pre-task: at this stage the teacher introduces topic and task,
- Task cycle: consists of task, planning and report, and
- Language focus: includes analysis and practice.

- **Procedural Syllabus** or the communicational syllabus is one of the recent types of syllabi. It focuses mainly on classroom activities that encourage internal learning process (Jureckov, 1998). In the classroom the learners perform tasks that will be carried out in the life. The procedural syllabus appeared during the late of the 1970's and the beginning of the 1980's as a result of the Bangalore Project in India (1979-1984). The project was carried out by Prabhu who considered that linguistic form is acquired subconsciously while the learner is focussed on meaning. The distinctive feature of the procedural syllabus is that the language is taught through communication and not communicatively as in other communicative language teaching approaches (Markee, 2002).

- **Process Syllabus** was first developed to teach ESP at the University of Lancaster and then in Europe to teach general English and in Australia to teach English to migrants (Markee, 2002). Process syllabus is considered as an innovative syllabus since it is largely based on project work and problem-solving tasks and activities. In the process syllabus, course materials, content and teaching methods are negotiated between the teacher and the students, thus ensuring its innovative nature.

- **Content-Based Syllabus** is intended to design a type of instruction in which the fundamental aim is to teach specific information and content using the language that the learners are also learning. In other words the language is learnt through other subjects. Hence, language is no longer the main focus, but it has a secondary role in the teaching/learning process, giving the primary role to the information that students acquire in the course. Marco (2002) argues that content-based syllabus combines target language learning and content learning. This syllabus takes into account learners' wishes since it is based on the content and authentic materials.

The advantage of the content-based learning is the use of authentic and challenging materials, which leads to attain better results and promotes learners' motivation. At the same time the content-based syllabus allows ESP learners to develop their linguistic skills and communicative competence.

- **Learner-Centred Syllabus** views "language acquisition as a process of acquiring language skills rather a body of knowledge" (Nunan, 1991: 21). Learner-centred syllabus includes the following elements: initial planning procedures (needs analysis, goal setting, objective setting, and learner grouping), content selection and gradation, methodology (development of teaching aids, selection of materials and tasks) and ongoing monitoring, assessment and evaluation.

The learner-centred syllabus, according to Nunan (1991) seeks to provide learners with efficient learning strategies that will allow them to negotiate on the syllabus, to encourage learners to set their own aims, to choose corresponding learning strategies to fulfill their aims, and finally to develop self-evaluation skills. The main characteristic of a learner-centred syllabus is that any decision is open to changes, i.e. the content chosen by the learners and the teacher at the beginning of the course can be changed through time according to the learners' wishes.

- **The Natural Approach** appeared in the USA as a method of foreign language teaching. It seeks to meet the adult learners' language learning needs. Recently, this approach is considered as a practical implementation of monitor theory that deals with the acquisition learning theories for adults (Markee 2002).

The natural-approach syllabus promotes communicative tasks; linguistic competence appears over a time and emphasis is on error correction on meaning, not grammatical form. The disadvantage of this syllabus is its intricate nature.

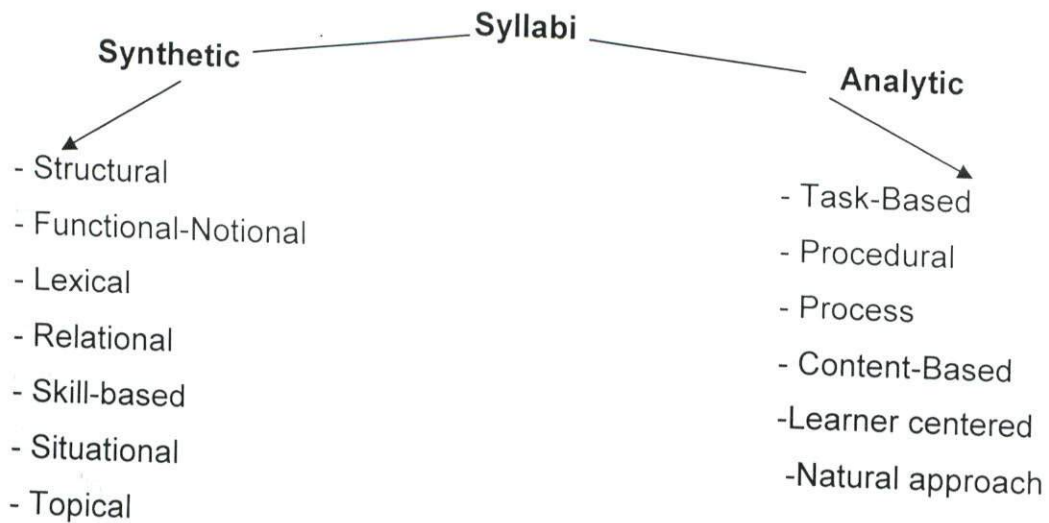


Figure 6: Classification of syllabi according to Long & Crookes (1993)

White (1),(2) (1988), classifies language syllabus types into content-based, skills-based and method-based syllabi, the first two include situational and topic-based syllabi, and the latter comprise task-based and process-based syllabi) (figure below):

In fact, the various types of syllabi that had been mentioned above are usually combined in more or less integrated ways by teachers. So, the teacher selects the main syllabus which seems to her/him fits most of her/his learners around which s/he arranges other types of syllabi.

Bases for language syllabi

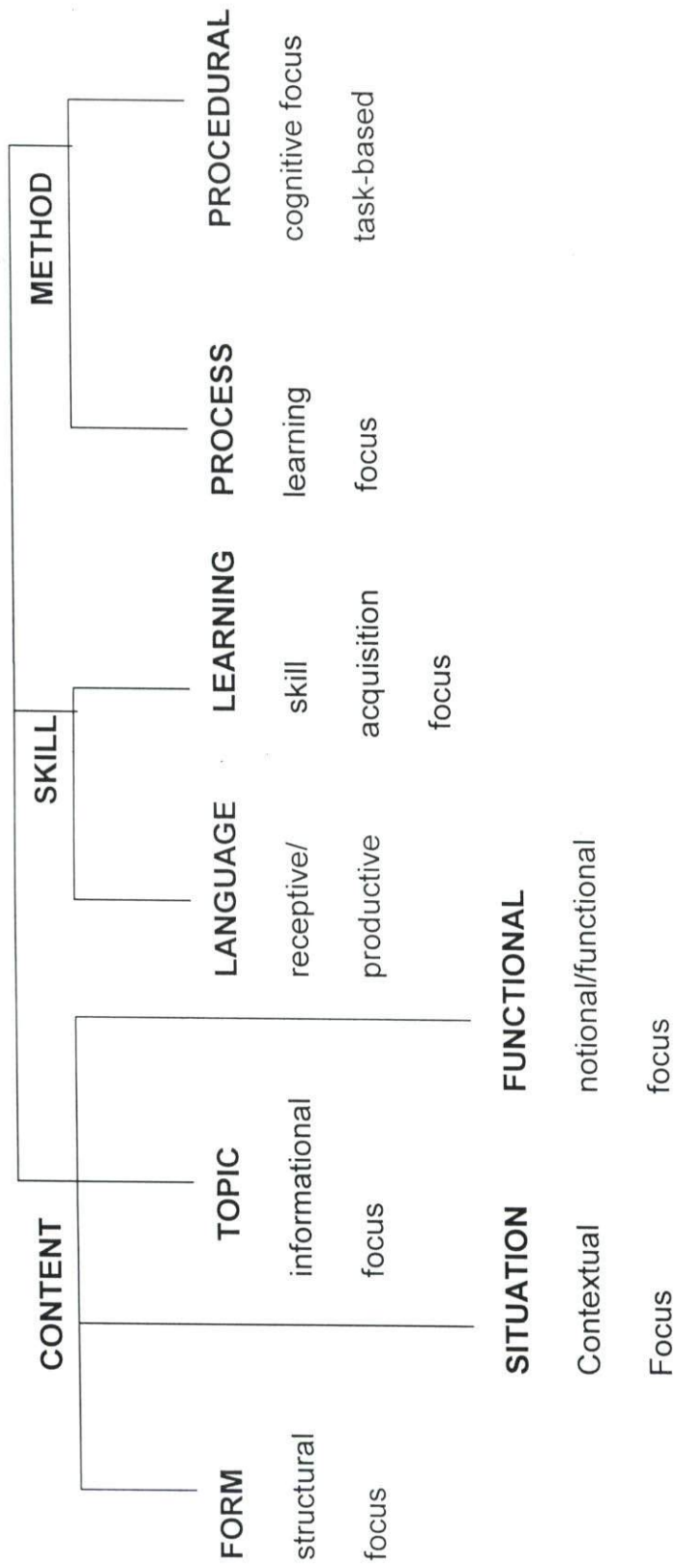


Figure 7: bases for language syllabus design

(White 1988:46).

Breen, however, considers that each syllabus is subject to six universal requirements. These requirements lead the designer to i) focus upon; ii) select; iii) subdivide; and iv) sequence the appropriate outcomes of language learning (Breen, 1987a:83):

1. provision of an accessible framework of required knowledge and skills;
2. provision of continuity for its users;
3. ability to give a retrospective account of what has been achieved;
4. evaluation - provision of accountability to colleagues, to learners, and to the wider institution and society;
5. precision of purpose, so that it may be assessed for appropriateness through implementation;
6. sensitivity to the environment for which the plan is intended. (Breen, 1987a:82).

4.3.2. Syllabus Design Criteria

The various types of language syllabus already dealt with in section (4.3.) might be taken by the ELT teacher as well as the ESP practitioner as a basis in the planning of a year's work. According to Harmer (2001:295) "whatever type it is, every syllabus needs to be developed on the basis of certain criteria". These criteria are supposed to inform decisions about selecting, ordering, including or not each item and finally where and when it might be included.

Harmer (2001:296) prescribes four criteria to be taken into consideration by the teacher. These criteria are as follows:

- Learnability, i.e. the teacher starts to teach easier things first and then increases the level of difficulty as the learners advance through the syllabus.

- Frequency, i.e. the teacher incorporates the most frequent items in the target language and then ones that are rarely used by native speakers.
- Coverage i.e. to teach the words and structures that have larger scope of use than others. For example, to introduce the 'going to' structure to express future first because it is used in more situations than and then the present continuous.
- Usefulness, i.e. to introduce words that learners are called to use frequently to develop their linguistic ability either in the classroom environment or everyday life.

