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Issues and Difficulties in Teaching/ learning English for Specific Purposes atUniversity Level in Algeria: A Case Study of ESP Teachers and Learners at the University of Ghardaia

Dissertation Submitted to the Department of English in Fulfillment of the Requirementsfor the Degree of Doctorate in Linguistics and Didactics.

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Declaration

I hereby declare that the substance of this dissertation is entirely the result of my own investigation and that due reference or acknowledgment is made, whenever necessary, to the work of other researchers.

19/ 03/ 2023

Signature

Dedication

To my dear parents

With love

Acknowledgments

I would like to express my appreciation to all the people whose help and support made the completion of this work possible.

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Abstract

The present study aimed to find out the major difficulties and problems that hinder successful ESP teaching and learning in Algerian Universities. It was conducted with a sample of 24 ESP teachers and 364 undergraduate learners from different faculties at the University of Ghardaia. The researcher used questionnaires and classroom observation to collect the data. A mixed approach of qualitative and quantitative methods was adopted for data analysis. Data obtained through classroom observation sheets, note taking and audio recordings were coded, categorized and analyzed manually; whereas, the data got from teachers' and learners' questionnaires were inserted into computer and processed using SPSS software. The findings of the study revealed that ESP teachers face a lot of issues and difficulties which turn teaching to be a challenging task. These include: absence of ESP syllabus, students' motivation, large sized classrooms and lack of teaching resources. The study also revealed that ESP learners face problems ; among them: low level of English proficiency, limited class-time and the content of the ESP course is not compatible with their needs. Based on these findings, the researcher suggested some solutions to handle these obstacles and problems such as : establishing ESP teacher training institutions, issuing national ESP syllabi and motivating teachers to participate in ESP seminars and conferences inside and outside the country. It is hoped that the findings of this study would help to promote ESP teaching and learning in our country.

Key words: ESP, difficulties, teachers, learners, learners' needs.

Key to Acronyms

A/V: audio/ visual

CBI: Content Based Instruction

CLT: Communicative Language Teaching

CLTL: Content and Language Integrated Learning

CNP: Communicative Needs Processor

D: Doctorate

EAP: English for Academic Purposes

EBE: English for Business and Economics

EBP: English for Business Purposes

EGP: English for General Purposes

ELP: English for Legal Purposes

ELT: English Language teaching

EMP: English for Medical Purposes

EOP: English for Occupational Purposes

EPP: English for Professional 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 Purposes

F: Frequency

FL: Foreign language

GE: General English

ICI: Information and Communication Infrastructure

ICT: Information and Communication Technologies

IT: Information Technology

L: License

CONTENTS

LAD: language acquisition device

LSA: Learning situation analysis

L1: native or mother tongue

M: Master

PBL: Problem Based Learning

PPP: Presentation, Practice, Production Model of Teaching

PSA: Present situation analysis

SOP: Standard Operation Procedure

SPSS: Statistical Package for Social Sciences

TBL: Task Based Learning

TEFL: Teaching English as a Foreign Language

TILT: Translation in Language Teaching

TSA: Target Situation Analysis

%: percent

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INTRODUCTION TO THE RESEARCH

1. Background to the Study

English has become a necessary requirement in all walks of life. English is the main medium for international communication in business, politics, media, science and technology. Therefore, most world institutions, including universities are looking for ways to improve the quality of English teaching and learning. The Students have better chances of getting a good job in multinational company in their home country or finding a job abroad with good English level. Moreover, scientists and researchers need to master English to be able to access to milliards of documents and articles only available in English. Today, English for specific purposes (ESP) are provided in many universities over the globe to meet learners' needs in different specialisms.

ESP teaching has always been regarded as a complex task and this complexity stems from its multi-disciplinary activity (Dudley Evans & St John, 1998). ESP practitioners hold more responsibilities than a general language teacher as they act also as course designers, collaborators, researchers and evaluators. For this reason, many scholars and linguists prefer to use the label 'practitioner' rather than 'teacher' to emphasise that ESP course requires more than teaching.

A detailed study of related literature allowed the researcher to reveal some issues and problems confronted world-wide by ESP practitioners and learners. Saliu (2013) stated that English for specific purposes courses ''are designed to develop the communicative use of English in a specialised field of science work or technology'' (p.2). This makes the ESP practitioner's role more challenging since '' the teacher is not the 'primary knower' of the carrier content … The students may in many cases … know more about the content than the teacher'' (Dudley Evans & St John,1998, p. 13). Ho (2011) pointed out that course designers and teachers encounter problems related to the design of the ESP

course, the tasks, assignments and teaching methods. ESP teaching demands well- trained teachers, but research studies have revealed that most ESP practitioners are below the required strength which is the main reason behind ineffective ESP teaching (Javid, 2015). Furthermore, Chen (2006) claimed that the chances of ESP teacher education programs seem non- existent .

Suzani et al. (2011) distinguished two types of factors affecting the success of language teaching and learning: human and non human elements. Human elements are those related to the teacher's role, learners' characteristics and interaction in the classroom between students and the teacher or students and students. Non human elements are related to textbooks, syllabus, teaching aids and the number of hours of language instruction.

Johns (1981) highlighted five problems that ESP teachers may complain about: low priority in timetabling, lack of personal/ professional contact with subject teachers, lower status/ grade than subject teachers, isolation from other teachers of English doing similar work, lack of respect from students (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987).

Ewer (1983) stated that the difficulties that ESP teachers encounter can be classified into five areas: attitudinal, conceptual, linguistic, methodological and organizational.

> 1- By attitudinal he refers to: the hostility of humanities-trained
> teachers to scientific concerns.
> 2- Conceptual: the teacher needs to have some understanding of
> scientific methodology and procedure.
> 3- Linguistic: there will be considerable lexical difficulty, as well
> as problems in understanding the function the "core" language

of science.

4- Methodological: many teachers will be used to dealing with

secondary school pupils rather than mature adults.

5- Organizational: teachers will often be faced with administrative

duties. (Cited in McDonough, 1984, p. 134)

Many other researchers have stressed that motivation is a key factor for language learning. Mukkatash (1983) noted that students' low English proficiency is linked to several variables including teaching methodologies, learners' demotivaion and the lack of the target language. Dornyei and Otto (1998) stated that motivation and demotivation are not stable phenomenon (changeable) and are affected by several learning context variables. Dornyei and Clément (2001) described demotivated learners as learners being originally motivated but by the influence of several unfavorable external variables lost their motivation.

Within the Algerian context, learners' motivation, needs analysis and course design have been the areas of interest for many research studies . Yet, many issues exist as unexplored phenomena imbedded in ESP teaching and learning. According to Baghli (2014), "ESP is still ambiguous for some tutors and needs to be more explored. Some teachers perceive both teaching and learning as a strange and audacious task" (p.573). Thus, many questions are usually highlighted: what is meant by ESP? , and what kind of steps an ESP teacher may adapt while teaching English for specific purposes?

Maouch (2016) pointed out that lack of syllabi is a problem for ESP practitioners. ESP practitioners are left on their own to manage their teaching-learning process from the first steps of course design to implementation and evaluation. There are no ESP syllabi with clear specifications about course

content, course objectives, evaluation criteria and teaching methodology. As she stated, "designing a course that can best serve learners' interests and needs is an obstacle for many instructors" (p.29).Another study by Belmakki and Mibitil (2011) revealed that lack of pre-service training, lack of specialized knowledge and lack of collaboration with content teachers are major difficulties for general English teachers in ESP.

Another weakening factor for the ESP issue identified in literature is related to learners' low motivational levels. Hamzaoui- Elachachi and Bouklikha (2014) claimed that "although subject students reported being motivated to learn English, their classroom behavior showed lack of interest and low motivation" (p. 91). Hamzaoui- Elachachi and Bouklikha identified several factors for this among them: students' English proficiency level, the course content, the teaching methods and materials and the learning atmosphere.

Still many other issues exist and need to be explored. Therefore, this study aimed to fill in the gap in research regarding the issues and difficulties that ESP teachers and learners encounter when being involved in ESP situation.

2. Statement of the Problem

Bing aware of the fact that English has become the dominant world language, the Algerian government, like many other Maghreb countries, has decided to adopt English at tertiary level institutions so that teachers, graduate and postgraduate students can contribute to the development of scientific research and international information exchange by publications, articles, attending seminars or presenting a paper in a conference in English. Currently, in all universities over the country, English for specific purposes courses (ESP henceforth) are offered for students at various specialisms as biology, engineering, economics, social sciences, etc. However, it seems that ESP courses

delivered in our universities and the teaching of ESP have to be reviewed since they have always been a subject of discussion, complain and dissatisfaction from the part of both teachers and learners.

ESP teachers and learners in Algeria often complain about students' low achievement and their poor proficiency level in English. Therefore, the present study calls into question the efficiency of ESP teaching in the Algerian University and attempts to find out the major reasons lying behind such negative impacts.

3. Objectives of the Study and Research Questions

The study aimed at exploring ESP teaching/learning situation within an Algerian context; particularly, at the University of Ghardaia. The major objectives of the study can be defined as follow:

• To describe the current situation of ESP at different institutions of the University of Ghardaia by analyzing ESP teaching and learning, existing ESP syllabuses, methods and means of instruction and assessment criteria and to define their strengths and weaknesses.

• To identify learners' needs and the degree to which the current courses meet them.

• To discover and identify the major issues and difficulties that both ESP teachers and learners face and compare if they are the same/ different at in various institutions.

• To come up with practical solutions to cope with these issues and difficulties in order to make ESP teaching/learning more effective.

To achieve the aforementioned objectives, the following research questions

were set out:

1. Do ESP courses provided at various faculties of the University of Ghardaia meet learners' needs?
2. What are the major difficulties that ESP teachers?
3. What are the major difficulties that ESP learners face?

4. Significance of the Study

The current study aimed to shed light on the problems of teaching/ learning ESP in Higher Education as well as providing some solutions. It is hoped that by knowing some problems arising in ESP, authority, teachers and educational practitioners could reflect their own conditions and take some steps to prevent the same problems. Those who face the same problems could benefit from the suggestions given to cope with them.

5. Definition of Key-terms

Clarification of terms and concepts discussed in this study is of great importance to avoid any kind of misinterpretation.

• **ESP (English for Specific purposes):** there are many definitions and interpretations for ESP in literature. In the current study, The researcher has adopted Hutchinson and Waters'(1987) definition ''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'' (p.19). They emphasize that ESP must be seen as an approach not a product. ESP does not necessarily involve any particular kind of language, teaching material or methodology. Its fundamental function is ''Why does this learner need to learn a foreign language?'' (p.19) (see section 1.2).

• **ESP practitioners**: in ESP, teachers need to adopt different roles involving not only the act of teaching in the classroom; that's why, some linguists and researchers prefer to use the label practitioners instead of teachers. Dudley Evans and St John (1998) identify five key roles to the ESP practitioner: a teacher, a course designer and material provider, a researcher, a collaborator and an evaluator (see section 3.10.1).

• **ESP learners**: unlike general Englsh learners, the ESP learner has a particular purpose for learning the language. Sifakis (2003) has identified an ESP learner as "a person who is an expert in his own field and who can perform his various duties adequately in his mother tongue" (p.6) . According to him, ESP learners are adults who have a strong a educational background but have weakness in English. Dudley Evans and St John (1998) state that ESP courses are usually designed for adult learners at tertiary level or for work place situations. These courses may be designed for learners at secondary level as well (Dudley Evans & St John, 1998).

• **Learners' needs:** need is the difference between what a learner can presently do in a language and what he /she should be able to do. In ESP, learners' needs "are often described in terms of performance, that is, in terms of what the learner will be able to do with the language at the end of a course of study" (Richards, 2001, p.33). Several researchers (Hutchinson and Water, 1987 ; Dudley Evans and St John, 1998; Strevens, 1977; Robinson, 1991) have posited that needs analysis is the starting point in any course design, and it is of paramount importance in ESP. Needs analysis involves ''compiling information both on the individual or groups of individuals who are to learn a language and on the use which they are expected to make of it when they have learned it'' (Richterich, 1983, p. 2).

• **Difficulty**: it refers to a problem or an obstacle that makes something hard to do. However, throughout this dissertation, the words hindrances, challenges, difficulties, problems, obstacles, issues are used interchangeably.

6. Research Methodology

(i) The Choice of Participants

(a) ESP Teachers

The teachers who were selected for the present investigation are all Algerian ESP teachers who teach at various faculties of Ghardaia University. A questionnaire was handed to all the 24 ESP teachers. In addition, classroom observation sessions were undertaken with one teacher from each specialty selected randomly (see section 3.10.1).

(b) ESP Learners

364 undergraduate learners from different specialties at the University of Ghardaia took part in the study. The learners were selected using a combination of stratified and quota sampling methods (see section 3.10.2).

(ii) Data Collection Instruments

Classroom observation and questionnaire were chosen to conduct the study. The use of classroom observation has helped the researcher to get information about what is really happening in ESP classes.

The questionnaires were used to get information from teachers and learners themselves about the issues they experience when involved in an ESP situation.

(iii) Methods of Data Analysis

A combination of qualitative and quantitative methods was applied to data analysis. Data obtained through classroom observation sheets, note taking and audio recordings were coded, categorized and analyzed manually; whereas, the data got from teachers' and learners' questionnaires were inserted into computer and processed using SPSS software. Numerical data were presented in the form of tables and pie charts to ease analysis and permit comparison (see section 3.13).

7. Structure of the Dissertation

The dissertation is organized into five chapters:

The first two chapters establish theoretical background for this investigation. Chapter I gives an overview on ESP through discussing its different definitions, dealing with its origins, historical developments, its various subdivisions, characteristics and objectives behind teaching it.

Chapter II deals with various teaching and learning practices in ESP such as: course design, needs analysis, syllabus design, material production and assessment as well as different roles assigned to ESP teachers and learners.

Chapter III describes the context of the study as well as research methodology. Thus, it deals with data sources, collecting the data and ways of processing the data.

Chapter IV is devoted to the presentation and discussion of the data obtained from classroom observations and the questionnaires. It brings all the findings together to answer the research questions.

In the last chapter, the researcher presents possible recommendations and suggestions which are hoped to help overcome the problems identified in the study and improve ESP teaching and learning.

Five appendices are also included and are referred to at appropriate stages of the research.

CHAPTER I

AN OVERVIEW ON ESP

Introduction

Since it appeared in the 1960's, ESP has been one of the predominant fields in education because English became the first international language of commerce and technology, and learning it became a necessity for having good job and better future. ESP was a radical shift in the field of language teaching. Language teachers and applied linguists shifted their attention from focusing on teaching general or everyday English to teaching specific language of particular academic disciplines and professional areas as they understood that general English courses did not meet learners' needs.