4.4. General Syllabuses Characteristics

Syllabi vary in many aspects. Indeed, some are very short and barely readable, while others are lengthy and neatly bound (Taylor, 1970:32 in White 1988:3). While this range is great, White suggests that an agreement exists as to the characteristics of a syllabus which Brumfit (1984a cited in White, 1988:3) summarized as:

1. A syllabus is the specification of the work of a particular department in a school or college, organized in subsections defining the work of a particular group or class;
2. It is often linked to time, and will specify a starting point and ultimate goal;
3. It will specify some kind of sequence based on:
 - a) sequencing intrinsic to a theory of language learning or to the structure of specified material relatable to language acquisition;
 - b) sequencing constrained by administrative needs, e.g. materials;
4. It is a document of administrative convenience and will only be partly justified on theoretical grounds and so is negotiable and adjustable;
5. It can only specify what is taught; it can not specify what is learnt;
6. It is a public document and an expression of accountability.

4.5. Issues in ESP Syllabus Design

The dominant assumption in the field of ESP has been that if the needs of a group of English language learners can be accurately specified, then, this identification can be used to establish the content of a language syllabus that will meet these needs (Munby, 1978). Such interpretations were frequent during the 1970s and 1980s when NA in ESP setting was widespread in language teaching (Nunan, 1988; Strevens, 1988).

Subsequently, for specification of behavioural objectives, such procedures were adopted as the primary process which then explored diverse syllabus elements such as *functions*, *notions* and *lexis* in a more exhaustive approach (Nunan, 1988).

Until now, a great number of ESP practitioners agree on the previously stated assumption in designing ESP courses for Technology, Sciences or Business students. ESP researchers agree on the necessity to identify the specific learners' needs and language registers, in order to make the use of teaching materials more effective.

Considerable efforts were made to design comprehensive Language for Specific Purpose (LSP) syllabus which focused on learners' needs, especially, when LSP became prevalent during the 1960s and 1970s. But NA did not get its significant authority and position in LSP until Munby (1978) introduced his approach to NA.

Although several criticisms, various researchers still see the importance to use Munby's Communicative Needs Processor, since, they consider it as being contributory in many developmental ways (Jordan, 1997; Phan, 2005).

Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998: 122) see NA as being "the corner stone of ESP and leads to a very focused course" , indeed , NA is neither exclusive to language teaching nor within language training.

Though ways of defining '*needs*' are numerous, there are mainly two ways of interpreting the concept of '*learner needs*':

- Goal-oriented definition of needs. In fact, this refers to the final objectives, i.e. what the learner *wants* to do with the language?
- Process-oriented definition of needs; the orientation relates to means of learning, i.e. what the learner *needs* to do to acquire the language?

The Goal-oriented definition was largely used and accepted during the past few decades. But progressively and because of the appeal of globalization in the teaching and learning contexts, ESP courses are likely to relate to both simultaneously, with, however, a tendency to focus more on the Process-oriented approach, making a parallel with learners' needs and their present working settings.

In this respect, Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998: 145) propose a guideline for ESP course design and establish helpful steps to be followed by ESP practitioners and course designers. A number of targeted questions shape this model and they are as follows:

- "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 *homogenous* 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?"

Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998: 145)

The ESP teachers can better prepare themselves, by asking these questions. More, if the teacher has to balance out some of these parameters which are connected to institutional and learner expectations (Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998). As explained by Wright (2001), if the ESP practitioners have the will to design courses that cover and satisfy their whole present and future learners' needs, they are required to respect a fundamental step, which is the determination of the ESP courses by a comprehensive NA. In the field of NA some of the following aspects are suggested by experts:

- Placement testing: to test and assess the general English ability of the specific group of learners and their ability to perform effectively in work contexts, this might help determine the introductory level of courses in the ESP course.
- Linguistics needs analysis: ESP practitioners identify skill development, linguistic structures, lexical items, language functions and levels of formality.
- Learning needs analysis: identify learners' attitudes towards different kinds of methodology, learning tasks and activities.

- Learner perceptions analysis: discover learners' perceptions of themselves and others as part of their environment, as well as their relationships with people from other environments.

While examining course design issues in whichever teaching and learning context, it is noticed that matching aim and method is not merely a mechanistic process of discovering: what the aim is and then finding the suitable method to achieve it.

4.6. Basic English Proficiency

Dudley-Evans (1998) notes as a characteristic of ESP that the latter is generally designed for intermediate or advanced students and assumes the importance of some basic knowledge of the language system for these learners before being involved into ESP. Accordingly, an ESP teacher would consider this parameter while designing a course. An ESP student could also be trained to use skills, abilities and proficiency that clearly belong to the area of GE before introducing the new specialized vocabulary.

Therefore, Basic English Language Proficiency is imposed to the learners in order to be able to assimilate the targeted contents of the ESP lectures. Basic language proficiency, in this case, refers to a prerequisite basic ability to use the TL. Even within the setting of ESP, teaching GE cannot be ignored if placement tests or other tests reveal learners' gaps and weaknesses while using the language. The blanks have to be filled before proceeding to higher level English or at least specialised English.

ESP learners would be able to use informal language and engage in activities, such as: talking about themselves, their work and socialising. This involves that the acquisition of GE would not be neglected by the ESP teacher once that the elementary proficiency is reached. Except the learners already master these skills and abilities, ESP teacher can avoid teaching GE in addition to more specific language. The general focus is clearly to improve both written and oral communicational language ability. ESP teachers would not forget that although teaching ESP, they are principally teachers of a FL to

non-native speakers. This means helping a student learn GE is part of FLT. This is why it is important to keep a fair balance between GE and ESP in order to maintain a harmony to avoid tensions that may arise between conflicting needs.

Yet, one would not fall into extremes and give EGP a larger part than it ought to have though sometimes it is rather hard to limit oneself. The mastery of GE is probably essential in order to provide ESP learner with a basic language proficiency,

An ESP teacher is likely to insist as much as possible upon how to talk about working life, traveling or Management without forgetting to browse through the vocabulary of media or everything connected with the consumer society, etc. since it is a teacher's job to help students acquire the abilities that s/he is likely to need in professional life.

4.7. Teaching Aids

Teaching aids or teaching materials are usually used by language teachers to explain language meaning and construction, engage students in a topic, or as the basis of a whole activity. (Harmer, 2003). In fact, according to Harmer (2003) these teaching aids are used for a practical and a motivational reason among these he mentions: pictures and images, the overhead projectors, the board, the language laboratory and finally the computers.

Gatehouse distinguishes between four types of materials emphasising their importance in FLT:

Given that ESP is an approach and not a subject to be taught, curricular materials will, unavoidably be pieced together, some borrowed and others designed specially. Resources will include authentic materials, ESL materials, ESP materials, and teacher-generated materials.

(Gatehouse, 2001:9)

Materials authenticity is very important in language teaching as well as in ESP teaching since they provide students with information to help them better understand vocabulary that may not be familiar to them. In this respect Harmer believes that "Authentic material is language where no concessions are made to foreign speaker. It is normal, natural language used by native – or-competent- speakers of a language." (Harmer, 2003: 205).

One of the core dilemmas that had appeared from the present research is that the ESP teachers at the level of the Department of Management find themselves in a situation where they are expected to produce a course that exactly matches the needs of their learners with no availability of textbooks or resources within the Department. While being students, many interviewed teachers argue that they have never been trained to teach in such a specific field, for conducting NA, materials research and materials development. Teachers at the Department of Management say that they use various resources including authentic, ESL, ESP, and teacher-generated materials.

4.8. Objectives of International Commerce Students

After interpreting the first year International Commerce students' responses to the questionnaire and in order to put the definitions dealt with in chapter two into practice, the goal of the tutorial would be to familiarize the students with the terminology used in the field of International Commerce and deal with some translation in order to reinforce and check their understanding. After the end of the course the learner must be able to comprehend a basic terminology proper to Business, Management and International Commerce domains and understand from simple to more difficult texts.

However, although the four skills are interrelated and interdependent to develop an effective communicative competence, it remains yet very hard to develop and deal with the four skills during the year because of the time constraints which consist of a tutorial of about an hour and a half per week.

4.9. English in the Department of Management within the LMD System

Since 2004, the Algerian framework of university degrees is undergoing a decisive transformation which consists in gradually replacing the traditional system, by a three-tier system deemed to be more internationally compatible. Adopting the LMD(3) system (*Licence, Master, Doctorate*) is expected to bring Algerian degrees up to European standards, through innovative teaching methods and curricula offered to teachers, researchers and students.

It is hoped that the new system will make Algerian universities studying programs more compatible with those around the world, thereby increasing the international mobility of Algerian faculty and students. In addition, the reforms are aimed at increasing institutional autonomy while producing learning outcomes more attuned to the needs of the labor market.

The LMD system at the level of the Department of Management had been authorized during the academic year 2008-2009 to be launched on the following year in 2009-2010. However, some of the drawbacks of such a system are that some streams such as; D.E.U.A. (Diplôme d'études universitaires appliqués, literal English translation: applied university studies diploma), International commerce and Computing Management will be suspended.

As the Department of Management had to reorganise itself along LMD patterns and being aware of the importance of English in the field of management, the launching board of the new system has chosen to replace what is known by English tutorial in the classical system –licence (General Certificate of Secondary education(4)+4) by a tutorial entitled Business English. Thus, accordingly, the future enrolled students within the LMD system will be supposed to deal with an English course during four semesters which covers a number of basic aspects in their subject area.

In other words there will be no more misunderstanding as to what to teach. It is clear that the teachers at the level of the Department will be bound:

- To provide learners with specialized courses covering both theoretical and practical levels
- To enable them to become broadly educated and
- To help them gain in-depth knowledge in their particular field.

4.10. Suggested Syllabus

Taking as a starting point the basic assumption that all first year students at the level of the Faculty of Economics and Management have the same lacks in term of vocabulary related to their field of study as well as weaknesses in oral communication on the one hand, since the field of International Commerce will be suspended next year because of the LMD system on the other hand. It appeared to the researcher that it would be appropriate to select a functional/notional syllabus around which some other types of syllabi may be added since teaching is supposed to be eclectic and adaptable according to the learners' needs. The process will take effect by selecting materials as well as tasks that work accordingly and to apply it for the LMD system. Thus, the researcher suggests the following functions to be dealt with:

- describing
- comparing
- questioning
- arguing
- expressing cause and effect

Because of the numerous lacks observed within the learners, the researcher suggests that the ESP teacher helps the students first of all to improve their reading comprehension. At this stage, it seems that this is the skill that would be the most useful for the learners because they are likely to use for example, the internet as a means to deeper their knowledge in their

field of study. As it is known, the first language for the internet use is the English language. Thus, the teacher would prepare the learners to not being afraid of encountering a survey or a document written in English while dealing with some researches in relation with their field.

Nevertheless, because of the students' level, simplified texts would be prescribed during two semesters whereas the last semester would encompass authentic reading materials.

So, the suggested syllabus includes mainly two stages:

- Stage 1: consolidating the learners' basic English language proficiency
- Stage 2: introducing business English.

Yet, the first stage appears to be an important phase since it will not be just a revising step, but also a learners' evaluation in terms of the amount of the TL acquired. The second stage will encompass eight units designed for first year students. The units may be studied during the second semester. Each unit is built around a theme related to learners' specific field of study and contains a reading text followed by activities that focus on developing the learners' lexical abilities and their mastery of the language. The number of the units is not exhaustive. The teacher is free to add units or retrieve others depending on the level of the learners and the time available.

The reading texts are divided into three main parts:

- Comprehension of the reading text.
- Language practice.
- Development of discourse.

The first part is designed to help the learners understand the texts and store as much as possible lexis and cognitive knowledge which they will use to communicate during the post reading phase. This stage may include activities such as:

- Answering comprehension questions related to the text
- Finding synonyms and opposites
- True or false activity
- Matching the words with their definitions

The second part concerns the practice of language. The aim of such a step is to help the learners recognize the functions and deduce their meaning, this may include:

- fill in the gaps
- matching the pairs using connectors
- deriving nouns/adjectives/verbs

The last stage is aimed to develop the learners speaking skill. Thus, the learners are going to use the acquired lexis and knowledge of the two previous stages and use it to communicate. The types of activities that may be used are:

- dialogues
- discussions
- debates

	Kinds of Teaching Materials (1)	Syntax (2)	Conceptual Apparatus(3)	Students' skill(4)
Semester 1	Worksheets Handouts	Basic structure of language -Grammar/ Vocabulary	/	- Reading - Formation of simple sentences (written)
Semester 2	Simplified texts(5) related to business and management	Elaborated structure of language (part I) -Vocabulary related to business - Grammar	Common concepts in business and management	- Reading - Formation of simple sentences (written and oral) - Translation(6)
Semester 3	Modified texts(7)	Elaborated structure of language (part II)	Sophisticated terminology related to business and management	- Paragraph writing - Discussion
Semester 4	Authentic(8) texts	Elaborated structure of language (part II)	Sophisticated terminology related to business and management (part II)	- Essay writing - Letters writing

Table 4.1: a proposed English syllabus

- (1) The teaching materials are documents used by the teacher as teaching supports; they include: texts, handouts, worksheets simplified, modified or authentic.
- (2) All the language and the grammar to deal with during the English tutorial.
- (3) The new terms and concepts related to the learners field of study.
- (4) The four skills listening, reading, speaking and writing.
- (5) Simple sentences structure and lexis represent the foundation of the text to be dealt with.
- (6) Translation considered as the fifth skill is dealt with to check the learners' comprehension.

- (7) Modified versions of authentic texts may be used to enrich the learners' vocabulary by using a wider terminology.
- (8) The texts used are original versions.

4.11.1. Unit One

Functions: Asking for and giving opinions

Language forms: present simple/ I agree, I think.

Company Structure

It is a well-known fact that Prince Philip, the husband of Queen Elizabeth II, calls the **Royal Family** 'the company'. I know exactly what he means. Running a business and managing a family are very similar. And like any business, our family has a number of departments.

Purchasing is a major section and usually runs over budget. This is not the **Purchasing Manager's** fault - it is because staff members always demand new football boots, CDs, computer games, designer jeans, and pocket money. In the future, we will probably need more careful spending and a better choice of suppliers.

This particular branch has a headcount of five, and the **Human Resources** team is always available to deal with their problems. The Training Department ensures that the younger members go to school, and reach the objectives set by the management. Our **Public Relations** team ensures that we have a good image around the village, in the schools, and among other members of the family. It must constantly update people on sports successes, academic results, and good deeds. It also covers up stories of swearing, unusual websites, and detention. **Key clients** like grandparents do not need to hear about such things.

Quality Control is a difficult area. The quality of holidays, toys, sports coaching, etc., should be the same for all **team members**. Younger members, however, insist on top quality from an early age, and have high expectations. This obviously affects the budget, and our **Financial Controller** often informs us we are overspending.

Production is high for most of the year, particularly in terms of noise and dirty laundry. Our Transport Division constantly demands extra personnel for trips to tennis, football, school, friends' houses, and so on. **Casual staff** sometimes do baby-sitting and ironing, but we try to limit these particular costs. The **Main Board** meets occasionally to discuss strategy, but the overall policy is quite reactive. If there is a problem, we deal with it.

The Facilities team is in charge of buildings and land (or the garden, as we call it). It has suggested some refurbishment, so next year's budget will cover a new lawnmower and two

cans of paint. Apart from that, there will be little change and, as Chairman, I really hope that we will break even again, or maybe even make a small profit.

From: www.oup.com

I - READING COMPREHENSION:

a- Read the text then answer the following questions:

- 1 What is running a company compared to?
- 2 How many company departments are mentioned?
- 3 Give three examples of things bought by the Purchasing Department.
- 4 What does the family hide from the grandparents?
- 5 What does the family produce a lot of?
- 6 What is the transport team responsible for?
- 7 What is the budget target for next year?

b-Ten collocations (two words together) are highlighted in the text. Write them next to the correct definition.

- 1 The monarchy.
- 2 This person monitors spending.
- 3 This department ensures high standards.....
- 4 This person is in charge of buying.
- 5 Temporary employees.
- 6 Very important customers.
- 7 People in the same department.....
- 8 They recruit staff.
- 9 They represent the shareholders.....
- 10 They deal with the press.

II-LANGUAGE PRACTICE:

a - Read the text about Singapore airlines and choose the best option.

Singapore Airlines is one of the world's favourite carriers, and regularly wins _____ from magazines such as *Condé Nast Traveller* for the quality of its service. _____ who fly SIA praise its _____ prices and the fact that it's so _____ - say that flights nearly always leave and arrive time.

The airline was founded in 1947 and was called Malayan Airways, which changed later to Malaysia- Singapore airlines (MSA). In the early days, most of the business came from _____ flights between Singapore, Kuala Lumpur, and Penang. In 1972, MSA split up and Singapore Airlines was formed.

Since those early days the airline has expanded. The company has been able to make a _____ while keeping _____ at a reasonable level. It shows other signs of being well managed, because morale is high and staff _____ is low. Over the next few years it expects to be made over the Internet.

Taken from www.singapore.com

1	A	awards	B	gifts	C	gains	D	prices
2	A	Voyagers	B	Trippers	C	Passengers	D	Riders
3	A	competition	B	heavy	C	small	D	competitive
4	A	ready	B	useful	C	reliable	D	guaranteed
5	A	at	B	on	C	with	D	by
6	A	short-time	B	short-way	C	short-haul	D	short-cut
7	A	benefit	B	advantage	C	plus	D	profit
8	A	fares	B	Tickets	C	fees	D	charge
9	A	change	B	alteration	C	departure	D	turnover
10	A	reservation	B	reversal	C	rehearsal	D	restoration

b- What do these companies do? Make sentences about them choosing a word/ phrase from each column. You must use all the words.

Lloyd's of London	provides	insurance services
3M	manufactures	newspapers and magazines
BMW	publishes	pharmaceutical products
The News Corporation	sells	banking services
FedEx	supplies	oil refineries
Taiwan Power	provides	cars
Novartis Ltd	transports	innovative products
Crédit Lyonnais	produces	sports footwear and accessories
Benetton	operates	colourful sweaters and other clothes
Shell	makes	electricity
Reebok	develops	packages and letters

c- Underline the correct word in *italics*.

Frances what do you *think/agree* Chris?

Chris I'm/I *disagree*. I think that loyalty cards aren't popular with many customers.

Frances that's a good *point/ view* Chris but all our competitors offer them. How do you *think/feel* about that Irina?

Irina I *think/ agree* with you. Our customers expect cards. What we need are loyalty cards and other ways to improve customer service.

Chris I don't *think/agree* so. I take *take/have* your point about improving customer service and I *opinion/think* we should look at that but loyalty cards are old. People want something different.

III – DEVELOPMENT OF DISCOURSE

- 1 How could your work interfere with your home life, or vice versa?

4.11.2. Unit Two

Functions: Expressing obligation

Language forms: Passive-Active voice /Adjectives/ must, mustn't.

The Power of Advertising

When we look at the history of advertising over the last one hundred years, certain companies have always seen the importance of it, spent billions of dollars on it, and created some really memorable campaigns. In Europe, one of the great innovators in advertising is the automobile company, Citroen.

The founder of the company, André Citroen, was always aware of the importance of publicity. His company symbol is still used today. In 1922, to increase public awareness of this symbol, he offered the French government 150,000 new road signs. The following year, he started manufacturing toy versions of his cars. Over the next ten years, Citroen sold over 2,000,000 of the miniature models. Soon after, he had another brilliant idea-he paid to have the company name written in lights on the Eiffel Tower. So when Charles Lindbergh flew across the Atlantic in 1927, the name Citroen was the first thing he saw when he landed in Paris. In front of the world's press, Citroen then gave the famous pilot a tour of his factory. More great public relations.

When André Citroen died in 1935, Michelin bought the company. They immediately reduced advertising budget. When the famous 2CV was launched in 1948, the company produced just a small black and white leaflet, and relied on the best advertising in the world-word of mouth.

In the fifties, photography became very fashionable, and Citroen published beautiful, glossy brochures to launch the new series of cars, the DS. Citroen and fashion became linked in the mind of the consumer.

In the seventies, Peugeot bought Citroen, and used TV spots to launch their new cars. They started using stars to endorse the cars, and for the last thirty years, this has continued with people like Grace Jones; Cindy Crawford, and Claudia Schiffer. The latest must- have for companies is the website, and the PSA group has been a pioneer in that too. With its very carefully managed corporate identity, Citroen is a perfect example of brand management and advertising.

From: www.oup.com

I - READING COMPREHENSION:

1- Read the text then answer the following questions

- What did André Citroen do to publicize the new logo?
- Who bought André Citroen's company after his death?
- What is Citroen a great example of?

2- complete the sentences using one of the following words :

Leaflets, advertisements, campaign, corporate, endorse, sponsors, mouth, relations.

- We don't do much advertising. We rely on word of.....
- McDonalds and Coca-Cola are huge.....of football.
- We need a goodstarting 3months before the launch.
- I have a small company and print small black and white.....
- Companies need to manage theiridentity carefully
- My favouriteare made for ADIDAS.
- Celebrities are paid millions toa product.