The current chapter attempts to understand the meaning English for Specific Purposes (ESP) dealing with various linguists' efforts to define it. It also traces its historical background dealing with the factors that had led to its emergence and the different phases it has undergone. The author discusses the difference between ESP and general English, ESP various branches, the features of ESP courses and objectives behind teaching it.

1.1 Definitions to ESP

Many researchers have proved that to give an accurate and precise definition to ESP is not an easy task. Strevens (1980) stated that ''a definition which is both simple and watertight is not easy to produce'' (p. 109), and Robinson (1991) said that ''it is impossible to produce a universally applicable definition of ESP'' (p.1). In fact, a number of linguists have interpreted the meaning of ESP differently. Some scholars described ESP as simply being the teaching of English for any purpose that could be specified; whereas, others were more precise describing it as the teaching of English used in academic studies or the teaching of English for vocational or for professional purposes.

According to Mackay and Mountford (1978), ''ESP is generally used to refer to the teaching of English for a clearly utilitarian purpose'' (p.2). That's to say that English should be taught to learners in a manner that enables them to read textbooks

written in English relevant to their field or specialism or to use English in their future career. This view echoes that of Robinson (1978) who argued that the students study English "not because they are interested in the English language or English culture as such, but because they need English for study or work purposes" (p.2).

Harmer (1983) stated that ESP can be described as ''situations where the student has some specific reasons to learn a language'' (p.1). In other words, myriads of learners want to learn the target language i.e. English to execute their spurs which can be scholastic or professional.

Basturkmen (2006) contended that in ESP "language is learnt not for its own sake or for the sake of gaining a general education, but to smooth the path to entry or greater linguistic efficiency in academic, professional or workplace environments" (p.18). This means that the task of ESP is to help language learners cope with the features of language or to develop the competencies needed to function in a specific discipline, profession, or workplace.

Mackay and Mountford (1978) suggested three kinds of utilitarian purposes for which students learn English:

• Occupational requirement: for international telephone operations, civil airline, pilot, etc.

• Vocational training programme: for hotel and catering staff, technical trades, etc.

• Academic or professional study, engineering, medicine, law etc.

Strevens (1988) offered a more comprehensive definition to ESP in the form of absolute and variable characteristics:

Absolute characteristics :
• Designed to meet specified needs of the learners;
• Related to content, to particular disciplines, occupations and activities;

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• Centred on the language appropriate to those activities, in syntax,

 lexis, discourse, semantics, etc;

• In contrast with "General English".

Variable characteristics:

ESP may be, but is not necessarily:

• Restricted as to the language skills to be learned.

• Not taught according to any pre-ordained methodology. (p.1-2)

This definition identifies ESP in contrast with General English. As Javid (2015) noted, it puts emphasis on ''specific English'' that belongs to some particular discipline, occupation or activity which means that ESP courses should concentrate on the language (i.e. syntax, lexis, discourse, semantics, etc) appropriate for some particular discipline, occupation or activity. Dudley Evans and St. John (1998) presented a modified definition to ESP by removing the absolute characteristic in Strenvens' definition that ''ESP is in contrast with General English'' and adding more variable characteristics.

I. 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, register), skills, discourse and genres appropriate to these activities.
II. 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 (p. 4-5).

Dudley Evans & St. John (1998) stated that different methodologies from that of General English may be employed to cater for the needs of the specific teaching situation for specific disciplines. Unlike other scholars (Abbot, 1981 ; Widdowson, 1983 ; Robinson, 1991) , Dudley Evans and St John did not restrict ESP courses for adult learners ; they could be used with learners at secondary school level and can be planned for the beginners along with intermediate or advanced students.

The variable factors, according to them, may change from one situation to another. They illustrated this idea with an example of two courses; one designed for tourism learners and the other for business people:

Table 1.1

ESP Absolute and Variable Characteristics Applied in Course Design

Type of learners	Business people	Tourism learners
Level of English familiarity	Intermediate	Beginners
Absolute characteristics	-ESP course based on the learners' needs. -Activities serve the business context. -The teaching or relevant language systems.	- ESP course based on the learners' needs. -Activities serve the tourism context. -The teaching or relevant language systems.
Variable characteristics	-Grammar teaching includes the function of if clauses in oral presentations, arguing, etc. -Oral course includes	-Basic grammar teaching e.g. present simple: forms, usage and functions. -Oral course includes the application of grammatical systems in useful sentences:

	simulations of business activities like meetings, giving presentations to the members of the company, etc.	defining a basic touristic function using the present simple, etc.

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) preferred to define ESP in terms of what it is not:

1) ESP is not a matter of teaching 'specialized varieties' of English.
2) ESP is not just a matter of science words and grammar for scientists, hotel words and grammar for Hotel staff and so on.
3) ESP is not different from any other form of language teaching, in that it should be based in the first instance on principles of effective and efficient learning. (p. 18-19)

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) emphasized that ESP must be seen as an approach not a product. ESP does not necessarily involve any particular kind of language, teaching material or methodology. ESP, then, is an approach to language teaching based on learners' goals and reasons for learning a language.

A more recent delineation of ESP is that of Antony (2018):

English for Specific Purposes (ESP) is an approach to language teaching that targets the current and/or future academic or occupational needs of learners, focuses on the necessary language, genres, and skills to address these needs, and assist learners in meeting these needs through the use of general and/or discipline- specific teaching materials and methods. (p.10)

1.2 The Meaning of the Word 'Special' in ESP

The word special can be used to refer to special language or special needs / aims. The confusion over these two concepts prevailed during the 1980s. Makay and Mountford (1978) clarified that the two notions are completely different. They defined the notion of special language as follows:

> The only 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 the a well- defined context, task or vocation. (p.4)

Special aim, on the other hand, refers to the learners' special purpose for learning a language rather than the nature of the language they learn (Mountford, 1978) . Barron (1994) supported the first view and confined ESP to specific disciplines. He emphasized "to place ESP firmly within the multidimensional space that constitutes the students' chosen disciplinary culture" (p.3). Multidimensional space includes "social, cultural and political factors" (Barron,1994). Fiorito (2005) also lent support to this idea and stated that in ESP "English is not taught as a subject separated from the student's real world (or wishes); instead, it is integrated into a subject matter area important to the learners" (p.1).

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) contradicted this restricted view regarding the scope of ESP; according to them, ESP is based on the learner's reason for learning not on any occupation or profession. Its fundamental function is ''Why does this learner need to learn a foreign language?'' (p.19). Gatehouse (2001) reported that ''the focus of the word 'special' in ESP ought to be on the purpose for which learners learn and not on the specific jargon or registers they learn'' (p.3).

1.3 Factors Contributing to the Emergence of ESP

English for specific purposes (ESP) or English for special purposes as a term arose in the 1960s as it became increasingly apparent that general English courses did not meet learners' and employers' wants (Brunton, 2009). Lesaik Beilawska (2015) claimed that the emergence of ESP was the result of a series of events and trends from around the world like the signing of the Versailles Treaty, World War I and World War II. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) stated that ESP was not ''a planned and coherent movement, but rather a phenomenon that grew out of a number of converging trends'' (p.6). Different factors contributed to the emergence of ESP: economic factors, revolution in linguistics and developments in educational psychology.

1.3.1 Economic Factors

After the end of the World War II in 1945, the world witnessed a huge and unprecedented growth in science, technology and business. Due to the economic power of the United States, English became the international language for global affairs. This created a new generation of learners who had specific reasons and goals for learning English; businessmen who wanted to communicate around the world, doctors who needed to keep up with recent developments in medicine, and students and researchers who needed to understand textbooks and journals only available in English. This led the way to language courses meant for learners with specific needs.