- Sponsoring a local team is good for public
- 3- Translate the following sentences into French/Arabic.
 - André Citroen was always aware of the importance of publicity.
 - In 1935, Michelin bought the company.
 - Citroen is a perfect example advertising

II – LANGUAGE PRACTICE:

1- Find the error in each sentence and correct it.

- Do he need a book for this class?
- Why do Nabil have the applications on his desk?
- They doesn't work in the emergency room.
- How often does you test your students?
- Mrs. Smith work in the health science library on campus.
- Scientists doesn't know the origin of the world.

2- Complete the table below

Noun	Verb	Noun	Adjective
	Retire	seniority	
Demotion			Freelance
Lay-off		Redundancy	
	Dismiss		Insecure
	terminate		Flexible

3- Complete these questions with words from the list.

who, what, how much, where, how many.

- 1- 's your name?
- 2-do you come from?
- 3-do you earn?
- 4-nationality are you?
- 5-do you do?
- 6- do you work for?

4- Replace the words in *italics* with a phrase from the list, so that the two sentences mean the same.

Don't have to- mustn't- must- can't- can.

- 1- I'm *not allowed to* leave until I have a deal.
Ileave until I have a deal.
- 2- He's *able to* offer them something extra.

He..... offer them something extra.

3- *I'm unable to* answer your question.

I answer your question.

4- *It's not necessary for* you to finish the report.

You..... finish the report.

5- *It's necessary for* you to arrive on time.

You..... arrive on time.

5- Rewrite these sentences in the passive.

1- We test all our products.

.....

2- I deliver the letters everyday.

.....

3- Market Research phones ten per cent of our customers.

.....

III - DEVELOPMENT OF DISCOURSE:

Discussion:

- What is your favourite TV ad? Explain why.

4.11.3. Unit Three

Functions: Making requests

Language forms: Adjectives/ Numbers/ could, can.

Jobs for Life?

‘The person who works for one employer all their life is a thing of the past. Most people today must expect to have many different employers, some at the same time.’ Business guru, Bart Clomby, made this statement at a recent conference in Venice. But is this really true for everyone?

Sandra Arlotti is a 43-year-old human resources manager. She has worked for the same company for eighteen years. She has a demanding job, and a hectic home life – she has to take care of a sick parent as well as her three children.

‘I’m considering leaving my company to become a **freelance** consultant, but I am worried about not having a regular income,’ she told me. ‘I also want to benefit from my **pension**.’ Sandra is typical of a number of people who can no longer be sure of working for one employer all their life.

Kaori Kanayama works for a bank in Osaka. ‘I have worked there for over twenty years, in many different departments. I now feel that I am **in a rut**. I have a lot of experience, yet I earn a low salary compared with other **graduates**, and I work exceptionally long hours. My company likes to retain experienced staff, but I simply cannot earn enough money.’

These two people can stay with their firm if they want to. But not everyone has the luxury to choose. In other companies, **redundancy** is a real danger. John Chapman was a manager of a bookshop in a large chain. The company was taken over by another chain. After the **merger**, half of the managers lost their jobs.

‘I wanted to leave last year, but my boss persuaded me to stay by offering me a **bonus** and a salary rise. Unfortunately, he left at the time of the takeover so I didn’t get the rise or the bonus, and I have now lost my job.’

Bart Clomby feels that employers now think very short-term. They prefer to offer **fixed-term** contracts to get the most out of employees in the first few years. Then the employer can either keep them on a similar salary, or replace them with younger, **keener**, cheaper staff. Clomby says the only way to get a large **salary rise** is to move from company to

company. So, remember. Even if you love your present job, don't expect to stay there forever.

From: www.oup.com

I – READING COMPREHENSION:

a- read the text then answer

- 1 The article says there is less job security nowadays. True or false?
- 2 Sandra and Kaori aren't sure if they should leave their companies. Complete this table with the reasons they give

	Reasons for leaving	Reasons for not leaving
Sandra		
Kaori		

- 3 John made the wrong decision. Explain why.
- 4 Why do employers offer fixed-term contracts, in Bart Clomby's opinion?
- 5 What does Clomby recommend doing if you want to get a large salary rise?

b- Ten words or expressions are highlighted in the text. Write them next to the correct definition.

- 1 the loss of a job.
- 2 an increase in pay.
- 3 a supplement to a salary.
- 4 for a set period of time.
- 5 more interested and ambitious.
- 6 in a boring situation with no real future prospects.
- 7 people who have completed university.
- 8 when two firms become one.
- 9 selling your services/skills to several companies.
- 11 the money you earn after you retire.

II – LANGUAGE PRACTICE:

a- Work with a partner. Match the words from the list to definitions 1–11.

Fun- varied- challenging- routine- depressing- stressful- glamorous- worthwhile rewarding- dull- demanding.

- 1 a good thing to do: _____
- 2 boring: _____

- 3 needing all our effort and attention: _____
- 4 difficult in a satisfying way: _____
- 5 lively and enjoyable: _____
- 6 looks attractive from the outside: _____
- 7 predictable, the same every day: _____
- 8 makes us feel unhappy: _____
- 9 different, not always the same: _____
- 10 makes us feel worried or anxious: _____
- 11 makes us feel good: _____

b- Match the adjectives in the list to comments 1-9.

Fun, varied, demanding, challenging, routine, glamorous, depressing, stressful, dull, Worthwhile, rewarding

1 'What I like best about my job is that no two days are the same, so I never get bored.'
varied

2 'One of the great things about my job is that I meet famous people and stay in some expensive hotels.' _____

3 'My job keeps me fully occupied and I don't have time to think about anything else until it's time to go home.' _____

4 'Sometimes I think to myself - you'll never be able to do that, but then I find a way to succeed. It really is quite satisfying.' _____

5 'Every morning, I arrive at the office, switch on the photocopier, and check the phone for messages. Then I start the coffee maker and open the mail.' _____

6 'I spend all day in front of a computer screen. I really don't think I can stand it much longer. It makes me feel so miserable!' _____

7 'I get quite worried and anxious. So many people depend on me. Even at home, I keep thinking about work - it stops me eating.' _____

8 'I really enjoy going to work. We have a fantastic time and everyone gets on so well together. It doesn't feel like work at all!' _____

9 'It's not the best paid job in the world, but I know that I make a difference to people's lives. There's no greater satisfaction than seeing someone walk again after a terrible accident.' _____

c- Write the underlined numbers in words.

- The time now is 9:10.

-

- The book was first published in 2001.

-

- The monthly subscription charge for our movie channel is \$ 19.50.

-

- He was born on 2/2/1984.

-

- For this process, we need to maintain a steady temperature of exactly 36.8° C.

-

- The final bid for the statue was \$ 1,672,958.

-

d- Complete these sentences with a verb from the list

-use, do, tell, ask, leave, speak.

1- Could you.....something for me, please?

2- Can I..... to Mr. Thomas?

3- Can Iyou phone, please?

4- Can you..... her ring me later, please?

5- Can Ia message?

6- Could you.....him I called, please?

III – DEVELOPMENT OF DISCOURSE:

Discussion

According to you what are the advantages and disadvantages of working freelance?

4.11.4. Unit Four

Functions: Comparing

Language forms: Passive/ Active voice – Adverbs of comparison

It's not what you say it's how you look.

A recent survey shows that when you go for promotion or a new job, it is important to look right. Throughout the process you are judged on appearance.

First of all, there is the covering letter. Is it neat? Is it well laid-out? And what about the CV? Not too long and not too short. Do you include a photograph? If not, why not?

Then, if you get the interview, appearance is really crucial. At least a hundred websites offer advice on what to wear at an interview. The advice is to dress conservatively (this generally means a suit), but to add an individual touch (a colourful tie, for example). They suggest grey, dark blue, or brown and beige as the right colours.

But even if you wear the right clothes, there are other factors involved. People tend to trust you more if you are tall and you smile a lot. Young-looking women are also at an advantage. Small men, however, are considered less trustworthy, and often struggle at job interviews. And interviewers tend to distrust people who fidget, sweat, or have poor eye contact. Unfortunately, most of us do these things when we are nervous, such as in an interview.

So what does this tell us about business? Are we more impressed with the form than the content? Recent tests show that the packaging of goods is an extremely important factor in customer choice. People are often happy to pay more for a product if they like the packaging. So companies spend a lot of time getting this right. The choice of colour and lettering, the use of pictures and memorable slogans, and even the size of the packaging are all very important.

Sometimes the packaging is deceptive. How many times have you bought a large box of cereal, and later discovered that it is only half-full? Or have you ever bought a 'new' CD with the same songs on it as a previous album? It can be very frustrating for the consumer.

All industries understand the importance of appearance and how deceptive it can be. One company recently banned *PowerPoint* presentations because they had all started to look the same. The animation, the colours, and the effects had become more important than the content. That should be a lesson to all of us. As the saying goes, 'Never judge a book by its cover'. From: www.oup.com

I – READING COMPREHENSION:

a- Read then answer

- 1 Name three things or occasions from the article where people often judge appearance.
- 2 What two items are usually included in a job application?
- 3 How should you dress for an interview?
- 4 What other factors are important in an interview?
- 5 What points are made about packaging?

b- Look at the text and complete these gaps using one of the adjectives in the box below.

memorable	conservative	deceptive
crucial	trustworthy	neat

- 1 handwriting is a good sign.
- 2 It is best to wear clothes for an interview.
- 3 Tall men are apparently more than shorter men.
- 4 A slogan helps to sell a product.
- 5 The writer suggests that appearance is, in other words, extremely important.
- 6 Appearances can be

II – LANGUAGE PRACTICE:

a- Rewrite the sentences in the passive or the active.

- 1- The room is booked for the meeting.
The secretary for the meeting.
- 2- The agenda is distributed to all the participants.
The secretary to all the participants.
- 3- The chairperson summarizes the items for discussion.
The items for discussion.....
- 4- The group agree a list of action points.
A list of action points.....
- 5- The date of the next meeting is set.
The chairperson.....

b- Underline the correct word in *italics*.

'I'm delighted to be here to tell you about our *recentness*/ *most recent* design in washing machines. So what makes it so *best*/*good*?

Well, it's more economical *that/ than* our *earlier/ more early* models. There are *less/fewer* controls. *So it's easiest/easier* to use. And lastly, it's not as noisy *than/as* many other models.'

c- Complete the sentences in A with a word from B

A

- 1- I need a..... for the bus.
- 2- There isn't any.....in my account.
- 3- How many are there to the Dinnar?
- 4- He doesn't have much.....
- 5- I only have a fewleft.

B

money
dollars
euro

III – DEVELOPMENT OF DISCOURSE:

- 1 What colours appeal to you from a packaging point of view? Does it depend on the product? Think of some examples.
- 2 The article says, 'Never judge a book by its cover'. Do you agree with this?

4.11.5. Unit Five

Functions: Expressing cause and effect

Language forms: then, consequently, since, so, in order to, due to, resulting in, thus.

Corporate Entertainment

Why is it impossible to get tickets for most major sports and cultural events? Because so many of the tickets are bought by firms to **entertain** their clients and other VIPs. It is called corporate entertainment, but why do companies do it?

Corporate entertainment is a marketing **tool**. Companies use it to improve relationships with their customers, suppliers, or staff. 'I work for a law firm', says Virginia Allen. 'Every year, I invite my best clients to a concert sponsored by the firm. This **reinforces** their positive feelings towards us.' So it is as simple as that. To make a customer feel good, invite him or her to a special **event**.

The best-known form of entertainment is linked to sport.

In the United States it is not **unusual** to invite people to play golf with professional players. If that is **beyond** your budget, you can invite your contacts to a sports event, and fill them with food and wine. They might not see much of the event, but they will definitely remember the day.

Smaller companies obviously cannot fly people to Monaco for a Grand Prix, or sponsor an orchestra. What they can do, however, is invite people to a gallery to see an **exhibition**, or organize a local event. Denis Jacquemin puts on a huge treasure hunt around the vineyards of Champagne for his customers and their families. 'It takes me a couple of weeks to organize, but each year more and more people come. The treasure they are looking for is only **worth** about 100 euros but it is the best marketing I do.'

At a recent rugby match I met John Scott. He has not missed an international game for twenty years, and he has never paid for his ticket. 'I have used the same transport company for twenty-five years. They are a little bit more expensive than the competition, but they send me two tickets for every international game. It's a nice **gesture**, which has become a good habit. That's why I still use them.' This **sums up** the role of corporate entertainment. It makes people feel good, but costs you about the same price as one advertisement in a national newspaper.

From: www.oup.com

I – READING COMPREHENSION:

a- read the text then answer the following questions

- 1 What is corporate entertainment?
- 2 What does Virginia's company organize each year? Who comes?
- 3 What sports events do companies arrange for their customers?
- 4 What does Denis arrange for his customers?
- 5 Who invites John Scott to rugby matches? Why?
- 6 What does the writer compare the cost of corporate entertainment to?

b- Ten words or expressions are highlighted in the text. Write them next to the correct definition.

- 1 something that helps you do your job.
- 2 outside of.
- 3 a public showing of art.
- 4 a planned occasion.
- 5 have the value of.
- 6 an action towards somebody.
- 7 makes stronger.
- 8 to interest and amuse somebody.
- 9 describes briefly.
- 10 not common.

II – LANGUAGE PRACTICE:

a- Underline the correct word in *italics*.

A *Do/ Are* you work from home?

B Yes, I do. But I also travel.

A does your wife travel with you?

B No, she *doesn't/ don't*. She runs my office.

A And *do/ does* your children live with you?

B No, they *is/ are* at university now.

b-Complete this table.

High	Higher
.....	Better	Best
Bad	Worst
Expensive	Most expensive

c- Combine the two sentences with the right connector from the list: then, consequently, since, so, in order to, due to, resulting in, thus.

- 1- The engineers needed to modify the equipment ____ that it would be in compliance with government regulations.
- 2- The bank closed Anna's checking account _____ insufficient funds.
- 3- Barry added a loudspeaker to the system _____ augment the sound level.
- 4- The attorneys added several items of clarification to the contract _____ that the clients would better understand the terms of the agreement.
- 5- _____ she was proficient with the accounting spreadsheet computer program, her supervisor assigned her the most difficult spreadsheet tasks.
- 6- Cristina did not remit her payments by the deadline, and _____ her insurance was canceled.
- 7- Donald's speech obscured the facts, _____ a poorly informed audience.
- 8- The doctor donated her services to the free clinic; _____, no compensation was due her.
- 9- If the present method does not solve the problem, _____ you will need to try an alternate approach.
- 10- They labeled each product with a colored tag _____ that they could differentiate them from one another.

III – DEVELOPMENT OF DISCOURSE:

- 1 What is a VIP customer? What do you need to do for them?
- 2 What are the disadvantages of VIP customers?

4.11.6. Unit Six

Functions: Expressing daily activities

Language forms: Hardly- ever- always- never- usually- often- occasionally

Viral Marketing

Six years ago, ad executive Ed Robinson carried out an experiment. He spent \$10,000 to produce a humorous video about a man who meets an explosive end while inflating a child's raft. He attached his firm's Web address to the clip and emailed it to five friends. Then he waited.

By the end of the week, more than 60,000 people had seen the twelve second video, Robinson says. The video had 'gone viral', passing from Robinson's friends to their own friends and from there, to blogs and sites across the Web. Within three months, Robinson's Web site received 500,000 hits. For Robinson, the traffic was confirmation that the video and others like it could create a buzz and, in turn, make big bucks. 'I was trying to prove a point: If you entertain your audience, they will get it and the viral mechanism will make the audience come to watch you.'

Cashing in Companies

have gotten the message. Lured by the prospect of reaching millions of consumers without also spending millions of dollars for television air time or space in print media, companies have shifted more ad dollars to the Net. Video viral marketing – so named because it relies on computer users to spread commercials from person to person has expanded from a negligible piece of the advertising pie to a \$150 million industry, researchers estimate.

Victim of its own success

However, viral marketing has become a victim of its own success. As more ads and user-created videos go online, getting ads to go viral has become increasingly difficult. Whereas these ads were once relatively rare, they now have to compete with millions of other video clips. Companies need to spend more to give their message an edge. Today, Robinson's London Company

The Viral Factory, charges \$250,000 to \$500,000 to create ads he guarantees will reach a wide audience.

Not only do advertisers need to spend more to make the ads, but increasingly, they're having to pay to get them seen in the first place. Rather than waiting for new videos to drop into their mail boxes, users are now going to sites like *YouTube* for entertainment. Many of the hundred or so video sharing sites still don't charge for posting videos: they fear that too many ads will drive away audiences and stifle user-created content. After all, users go to these sites to see the videos most people find interesting, not ones some company paid to place. However, the largest and most popular sites, like *YouTube*, which shows about 100 million videos daily, already sell some spots, though they won't disclose advertising fees.

Going mainstream

It makes sense that video-sharing sites are wary of turning off users with too many ads. Neither the sites nor advertising companies want virals to become the new online spam. Still, with people spending more time on the Net, and many using video-friendly high-speed connections, it seems highly likely that viral video advertisements will become mainstream before long. And, as competition for online user attention increases, companies will be forced to do more to ensure their ads are watched. That in turn could encourage Web sites to charge more for spots. The bar has been raised.

from www.businessenglishonline.net.

1- Skim reading

Read the text quickly and find the answers to these questions.

- 1 How do viral web ads spread?
- 2 How has advertising changed as a result?
- 3 Has viral web advertising become easier or more difficult?

2- Scan reading

Find what these figures from the article refer to.

- | | | |
|------------|--------------------------|---------------|
| 1 \$10,000 | 2 \$250,000 to \$500,000 | 3 five |
| 4 500,000 | 5 \$150 million | 6 100 million |

3- Reading for detail

Mark these statements T (true) or F (false).

- 1 Robinson proved that customers would spread advertisements if they were entertaining.
- 2 Companies have reallocated advertising budgets worth millions of dollars to the Net.
- 3 Individual video ads have more shock impact than they did in the past.
- 4 Video ads have to compete with increasing numbers of other online videos.
- 5 Video sharing sites believe that more ad content will attract users to their sites.
- 6 Most video viral ads appear on spots companies have paid for.

4- Vocabulary

Which word in each line does not form a collocation with the word at the beginning?

- (1) **viral** (a) marketing (b) video (c) advertising (d) game (e) brand (f) message
- (2) **marketing** (a) mix (b) message (c) campaign (d) consumer (e) manager (f) plan
- (3) **advertising** (a) campaign (b) message (c) viral (d) budget (e) executive (f) space

II -LANGUAGE PRACTICE:

1- Put these time expressions in the right place. See the example.

(once in a while) I work from our headquarters.
I work from our headquarters once in a while.

1 (all the time) The phone rings.

2 (hardly ever) We leave the office before seven.

3 (about three times a week) I'd say I play tennis.

4 (normally) There's a staff meeting on Mondays.

2- Complete this article with the correct form of the verbs in brackets.

Gustav Olaffson 1 _____ (work) as a geologist in the North Sea. He 2 _____ (spend) three weeks on an oil platform and then has three weeks off. While he is on the oil platform he 3 _____ (miss) his family, but he 4 _____ (try) to talk to his children as often as possible.

Interviewer Can I ask what 5 _____ (you / find) most difficult about working on the oil platform?

Gustav The long hours are hard, but I get a lot of time off between shifts.

Interviewer What 6 _____ (your job / involve) exactly?

Gustav Well, the company drills into the seabed and I analyse rock samples.

Interviewer 7 _____ (you / work) onshore as well?

Gustav No, I 8 _____ (not), but I sometimes get the opportunity to work on oil platforms in Nigeria.

Interviewer 9 _____ (you / be) happy with your job?

Gustav Yes, I 10 _____ (be), but I would like to spend more time with my family.

3- Rewrite what Julia says about her job using adverbs from the list.

Hardly- ever- always- never- usually- often- occasionally

1 Every Monday morning we have a team meeting.

We always have a team meeting on Monday morning.

2 I frequently have lunch in the staff restaurant.

3 Once or twice a month I have lunch with clients.

4 Most Friday afternoons, I finish work at 4.00 p.m.

5 I only work on Saturdays two or three times a year.

6 I don't work on Sundays – this is a personal rule of mine

III – DEVELOPMENT OF DISCOURSE

Telephone role play

Student A (the caller)

1- Telephone a colleague to ask for information on a company called 'Officeware'.

Ask for:

- the telephone number
- the fax
- the email address

Remember to write down the information.

2- Telephone the company 'Officeware' to buy a computer desk.

Ask for:

- dimensions
- materials
- colour
- price

Student B

1- A colleague will call to ask for information on a company called 'Officeware'.