On the other hand, the Oil Crisis in 1970s revealed the importance of English; especially, among the rich countries.   English ''turned into big business'' and commercial pressures began to exert influence on the language teaching profession to provide people with the required goods (Ahmed, 2014). English teaching became ''subject to the wishes, needs and demands of people other than language teachers'' (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987, p. 6).

1.3.2 Revolution in Linguistics

The other striking cause behind the emergence of ESP was the revolution in linguistics. Unlike traditional approaches to language study which concentrated on describing the grammatical rules that govern language use, some linguists began to focus their studies on the ways language is used in real situations. A significant finding of this research was that discourses vary according to contexts in which the language is used.   Therefore, it was necessary to reorganize the teaching methodologies according to the language specifications of each situation. The English needed by doctors, engineers or scientists could be identified by analyzing the linguistic characteristics of their specialist area of work or study. " 'Tell me what you need English for and I will tell you the English that you need' '' became the guiding principle of language teaching (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987, p. 8).

1.3.3 Educational Psychology Theories (Focus on the Learner)

Educational psychologists paid more attention to the ways in which learners acquire language and the differences in the ways language is acquired. Research studies proved that learners employ different learning strategies, use different skills, enter with different learning schemata, and be motivated by different needs and interests. As a result, learners' needs became as necessary as transmitting the linguistic knowledge. This paved the way to what was later called the learner centered approach.

1.4 Development of ESP

Since its early beginnings in the 1960's, English for Specific Purposes has undergone several phases of development. However, it should be pointed out that ESP is not a universal phenomenon. It has developed at different speeds in different countries, and examples of all the phases that will be discussed in what follows can be found operating somewhere in the world at the present time (Hutchison and Waters, 1987).

The view of language that is not just a set of grammatical structures but a means of communication has led to major changes in ESP teaching and teaching materials. Robinson (1991) gave a brief summary about the different phases of ESP, as he pointed out:

Earlier studies focused on elements of the sentence and their constructions ; later cohesion (particularly grammatical cohesion) was an important consideration. Attention then moved to the meanings of forms (notions and functions) rather than their structure and to the study of forms in context. (p.23)

Figure 1.1

Phases of ESP Development
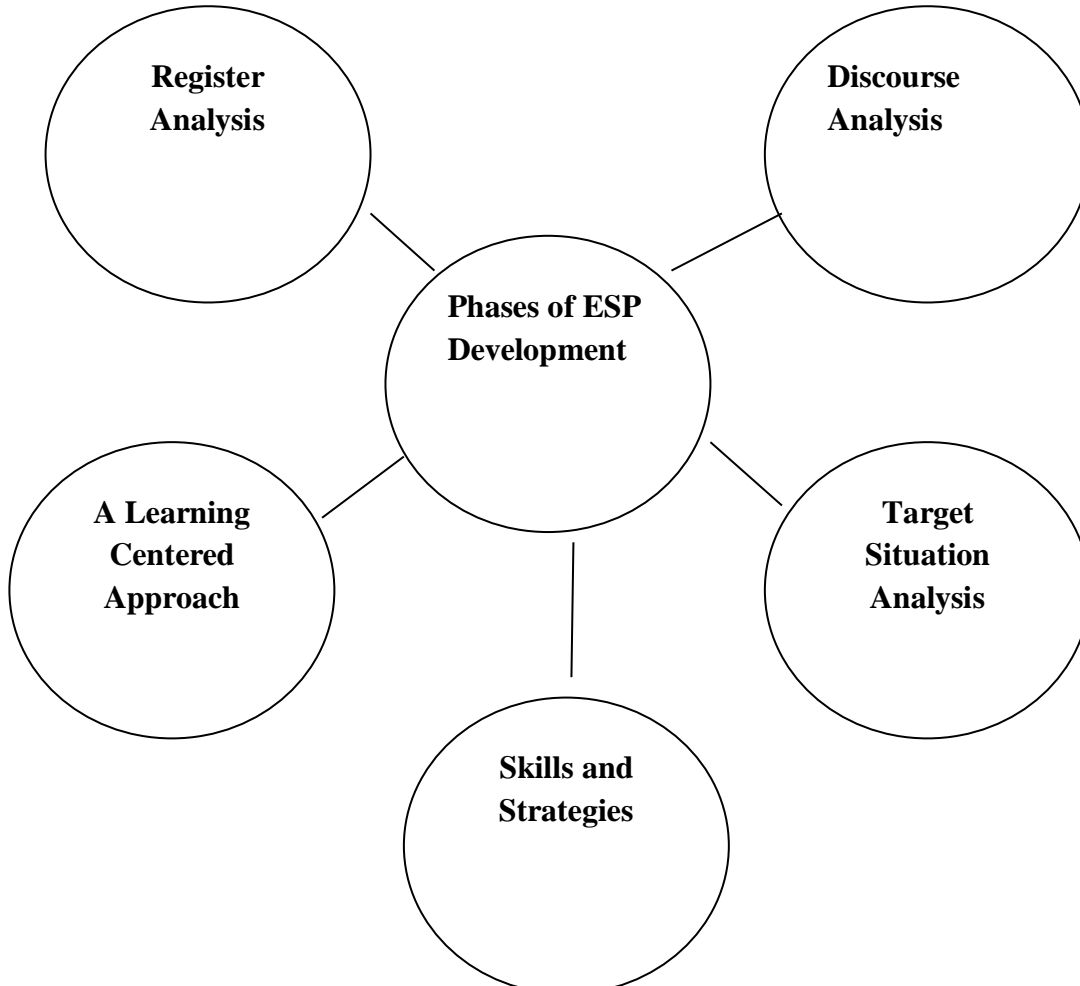
1.4.1 Register Analysis

This trend developed in the mid 1960s and early 70s and was particularly associated with the work of Halliday, McIntosh and Strevens (1964), Edwer and Latore (1969) and Swales (1971) (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). In their work, *The Linguistic Sciences and Language Teaching*, Halliday et al. (1964) maintained that language varies in relation to the different people who speak it and in relation to the different purposes to which it is used. Variations associated with different users are called 'dialects', and the other associated with different uses are 'registers'. Both are said to be defined by their formal linguistic properties or what Widdowson (1997) called types of text. Thus, English of Electrical Engineering, for example, constitutes a specific register different from that of Biology or general English.

The conviction behind this orientation was that registers could be differentiated by their stylistic features, that is, in terms of the grammatical and lexical items that frequently occurred in different types of discourse. Its application to ESP courses may best be exemplified by Herbert's *The Structure of Technical English* (1965) and Edwer and Latorre's *A Course in Basic Scientific English* (1969).

The prevailing belief at that time was that once the student had mastered the structures and vocabulary of his / her specialized field, he/ she would automatically be able to put these structures to use and thus come to grisp with the communication demands of his/ her particular situation. The result was that the traditional structural approach along with drill activities were applied to a narrow band of linguistic elements.

The most common method whereby structural patterns were orally practiced was the substitution-table technique. The following example is taken from by Herbert's *The Structure of Technical English* (1965):

Table 1.2

Teaching Structural Patterns by Substitution-table Technique in the Structure of Technical English by Herbert (1965)

This Machine	Differs is different	From	the other one	In	its shape. several aspects. the fact that it is more powerful.
	can be distinguished			By	its shape.
It is useful to	Differentiate distinguish make a difference	Between	a blower and liquid pump.		
This Engine	Unlike as distinct from as opposed to	the earlier one, has six cylinders.			
This engine as six cylinders	as against as compared with as opposed to	the four cylinders in the earlier one.			