Here are the details of the company:

- telephone number: 00 44 207 446 962
- fax: 00 44 207 446 963
- email: www.officeware.com/sales

2- You work for the company 'Officeware'. A customer telephones to buy a computer desk. Give information about:

- dimensions: 1.30m x 80 cm x 70cm
- material: metal and wood
- colour: with
- price: £72

4.11.7. Unit Seven

Functions: Asking for information/ Use of prepositions

Language forms: above, near, next, in front of, to, in

Trade Theory and Development Key Concepts

The impact of international trade on development is examined in terms of the effects on growth, income distribution, poverty, and employment. To summarize the detailed analysis of the text, trade can be an important stimulus to rapid economic growth by promoting greater utilization of idle human and capital resources, increasing foreign exchange earnings, and expanding access to technological knowledge. At the same time, for a majority of developing countries, the principal benefits of world trade have accrued disproportionately to foreign residents and wealthy nationals (as well as to the developed countries). This is the result not of trade as such, but of the imbalanced structure of the world economy in which trade takes place, with bargaining power concentrated in the hands of developed country private and public institutions. Trade, because of its biased distributional effects, may often tend to reinforce existing inequalities rather than serve development objectives.

Some trade is essential and beyond that, more is beneficial.(...)some OPEC countries have strongly benefited. The issue is not whether to trade but which, if any, exports to try to promote in the current world economy. Whether expanding trade, especially doing so without public controls, makes sense as a key development strategy depends on the nature of the export sector and its medium to long term potential (for example, terms of trade), the distribution of its benefits, its linkages with the rest of the economy, and the LDC's ability to respond smoothly to changing international price signals. In general, balanced success will require access to developed countries' markets for labour-intensive manufactures, extensive linkages between the export sector and other sectors of the economy, and the ability to influence activities of foreign enterprise.

II – READING COMPREHENSIN

1- Read the text then answer the questions:

- In term of what is the impact of international trade examined?
- What's the importance of trade?
- Is trade essential or beneficial?
- What are the requirements for a balanced success?

2- Complete the table:

word	opposite	Word	synonym
Public		relationship	
unemployment		rich	

3- Read the short text below and find the answers to these questions.

- 1 What are the four Ps? 3 What is mix coherency?
- 2 What are the four Cs? 4 What are mix dynamics?

The Marketing Mix

The most common variables used in constructing a marketing mix are Price, Promotion, Product, and Placement. These are sometimes referred to as the four Ps. Each of these ideas can also be seen from a consumer's perspective. So, Product converts into Customer Solution, Price into Cost, Place into Convenience, and Promotion into Communication. These are the four Cs.

The concept of mix coherency refers to how well the components of the mix are blended together. For example, a strategy of selling expensive luxury products in discount stores has poor mix coherency between Product and Placement. Mix dynamics refers to how the mix is adapted to a changing business environment, to changes in the organization's resources, and to changes in the product life cycle.

II- LANGUAGE PRACTICE:

1- Match the start of a sentence in A to an ending in B (**describing trends**)

A

- | |
|---|
| 1 the budget has risen..... |
| 2 we expect it to remain..... |
| 3 Inflation currently stands..... |
| 4 unemployment will increase..... |
| 5 petrol prices fell..... |
| 6 We really need to stop this downward..... |

B

- | |
|---|
| a steady at five per cent. |
| b sharply this year. |
| c to their lowest level. |
| d by another hundred thousand next month. |
| e trend. |
| f at two point five per cent. |

2- Complete these sentences with the correct word.

1- I'm here today to tell you..... my company.

for about to

2- Firstly I'll look the structure of the organization.

at for in

3- Shall we move.....?

in to on

4- you can see, profits fell over the last quarter.

if as when

5- This brings me..... the end of my talk.

at to with

6- Thanks very much.....listening.

about to for

7- I hope it was useful.....you.

For with at

3- Complete this discussion from a meeting with these phrases.

Here to discuss, go over, sum up, point on the agenda, for coming, that's everything, come back.

Chairperson Right. Thank you.....today. We're
our North American marketing strategy. As you all know this is a new
 market for us so I've invited Jim Rodham tothe key issues.
 Jim has worked in Chicago and Montreal. He knows the markets well. After Jim, we'll
 to the other main item on the agenda – the
 budget.

(LATER AT THE MEETING)

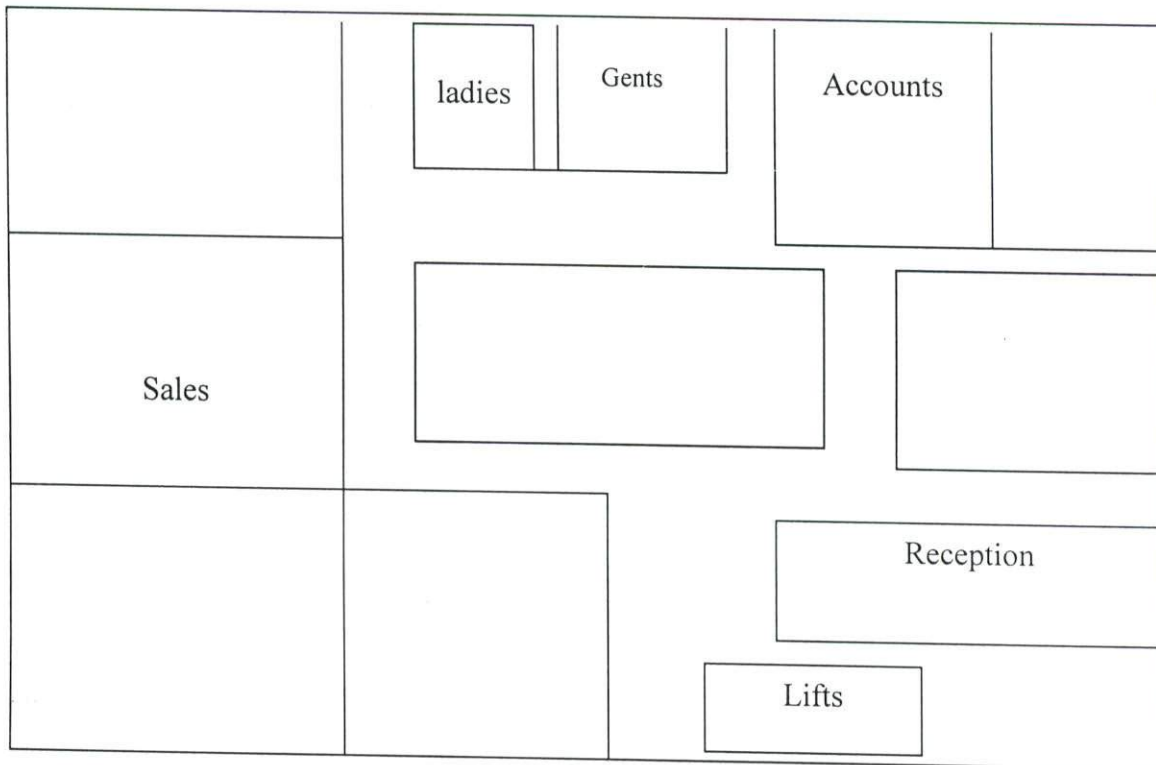
Jim So I think

Chairperson thanks, Jim. Any questions for Jim? No? Well the nextis
 the budget. Perhaps we should what we agreed on last
 week.....

III- DISCOURSE DEVELOPMENT

1- Your company has new offices on the first floor below you need offices for:
Marketing, personnel, Training, Business Development, Engineering and a Conference Room.

Write in the name of the offices on the floor plan.



2 now interview you partner and find out where the offices are in his/her office. Write the name on the floor plan.

4.11.8. Unit Eight

Functions: Offering action/ Making offers

Language forms: would, shall

THE THEORY OF DEMAND AND SUPPLY

The theory of demand and supply is an organizing principle to explain prices and quantities of goods sold and changes thereof in a market economy. In microeconomic theory, it refers to price and output determination in a perfectly competitive market. This has served as a building block for modeling other market structures and for other theoretical approaches.

For a given market of a commodity, *demand* shows the quantity that all prospective buyers would be prepared to purchase at each unit price of the good. Demand is often represented using a table or a graph relating price and quantity demanded. Demand theory describes individual consumers as "rationally" choosing the *most preferred* quantity of each good, given income, prices, tastes, etc.

Supply is the relation between the price of a good and the quantity available for sale from suppliers (such as producers) at that price. Supply is often represented using a table or graph relating price and quantity *supplied*. Producers are hypothesized to be profit-maximizers, meaning that they attempt to produce the amount of goods that will bring them the highest profit. Supply is typically represented as a directly proportional relation between price and quantity supplied. In other words, the higher the price at which the good can be sold, the more of it producers will supply. The higher price makes it profitable to increase production. At a price below equilibrium, there is a shortage of quantity supplied compared to quantity demanded.

Demand and supply are used to explain the behavior of perfectly competitive markets, but their usefulness as a standard of performance extends to any type of market. Demand and supply can also be generalized to explain macroeconomic variables in a market economy, for example, quantity of total output and the general price level.

I – READING COMPREHENSION:

1- Read the text then answer the questions below:

- What does the theory of **demand and supply** refer to in microeconomic?
- How could you distinguish demand from supply on a graph?
- Producers are said to be “profit-maximizers”, what does this term mean?

2- Read the text again then try to give a brief definition of both terms.

Demand, is

Supply, is

3- Complete the chart :

The word	The opposite	The word	The opposite
Bought		Lowest	
Input		Decrease	
Hides		On	
Minimizers		Specified	

II – LANGUAGE PRACTICE:

1- Complete this telephone conversation with a word from the list

- shall, what, sorry, with, could.

A Hello, global Flora. How can I help you?

B Hello. I ordered some flowers for girlfriend yesterday and they never arrived.

A Oh, I'm about that. I order them again for you?

B Yes please, if you..... the names' Clinton.

A Was it an order for ten red roses?

B That's right .

A OK. I'll deal.....it straight away, Mr Clinton.

B Thank you. Could you have them delivered this evening?

A I'll do..... I can.

2 - Read the e-mail from Global Flora to Mr Clinton. Reorder the scrambled words in *italics*.

- 1-.....
- 2-
- 3-
- 4-
- 5-.....

Dear Mr Clinton
 On behalf of Global Flora, I *linsceery* apologize for the trouble you had with your *rored* for ten roses. I will talk to our suppliers to make sure that in future this does not happen again. Please *finrom* us of your postal address, and we will be *ledapse* to send you a voucher for 30 euros. Please *capcet* our apologies once again, and I hope you will consider using our service in the future.
 Yours sincerely,
 Anna Thorpe.
 Customer Service Manager.

3- Each sentence has an extra word. Underline it.

- 1- Would you like to something to drink?
- 2- Shall I open you the window?
- 3- Would you like to me go out to the Opera tonight?

4- Would you like of me to help you?

5- Put each of the following words in the right column:

prices, consumers, quantities, variables, extends, markets, makes, words, goods, Producers, shows, suppliers, tastes, approaches.

/s/	/z/	/ɪz/
.....

III – DISCOURSE DEVELOPMENT:

- Complete this conversation with a word from the list, then practice it with you partner.
Suit, idea, why, busy, about, free, let's.