Note.   Reprinted from The Development of ESP: Language Description and its Influence on Pedagogical Materials by M.D.P Garcia Mayo, 1998- 1999, Revista De Lenguas para Fines Especificos, 5 (6) , p. 209.

The approach adopted by such courses   provoked a lot of criticisms as it disappointed learners and parties involved in the teaching operation alike. It produced a " learner who drill[ed] beautifully in the classroom, but who remain[ed] essentially inarticulate outside it" (Cook 1978, p. 106).

Though the theory of register focused its emphasis on relating the language to be taught to the learner's specialized situation, the language items that were considered to be common in that situation were extracted and taught extrinsically

and discretely. In other words, the interactional nature of context of use, which generates forms, lexis and functions, was ignored both in language selection and language teaching. As Hatch (1978) commented :

> It is not enough to look at input and to look at frequency; the
>
> important thing is to look at the corpus as a whole and examine
>
> the interactions that take place within conversation to see how
>
> that interaction, itself, determines frequency of forms and
>
> and how it shows language functions evolving (p. 403).

Yet, the literature that was examined for determining the language to be taught was confined to written materials. In other words, features of spoken discourse were not considered.

1.4.2 Discourse Analysis

Discourse analysis shifted attention from emphasis on language at the sentence level to the level above the sentence. The assumption behind discourse analysis theory is that language use is not limited to the ability to produce grammatical forms, but is far more dependent on the ability to handle stretches of language longer than the sentence. As Savignon (1983) remarked: "discourse competence is concerned not with the interpretation of isolated sentences or utterances but with the connection of a series of sentences or utterances to form a meaningful whole" (p. 38). The leading figures of this movement were Henry Widdowson in Britain and the so called Washington School of Larry Selinker, Louis Trimble, John Lackstrom and Mary Todd- Trimble in the United States (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987).

Register analysis focused on sentence grammar, this approach shifted attention to understanding how sentences are combined in discourse to produce meaning.

Researchers focused on identifying the organizational patterns in texts and specifying the linguistic means by which these patterns are signaled. The Rhetorical Process Chart below from *EST: A Discourse Approach* by Louis Trimble (1985) is representative of discourse analysis approach.

Table 1.3

Rhetorical Process Chart

Level	Description of level

A. The objectives of the total discourse
 	
 Examples: 1. Detailing an experiment
 	
              2. Making a recommendation
 	
              3. Presenting new hypothesis or theory
 	
              4. Presenting other types of EST information	

B. The general rhetorical functions that develop the objectives of level A
 	
 Examples: 1. Stating purpose
 	
              2. Reporting past research
 	
              3. Stating the problem
 	
              4. Presenting information on apparatus used in an experiment
 	
 a) Description
 	
 b) Operation
 	
              5. Presenting information on experimental procedures	

C. The specific rhetorical functions that develop the general rhetorical functions of level B
 	
 Examples: 1. Description: physical, function and process
 	
              2. Definition
 	
              3. Classification
 	
              4. Instructions
 	
              5. Visual-verbal relationships	

Examples: I. Orders 1.Time order	

2. Space order

3. Causality and result

II. Patterns

1. Causality and result

2. Order of importance

3. Comparison and contrast

4. Analogy

5. Exemplification

6. Illustration

Note. Reprinted from English for Specific Purposes: A Learner- Centered Approach by T. Hutchinson and A. Waters, 1987, p.11. Copyright 1987 by Cambridge University Press.

The overall aim of discourse analysis orientation was to enable the learner to use the language knowledge he has already learned for interpreting and expressing scientific facts and concepts in written discourse. As Widdowson (1974) described the approach :

> We take the view that the difficulties which the students encounter
> arise not much from a defective knowledge of the system of English,
> but from an unfamiliarity with English use, and that consequently their
> needs cannot be met by a course which simply provides further practice
> in the composition of sentence, but only by one which develops a
> knowledge of how sentences are used in the performance of different
> communicative acts. (cited in Hutchinson and Waters, 1987, p.10)

In practice, discourse analysis approach tended to concentrate on how sentences are used in the performance of acts of communication and to generate materials based on functions (definitions, descriptions of experiment, inductive/ deductive statements, instructions, etc). Its manifestation in ESP teaching materials can best be exemplified by Allen and Widdowson's the *English in Focus* series (1974-1978), Widdowson's Reading and Thinking in English series (1979- 1980) and The *Nucleus General Science* (1976) by Bates and Dudley Evans (Garcia Mayo,1998-1999**)**   . The students were taught to recognize those functions in scientific texts by the means of text diagramming exercises.

 The rhetorical approach has been very influential especially in the United States;

nevertheless, there were dissatisfactions too. Coulthard (1977) and Hutchinson and Waters (1987) observed, that the authors of these books have done to discourse what the structuralists have done to the formal language system. In much the same way the language code was broken down into its discrete elements and thus taught, the text is dissected into its discoursal components and likewise taught.

The passages composed for expounding the rhetorical functions to be learnt are relatively short and each passage is made to represent a single function. This seems to be a misrepresentation of the real nature of scientific communication where a number of rhetorical acts are very likely to occur in the course of discourse.

The learner is introduced to the rhetorical bricks that constitute a text but are practiced in dissociation from one another. The learner is not trained in how to put these bricks together to produce extended coherent discourse. In other words, by this approach the learners are made aware of the discourse patterns, but it does not enable them to use these patterns in communication.

The following figures show some examples of discourse analysis approach activities.

Figure 1.2

Text- Diagramming in The Nucleus General Science by Bates and Dudley Evans (1976)

The carbon cycle

The life of plants and animals depends on the chemical substances containing carbon atoms. Plants obtain carbon from the very small amounts of carbon dioxide in the atmosphere. This atmospheric Co_2 is continually absorbed and given off (released) in the "carbon cycle".
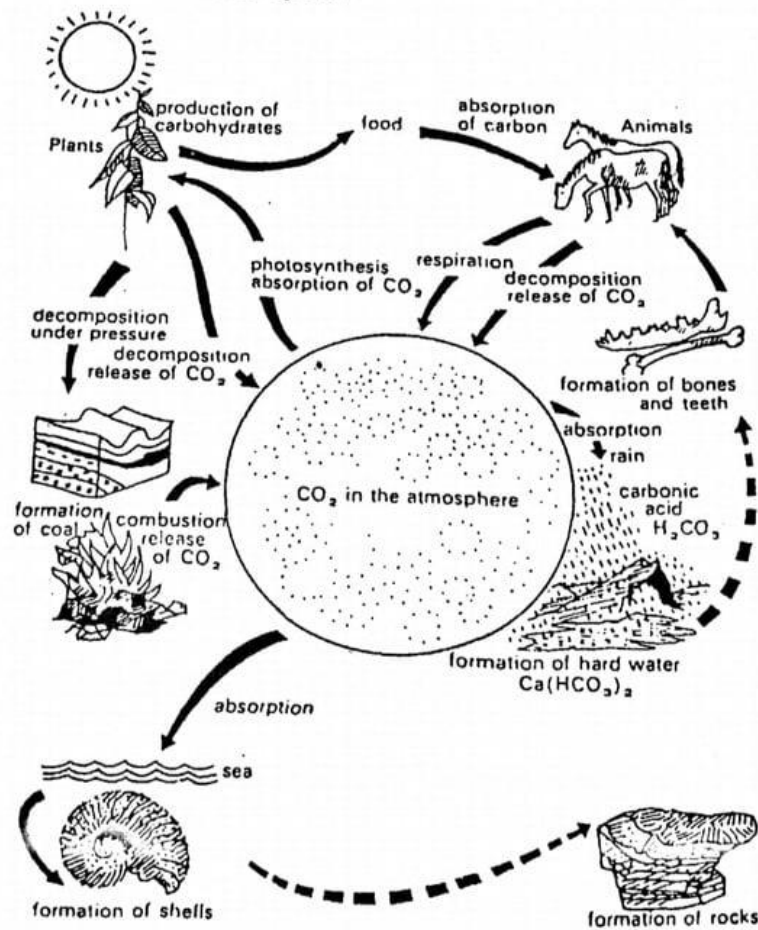
Note. Reprinted from The Development of ESP: Language Description and its Influence on Pedagogical Materials by M.D.P Garcia Mayo, 1998- 1999, Revista De Lenguas para Fines Especificos, 5 (6) , p. 214.

Figure 1.3

Text- Diagramming in Reading and Thinking in English: Exploring Functions by Widdowson(1979)

b uses of natural materials
c uses of man-made materials
d the advantages of natural materials.

The two dominant factors which determine the use of a material are its cost and its physical and chemical properties.[11] The specificaions of the designers have to be matched against what is known about a material's strength, how easily it conducts electricity, how quickly it corrodes, etc.[12] But the material chosen for a given application is the one which most cheaply meets the specifications of the designers.[13] Even when special materials have to be developed to meet a particular specification, the costs of production have to be carefully controlled.

meet = satisfy

material which meets the specifications:
a £50
b £20
c £15 ← choice

[11] What does the use of a material depend on?

[12] The material's strength, etc. are examples of . . . . . .

[13] Which material is chosen?

9 Complete the following table to summarize the paragraph.
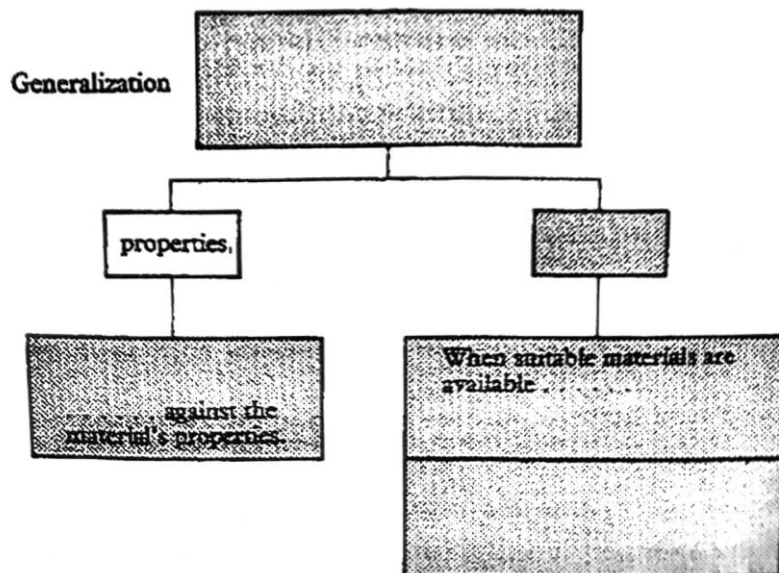
Generalization

properties,

. . . . against the material's properties.

When suitable materials are available . . . . . .

Note. Reprinted from English for Specific Purposes: A Learner- Centered Approach by T. Hutchinson and A. Waters, 1987, p.36. Copyright 1987 by Cambridge University Press.

1.4.3 Target Situation Analysis

ESP shifted attention much more to the communicative approach where the main focus is to enable learners to function adequately in their target situation. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) defined the target situation as ''the situation in which the learners will use the language they are learning'' (p.12). ESP focuses on developing English communication skills in a specific discipline such as: accounting, management, law, engineering, IT technology, health and medicine, etc. Therefore, the first step in ESP course design underlying this approach is identifying the target situation and then carrying out rigorous analysis of the linguistic features of that situation. The identified features form the syllabus of the ESP course; this process is known as needs analysis.

Chambers (1980) preferred to use the term target situation analysis (TSA) as a more accurate description for the process concerned. He explained:

> By the language I mean the language of the target situation. Thus needs analysis should be concerned with the establishment of the communicative needs and their realisations, resulting from an analysis of the communication in the target situa- tion – what I will refer to as target situation analysis (TSA). (p.29)

One of the significant examples of the target situation analysis is the one developed by John Munby (1978) Communicative *Syllabus Design*. Munby presented a detailed set of procedures for finding out target situation analysis needs which he called the communicative needs processor (CNP). Munby analyzed learners' needs in terms of four elements:

1) The communicative purposes.

2) The communicative setting.

3) The means of communication,

4) The language skills, functions and structures.

However, Munby's model was highly criticized as it was just a list of a set of the linguistic features of the target situation while there is more to needs analysis than this. To counter these shortcomings of target situation needs analysis, various forms of learning needs or pedagogical needs have been identified to give more information about the learner and the educational environment.

Garcia Mayo (1998, 1999, p.217) argued that these needs should be seen as complementing the target situation needs rather being alternatives:

> -deficiency analysis : this gives us information about what the learners'
>
> learning needs are, i.e. which of their target-situation needs they lack or
>
> feel they lack.
>
> - strategy analysis: this seeks to establish how learners wish to learn rather
>
> than what they need to learn. By investigating learners ' preferred
>
> learning styles and strategies we « get a picture of the learners' conception
>
> of learning »   (Allwright 1982:28)
>
> -means analysis: means analysis investigates precisely those considera-
>
> -tions that Munby excluded. These relate to the educational Environment
>
> in which the ESP course is to take place (classroom environment in
>
> which the ESP course is to take place (classroom culture, ESP staff
>
> profiles...etc, cf. Swales, 1989)

Then, needs analysis is a complex process which should consider both target situation needs (language use) and learning needs (language learning).