Marianne Hello, Anna. How were the interviews and applicants?

Anna Good. Very good. In fact, we can't decide. We have two possible people.

Marianne Don't I meet them?

Anna That's a good..... But we can't ask them to come again. How.....phoning them?

Marianne OK, do that.

Anna How does tomorrow.....suit you?

Marianne Fine. I'min the morning but after lunch I'm

Anna I'll call them to confirm. Speak to you later.

Marianne Bye.

4.10. Conclusion

What results from the fourth chapter is that although it is difficult to select and design the appropriate syllabus that fits the learners' needs. The syllabus remains a valuable document for the language teacher and the ESP practitioner as well, since it clarifies the different stages the teacher has to go through in order to reach the objectives of the course. It also allows the learners to be aware of the various stages of the learning process.

However, the stress on such definitions and theories developed particularly through this chapter may reveal that ESP syllabus design is probably a teaching and educational enterprise that it is time and effort demanding.

NOTES TO CHAPTER FOUR

1-White (1988) suggests, however, another categorisation of syllabi; these are "Type A" and "Type B" syllabi. According to White (1988) "Type A" syllabi focus on content i.e. what is to be learnt and "Type B" syllabi focus on an experiential and natural approach i.e. how it is to be learnt. Thus synthetic syllabuses are "Type A" syllabuses and analytic syllabuses are "Type B" syllabuses.

2- White's Type A and Type B syllabi (White, 1988:59) distinguish between an interventionist and a non-interventionist approach. In other words, White differentiates between the "What?" and the "How" of learning. Whereas Type A syllabi focus on content and the pre-specification of linguistic or skill objectives, Type B emphasises on an experiential, 'natural growth' approach, "which aims to immerse the learners in real-life communication without any artificial pre-selection or arrangement of items" (Allen 1984:65).

3- In terms of years the LMD system is shaped as follows:

- The *licence*, corresponding to three years of study beyond the *baccalauréat* (bac+3);
- The *master*, corresponding to two years further study beyond the *licence* (bac+5);
- The *doctorate*, corresponding to three years of research beyond the *master* (bac+8).

4- In the Algerian educational system, it is referred to the General Certificate of Secondary education as Baccalaureate.

GENERAL CONCLUSION

GENERAL CONCLUSION

This research tried to involve a theoretical reflexion and practical approach on an experience in teaching English to first year International Commerce students at the Faculty of Economics and Management, (University of Sidi Bel Abbes).

The field of second language teaching and learning has observed a great deal of excitement and activity during the few past decades. [The twentieth century has seen the rise and fall of many approaches to language teaching since learning a FL through the Grammar Translation Approach was replaced by the Audio-lingual Approach which has been completed and replaced by other methods and approaches comprising the well-known and widely used Communicative Language Teaching Approach as well as the newly Competency Based Approach.]

The latest development in the theory of language is reflected through the rising interest in communicative competence and in communicative performance. Therefore, language planners switch their emphasis from "content" which normally meant grammar and lexis, to "objectives" which refer to many variables other than linguistic content.

Recently, and probably because of globalization affects the activity of every person there has been a growing number of individuals who require English language for specific purposes as well as for general educational purposes. This has necessarily led to a corresponding increase in attention on syllabus design so as to provide appropriate teaching programmes.

The need for a new approach to ELT is felt crucial because of the worldwide growing interest in English as the most important means for acquiring access to the world's intellectual and technical resources, as well as its established status as the medium of science, technology, international trade, and a contact language between nations.

GENERAL CONCLUSION

In the age of globalization, the use of English for Algerian students has become the worldwide standard. As international companies expand throughout the Algerian territory the ability to communicate in English has become a strategic factor for successful careers. National and Multinational corporations such as Sonatrach and Unilever implemented in Algeria in particular have a pressing need for tools that accurately evaluate the workplace English communication skills of current and prospective employees.

To communicate effectively in English language these future workers need to be prepared at the university level through specific courses which are based on a specific syllabus that outlines the sequence and content of a specific language programme, the syllabus must embody the general and specific objectives of language learning course.

Through the present study the researcher wanted to highlight the importance of the syllabus and to demonstrate its significance as a fundamental pedagogical tool. The syllabus seems to be considerably important in language teaching as well as in an ESP context. Its non-availability may affect the quality of teaching and make learning with no apparent target too. Indeed, the idea behind ESP programs is that the content of the course is determined by the learners' specific needs.

It seems through the research that the availability or not of a syllabus as a guide for both teachers and learners is not the only reason to justify the success or the failure of language learning since other factors such as learners' motivation and attitudes towards the foreign language as well as culture may be mentioned as they are partly responsible for enhancing or hindering such a process of learning. Thus, ESP learning like FLL is also affected by the teacher's behaviour, her/his linguistic competence and his/her knowledge about the field taught as well as the learners' attitudes. Throughout this observation a question arose as follows: are the teacher giving enough specialised language to their learners so that they are able to carry out which ever language task it is? And if yes how could the teachers

GENERAL CONCLUSION

assess their students? These questions open the field to the researcher for further investigations at a doctorate level, because of time constraints.

As far as the suggestions are concerned the researcher proposes the selection and training of ESP teachers at the Department of Management. Teachers who have no initial training would take training courses and seminars. If possible, teachers will have the opportunity to receive initial training as well as further training. Summer schools for example can be organized every year to provide further training for all ESP practitioners so as to improve the FLT/FLL conditions in Algerian universities. Further training can be proposed to teachers at appropriate intervals in their carriers. In this way, teachers can update their pedagogy with new ideas and methods, and be directed to the future, and in a large measure give an impetus to ESP in Algeria.

According to the researcher, an adequate teacher-training course would include three fundamental components:

1. The skills component whose aim is to improve the teacher's command of ESP, and his ability to teach it.
2. The pedagogical component which deals specifically with the methodology of ESP teaching.
3. The theoretical component which will provide the trainee with some basic theory to understand the nature of ESP teaching and learning.

For instance, linguistics will make the trainee understand the nature of a specific language; psychology will help her/him understand the language-learning process and sociolinguistics will provide her/him with insights into the ways language can be used in social as well as professional context.

A few recommendations can be put forward to this end:

- The teacher would have a good command of English as well as real devotion to the teaching profession.
- More ESP courses would be introduced to improve the trainees' mastery of specific English.

GENERAL CONCLUSION

- Theory and practice would be given equal importance.
- Trainees would benefit free short-term visit to an English-speaking country, namely Britain or America to be in contact with English as used for communicative purposes by its native speakers.
- Coordination between secondary and higher education to cater for the needs of the learner and to produce outstanding teachers.

However, if all these conditions cannot be filled in, how could the challenges of teaching specialization be raised by teachers who are not themselves specialist? How could teachers prepare and motivate students to succeed not only in exams, but also in their future professional careers?

With the establishment of the new L.M.D reform, it seems helpful to teach culture within ESP context, especially to learners who study business and international commerce.

Indeed, the goals for L2/FL culture teaching would reflect the general, specific, and dynamic aspects of culture. Learners will need to develop knowledge of and about the FL culture (in this case English), but this receptive aspect of cultural competence is not sufficient. Learners will also need to master some skills in culturally appropriate communication and behaviour for the target culture.

Hence, in terms of culture teaching methodology, a laissez-faire approach is not prescribed. Teaching culture would be systematic as it is the case for teaching grammatical structures. ESP Learners would benefit from culture lessons and the cultural aspects of English language if teachers afford more importance in planning and developing such lectures.

It seems to the researcher that Integrating learners' experience and awareness of and knowledge about English language and British/American cultures could further enhance ESP teaching/ learning since the global implications of English in various domains such as sciences, business and economics have already been discussed and recognized by different researchers. Teaching culture to ESP learners could only be beneficial since it

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may prepare the learners to communicate effectively without any misunderstanding with a native-English speaker.

The present study has shown that language acquisition is the result of interplay between cognitive mechanism and environmental conditions as it was already mentioned by other researchers such as Spolsky (1985); Sivert & Egbert (1995). Understanding and creating optimal language learning environments would thus become the primary concern of the language teacher. In designing learning activities, the latter could remember that because language learning focuses on both the accuracy and appropriateness of application in various contexts of use, learners would be given opportunities to participate as language users in multiple contexts.

These opportunities will result in learners' heightened motivation and awareness of the intricacies of language use. Learners would recognise a real need to accomplish learning goals that are relevant and holistic (rather than task-specific). This prepares them for the complexities of real-world tasks that require them to use language skills and knowledge.

Bearing in mind that different researches both at Magister and Doctorate levels try to describe and analyse EFL learners' needs in an ESP context, the results might be only representative for the corpus concerned with -including the present research-. Fundamental questions remain:

- Would the Algerian universities devote a specific budget to introduce the new technologies in FLT in faculties such as: the Faculty of Economics and Management, the Faculty of Sciences, and the faculty of Engineering? If yes
- How could the new technologies such as the internet be used to enhance ESP learning?
- What are the best tools to assess ESP learners' language proficiency?
- Could the teacher deal with and develop the ESP learners' four skills? Or must s/he stick on teaching related vocabulary and reading text to

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develop the ESP learners' oral communicative competence? If yes, is it really useful for Algerian ESP learners to develop such an oral communicative skill and for which context?

- With the establishment of the new LMD system how could we move the focus from teaching to learning and thus train ESP learners to become more autonomous? And finally,
- Is it necessary, to teach ESP learners about LLS?

These questions will open new avenues for research which could be undertaken for a doctorate thesis, including specific areas of comparison and involving collaboration between specialists in different disciplines, which would promote thinking in ESP syllabus design.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1

Teachers' Questionnaire

Dear colleague,

This is a questionnaire designed for the purpose of providing data for a research aiming at designing an adequate syllabus for the students of first year International Commerce at the Department of Management of Sidi Bel Abbès.

Please have the kindness to provide us with the necessary answers to the following questions.

Thank you.

1- What is your status in the faculty?

- Full time teacher.....

- Part time teacher.....

2- What is your degree?

- Doctorate...

- Magister....

- Licence....

3- Did you have any ESP training courses?

- No....

- Yes....

4- Do you think that the time allocated to English lectures is:

- Not enough.....

- Enough.....

Explain.....

.....

5- Do you think that the number of students per group influences the lecture quality?

- No.....

- Yes....

Explain

.....

6- Do you use any special material designed for the specific needs of the students?

- No....

- Yes....

Explain

.....

7- In which aspect of English do you think that students need support?

.....

.....
.....
.....
.....

8- To what extent syllabus design is essential for the students and the teachers?

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

Appendix 2

Students' Questionnaire

Dear Student,

This questionnaire is done in order to interpret the answers concerning learning English at the level of the Department Management. So, complete it please. Thank you!

1- Do you understand all what your English teacher says during the lecture?

- Always - Sometimes.... - Never...

2- Do you take part during the English course?

- Always - Sometimes.... - Never...

3- Is the time allocated to the English course :

- Sufficient..... - Not sufficient....

4- How long have you been studying English?

.....

5- Do like to attend English classes?

-Yes.... - No....

6- Do you find the texts you work on:

- Easy.... - Difficult.... - Incomprehensible....

Why?

.....

7-Which area (s) of English do you find the most difficult and need to improve?

-Speaking -Vocabulary - Pronunciation -Writing

-Grammar - Listening - Reading

Explain

.....
.....

8- What could you suggest in order to make the English lecture more effective?

.....
.....
.....

Appendix 3

GLOSSARY*

Accuracy: The degree of freedom from error or the degree of conformity to a standard.

Achievement: A measurement of what a person knows or can do after training.

Aptitude: The ability of an individual to acquire a new skill or show the potential for acquiring a skill when given the opportunity and proper training.

Assessment: Essentially a measurement process of the learning that has either taken place or can take place.

Attitude: A persisting feeling or emotion of a person that influences choice of action and response to stimulus. It is defined as a disposition or tendency to respond positively or negatively towards an idea, an object, a person or a situation. They encompass, or are closely related to, our opinions and beliefs and are based upon our experiences. Training that produces tangible results starts by changing behavior...which ultimately changes attitudes. Training often uses the term attitude to identify the psychological term "affective domain."

Audio lingual method: it considers listening and speaking as primary and essential in language learning comparing to reading and writing. The emphasis is put on learning sentences patterns, memorization of dialogues and extensive use of drills.

Authentic text: Natural or real teaching material; often this material is taken from newspapers, magazines, radio, TV or podcasts.

Behaviorism: Belief that learning results in a change in the learner's behavior. The focus of behaviorists is on the outputs of the learning process. The study of learning only through the examination and analysis of objectively observable and quantifiable behavioral events.

C-learning: Classroom learning or conventional learning as compared to e-learning (electronic).

Cognitive: From the Latin cogito; "I think". The mental processes of perception, memory, judgment, and reasoning. Cognitive also refers to attempts to identify a perspective or theory in contrast to emphasizing observable behavior.

Collaborative learning: A more radical departure from "cooperative learning". It involves learners working together in small groups to develop their own answer through interaction and reaching consensus, not necessarily a known answer. Monitoring the groups or correcting "wrong" impressions is not the role of the trainer since there is no authority on what the answer should be.

Communicative competence: the ability to use a language effectively for a communicative purpose.

Competency: Areas of personal capability that enable people to perform successfully in their jobs by completing task effectively. A competency can be knowledge, attitudes, skills, or values. Competency can be acquired through talent, experience, or training. (2) Competency comprises the specification of knowledge and skill and the application of that knowledge and skill to the standard of performance required in employment.

Competency-based instruction: Instruction that is organized around a set of learning objectives based upon the knowledge, skills and attitudes required to perform a set of skills called competencies. Evaluation of student success is based on competent performance of the skills. Normative measurement is specifically excluded from competency-based instruction.

Concept: A mental picture of a group of things that have common characteristics. A generalization is a person's idea of the relationships between two or more concepts. Concepts represent a group of solid objects, such as an airplane or book; or abstract ideas, such as leadership and honesty. A concept is an idea about a group of things. A concept involves thinking about what it is that makes those things belong to that one group.

Cooperative learning: Involves the more conventional notion of cooperation, in that learners work in small groups on an assigned project or problem under the guidance of the trainer. Also see collaborative learning.

Course: A complete integrated series of lessons which are identified by a common title and/or number.

Curriculum: The aggregate of courses of study given in a learning environment. The courses are arranged in a sequence to make learning a subject easier. In schools, a curriculum spans several grades, for example, the math curriculum. In business, it can run for days, weeks, months, or years. Learners enter it at various points depending on their job experience and the needs of the business.

Direct method: the most used approach in TEFL. Language is taught through listening and speaking. There may be little or no explicit explanation dealing with syntax or grammatical rules, nor translation into the mother tongue of the learners.

Distance learning: The use of any media for self-study.

Educational technology: A complex, integrated process involving people, procedures, ideas, devices, and organization, for analyzing problems, and devising, implementing, evaluating and managing solutions to those problems, involved in all aspects of human learning.

Efficiency: A measure (as a percentage) of the actual output to the standard output expected. Efficiency measures how well someone is performing relative to expectations.

E-Learning: The use of innovative technologies and learning models to transform the way individuals and organizations acquire new skills and access knowledge.

Evaluation: The process of gathering information in order to make good decisions. It is broader than testing, and includes both subjective (opinion) input and objective (fact) input. Evaluation can take many forms including memorization tests, portfolio assessment, and self-reflection.

Feedback: Providing learners with information about the nature of an action and its result in relation to some criterion of acceptability. It provides the flow of information back to the learner so that actual performance can be compared with planned performance.

Grammar translation method: characterized by the importance given to the rules' memorization as well as translation into the learners' mother tongue.

Instruction: The delivery of information to enable learning. The process by which knowledge and skills are transferred to students. Instruction applies to both training and education.

Knowledge: Specific information required for the student to develop the skills and attitudes for effective accomplishment of the jobs, duties, and tasks.

Learner centered instruction: An instructional process in which the content is determined by the students needs, the instructional materials are geared to the students' abilities, and the instructional design makes the students active participants.

Learning: a relatively permanent change in behavioral potentiality, that can be measured, that occurs as a result of reinforced practice; gaining

knowledge, skills, or developing a behavior through study, instruction, or experience.

Learning analysis: The analysis of each task or subject area to determine what the learner must do upon completion of training, how well the learner must be able to do it, and what skills and knowledge must be taught in order to meet the end-of-training requirement.

Learning strategies: The methods that students use to learn. This ranges from techniques for improved memory to better studying or test taking strategies.

Learning style: A composite of the cognitive, affective, and physiological factors that serve as relatively stable indicators of how a learner perceives, interacts with, and responds to the learning environment. Included in this definition are perceptual modalities, information processing styles, and personality patterns.

Lesson plan: A written guide for trainers plans in order to achieve the intended learning outcomes. It provides specific definition and direction on learning objectives, equipment, instructional media material requirements, and conduct of the training.

Linguistic competence: broadly used to describe the whole language ability of a person.

Module: A stand-alone instructional unit that is designed to satisfy one or more learning objectives. A separate component complete within itself that can be taught, measured, and evaluated for a change or bypassed as a whole; one that is interchangeable with others, used for assembly into units of differing size, complexity, or function. A module consists of one or more lessons.

Needs analysis: A method used to determine training needs by reviewing work tasks, identifying performance factors and objectives, and defining training objectives and recommendations.

Pedagogy: Literally means the art and science of educating children, pedagogy is often used as a synonym for teaching. Pedagogy embodies teacher-focused education.

Performance: The accomplishment of a task in accordance with a set standard of completeness and accuracy.

Proficiency: Ability to perform a specific behavior (e.g., task, learning objective) to the established performance standard in order to demonstrate mastery of the behavior.

Self-paced learning: Learning initiated and directed by the learner. The term is used by some organizations now to include computer-based, web-based and multimedia training.

Skill: The ability to perform a psychomotor activity that contributes to the effective performance of a task.

Suggestopedia: also called 'Super Learning' or 'Accelerated Learning'. It is a methodology developed by Georgi Lozanov. In broad terms, it is a research based technology and a philosophy that uses learners' holistic natural talents to provide them the highest probability of maximizing their learning, retention, and performance. It is supposed to create a stress-free, positive, joyful, psychologically and physically healthy environment that enhances self-esteem and focuses on the needs of the learner.

*the following definition have been taken from: Donald Clark April 4, 2005
Learning and Performance Glossary on internet

المخلص

تهدف هذه الدراسة إلى إبراز مدى فعالية تدريس اللغة الإنجليزية لأغراض خاصة، و تهدف كذلك إلى مساعدة الطلبة في اكتساب كفاءة لغة الاختصاص. و لإنجاح هذه العملية هناك بعض الإقتراحات، كتصميم أستاذ اللغة برنامج يتمش وفق احتياجات طلبة قسم علوم التسيير بجامعة الجليلي اليابس (سيدي بلعباس). و يسلط هذا البحث الضوء على بعض نقائص تدريس، اكتساب و تعلم اللغة، كما يقترح هذا البحث برنامج يتمش وفقا و احتياجات طلبة السنة الأولى فرع تجارة دولية بقسم علوم التسيير طبقا لمعايير نظام ل.م.د .

الكلمات المفتاحية : الاتصال، أستاذ اللغة، تحليل الاحتياجات، تصميم برنامج، ل.م.د، اللغة الإنجليزية لأغراض خاصة.

Résumé

Les cours d'anglais a buts spécifiques sont désignés pour préparer les étudiants à acquérir des aptitudes fondamentales langagières et en relation à un domaine d'étude spécifique. Par conséquent, la base de tout anglais à buts spécifiques doit répondre aux besoins particuliers en langue étrangère des étudiants. L'absence d'un programme d'enseignement d'anglais au niveau du Département de Gestion de l'université Djillali Liabes (Sidi Bel Abbés) génère une certaine ambiguïté quant à l'enseignement de la langue dans cette spécialité ainsi que son apprentissage. Aussi ce mémoire de magister soulève certains problèmes et propose un programme détaillé qui répondrait à ces besoins langagiers nécessaires aux étudiants de la filière de commerce internationale du département de gestion dans une perspective liée à la nouvelle réforme universitaire qui est le LMD.

Mots clefs : analyse des besoins, anglais a buts spécifiques, communication, conception d'un programme, LMD, professeur de langue.

Summary

The aims of English for specific purposes (ESP) courses are to prepare the learners in accordance with the specific skills and vocabulary needed in their own fields. Therefore, the foundation of all ESP is related to the simple question of why the learner needs to learn a foreign language. Through the present work the candidate tries to shed the light on a very crucial issue which exists at the level of the Department of Management at Djillali Liabes University. The absence of an agreed syllabus makes teaching and learning rather ambiguous; for these reasons the candidate wants to suggest a syllabus targeted for first year International Commerce students. This syllabus has been designed on the basis of the learners' needs. It also aims at improving their communicative abilities as well as preparing them to be enrolled in a professional milieu that is more and more influenced by the globalization effect.

Key words: communication, ESP, language teacher, LMD, needs analysis, syllabus design,