Figure 1.4

Hutchinson & Waters' (1987) Framework for Analyzing Target and Learning Needs
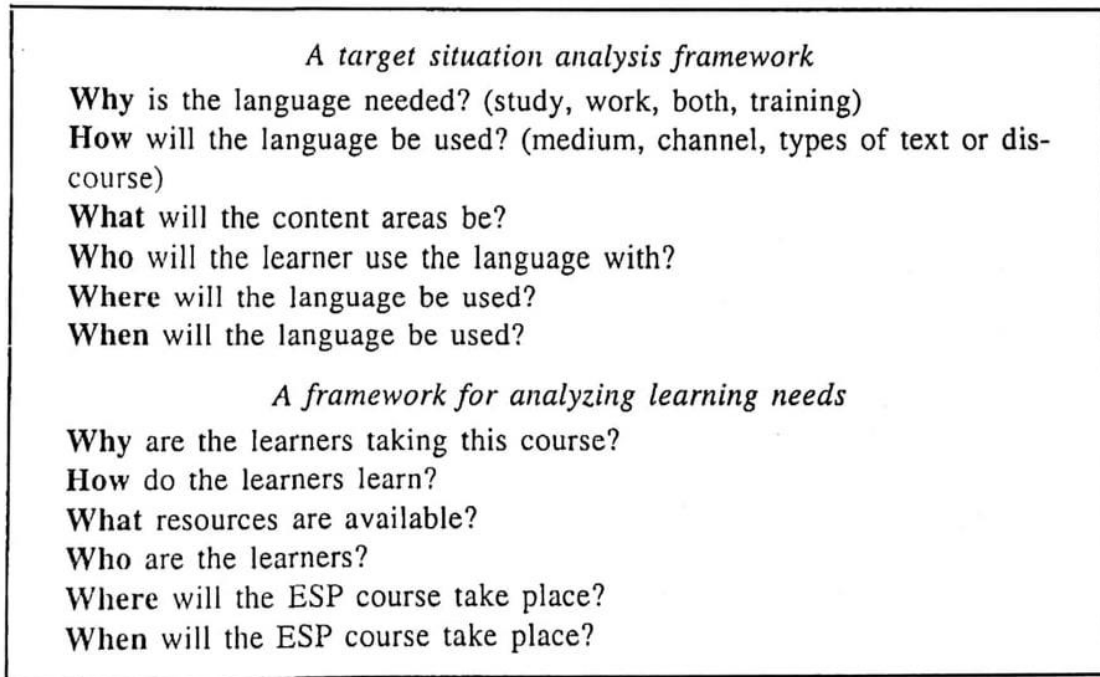
> *A target situation analysis framework*
> **Why** is the language needed? (study, work, both, training)
> **How** will the language be used? (medium, channel, types of text or discourse)
> **What** will the content areas be?
> **Who** will the learner use the language with?
> **Where** will the language be used?
> **When** will the language be used?
>
> *A framework for analyzing learning needs*
> **Why** are the learners taking this course?
> **How** do the learners learn?
> **What** resources are available?
> **Who** are the learners?
> **Where** will the ESP course take place?
> **When** will the ESP course take place?

Note. Reprinted from The Development of ESP: Language Description and its Influence on Pedagogical Materials by M.D.P Garcia Mayo, 1998- 1999, Revista De Lenguas para Fines Especificos, 5 (6) , p. 218.

1.4.4 Skills and Strategies

In the 1980s, ESP witnessed a quantum leap as its concern became not the language itself but the thinking processes that underlie language use. The principle behind the skills and strategies approach is that underlying all language use there are common reasoning and interpretation processes which regardless of the surface forms enable the learners to extract meaning from discourse. The focus of ESP

courses, therefore, should be on:

> the *interpretive strategies*, which enable the learner to cope with
> the surface forms, for example, guessing the meaning of words from
> using visual layout to determine the type of the text, exploiting cognates
> (i.e. words which are similar to the mother tongue language.
> (Ramirez, 2015, p.13)

This meant designing tasks requiring students to process texts employing the same skills and strategies as would be required in the target situation.

In practice, skills and strategies based approaches to ESP have widened the conception of authenticity in two main ways. First, text is broadened to include texts other than written texts, and it differentiated between the various types of texts generated by each skill, for example, reading could be subdivided into reading reports, reading technical journals, reading instructions manuals, etc. Second, the conception of authenticity is spread to embrace authenticity of task. The belief in this movement is to produce tasks requiring students to process texts as they would do in real world i.e. employing the same skills and strategies that would be required in the target situation. This is thought to help the learners transfer these study skills to their real life tasks (Ramirez, 2015).

Most of the work in the area of skills and strategies has been done in schemes such as the National ESP Project in Brazil and the University of Malaya Project (Hutchinson & waters, 1987). Teaching materials generally put emphasis on reading and listening skills. Taking their cue from cognitive learning theories, the characteristic exercises get the learners to reflect on and analyze how meaning is produced in and retrieved from written or spoken discourse.

1.4.5 A learning Centered Approach

In their book *English For Specific Purposes : A learning centered approach*, Hutchinson and Waters (1987) presented what they thought would be a new approach to ESP. According to the authors, all the approaches mentioned so far, were fundamentally flawed in that they were all based on the description of language use whether describing the surface forms as in the case of register analysis, or the underlying processes as in the skills and strategies approach. In both cases, the concern is describing what people do with language. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) explained that their concern is different:

> Our concern is with language learning. We cannot simply assume that describing and exemplifying what people do with language will enable someone to learn it. If that were so, we would need to do no more that read a grammar book and a dictionary in order to learn a language. A truly valid approach to ESP must be based on an understanding of the processes of language learning. (p.14)

A learner centered approach sees learning as the active construction of meaning, and teaching as the act of guiding, scaffolding and facilitating learning (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). This approach considers learning as being an ever changing process which is built on the learner's prior experience (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987).

Unlike traditional instructor centered approaches in which the learners take a passive role and instructors are seen as experts who must impart all relevant information. The learner-centered approach views learners as active agents. They bring their own knowledge, past experiences, education, and ideas, and this impacts how they take on board new information and learn.

The learner-centered approach is based on the principle that learning is totally determined by the learner whose needs, wants and lacks should be taking into account at all stages of the syllabus design. Kennedy and Bolitho (1984) pointed out that ESP is based on ''an investigation of the purposes of the learner and the set of communicative needs arising from these purposes'' (p.3).   This process is commonly known as needs analysis which is a vital part in the process of materials' preparation and production in the area of ESP.

In this process, the language and skills that the learners need to use to communicate in their future professional workplace or in their studies areas are identified and considered in relation to the state of knowledge of learners (Basturkmen, 2010). As the material designers and curriculum developers get a full idea about learners' needs, it will be possible for them to set the course objectives and determine the content of the course . Duddley Evans and St John (1998) argued:

> The concept of learning-centred approach is outlined. It involves
>
> considering the process of learning and student motivation very
>
> fully and working out exactly what is needed to enable the
>
> students to reach the end target. (p.26)

To put it differently, the learner and his needs are the corner stone in ESP design under the learner centered approach. This approach to course and materials design has been widely discussed in the papers of Hutchinson and Waters (1981, 1982, 1987) and more recently in Waters and Waters (1992).

Figure 1.5

Outline of a Learning-centered Approach to ESP
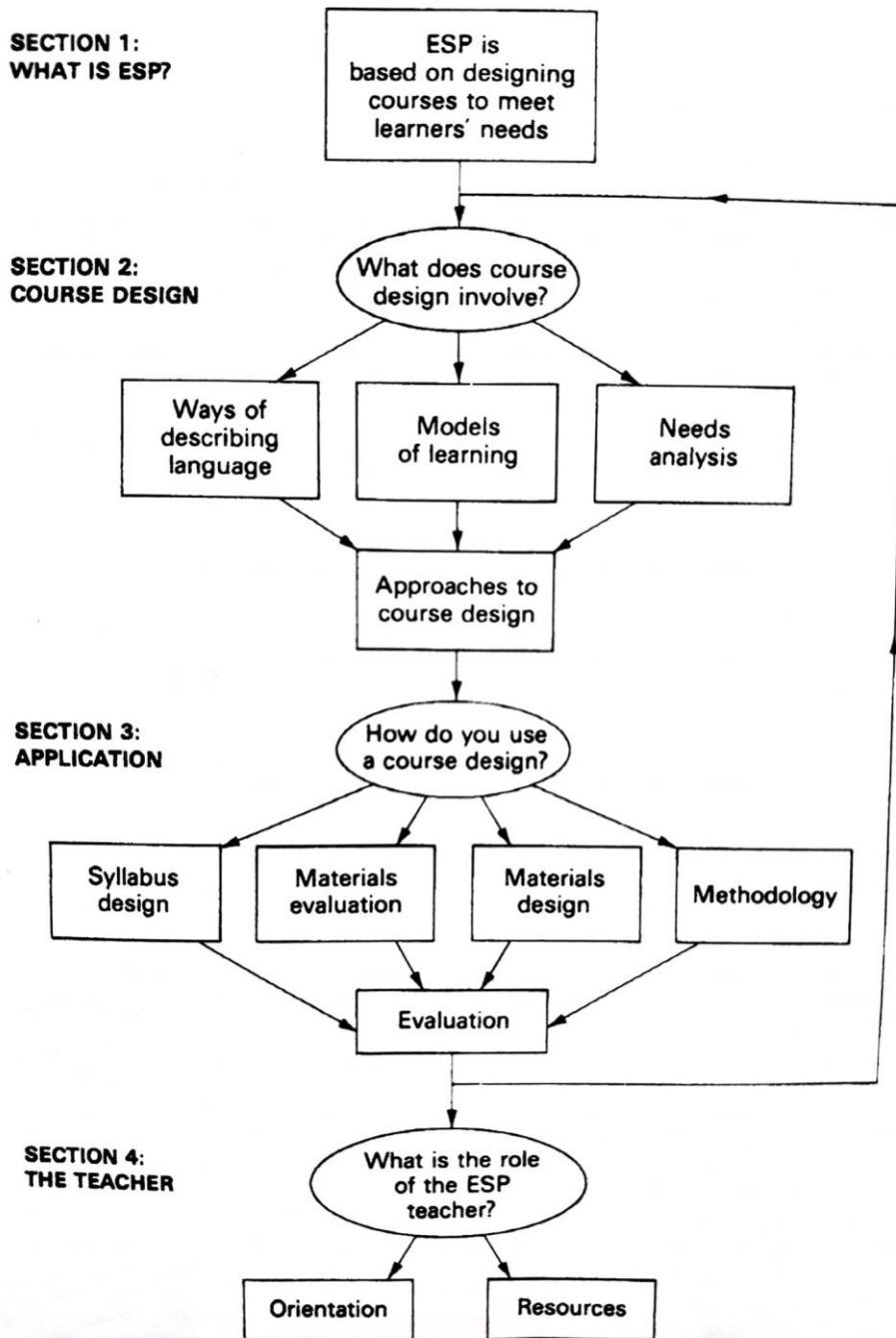
Note. Reprinted from English for Specific Purposes: A Learner- Centered Approach by T. Hutchinson and A. Waters, 1987, p.3. Copyright 1987 by Cambridge University Press.

1.5 Branches of ESP

The umbrella term ESP has been broken down into myriads of taxonomies and subdivisions to suit different teaching situations. Munby (1978) divided ESP into two broad areas:

1) English for Occupational Purposes (**EOP**) ''where the participant needs English to perform all or part of his occupational duties'' (p.2).

2) English for Educational Purposes (English for Academic Purposes or **EAP**) ''where the participant needs English ... to pursue part or all his studies'' (p.2).

Carter (1983) identified three types of ESP:

1) English as a restricted language (e.g. language used by air traffic controllers, waiters, etc).

2) English for Academic and Occupational Purposes.

3) English with specific topics (concerned with future anticipated needs e.g. scientists requiring English for attending conferences or working in foreign institutions).

In their tree of EFL, Hutchinson and Waters (1987) consider ESP as a branch of English as a second/ foreign language which are the main strands of ELT. ESP is broken down into three main branches :

1) English for Science and Technology (**EST**).

2) English for Business and Economics (**EBE**).

3) English for Social Studies (**ESS**).

Each of these subject areas is further divided into two branches:

1) English for Academic Purposes (**EAP**) .

2) English for Occupational Purposes (**EOP**).

Figure 1.6

The Tree of ELT
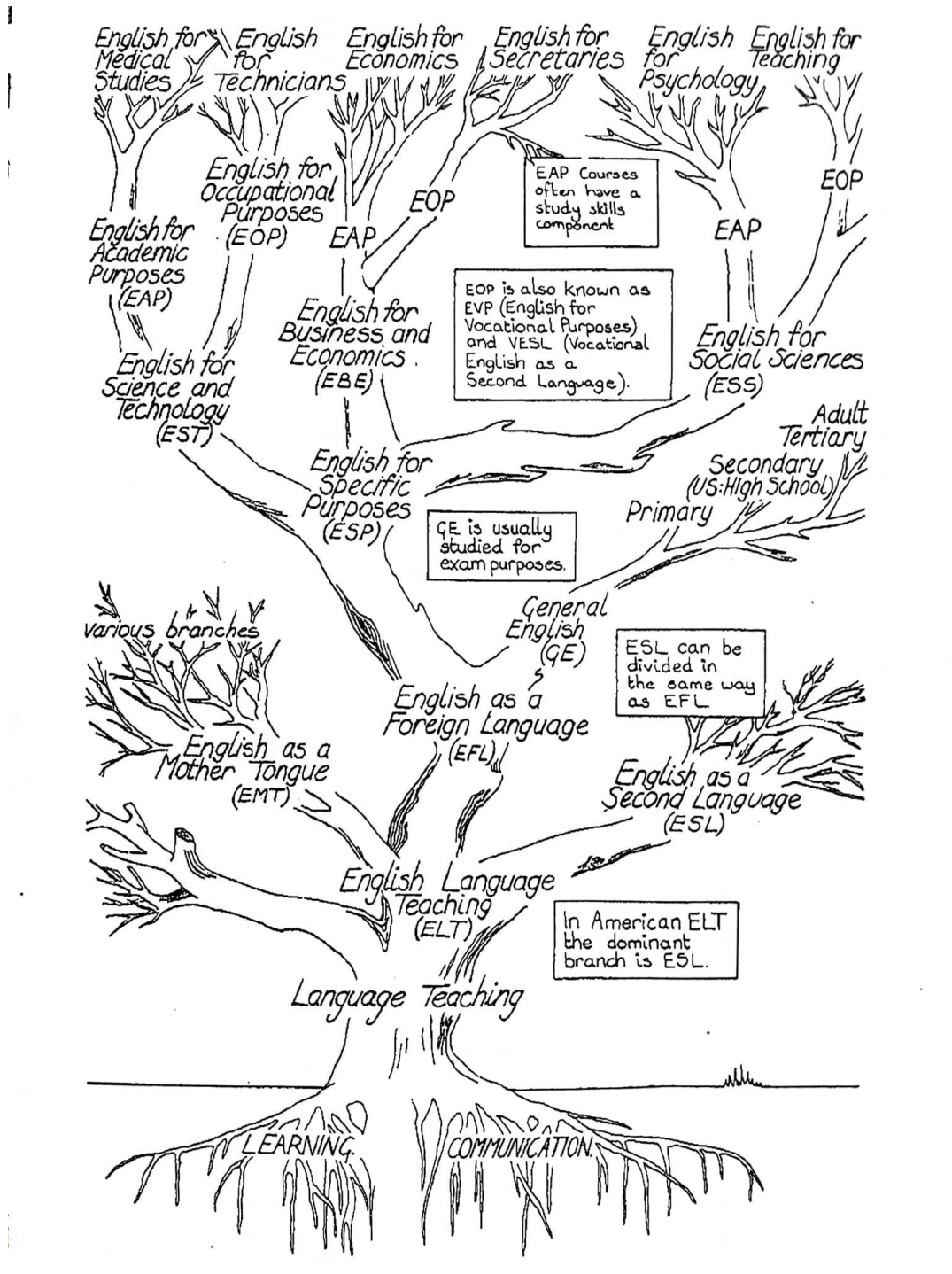
Note. Reprinted from *English for Specific Purposes: A Learner- Centered Approach by* T. Hutchinson and A. Waters, 1987, p.17. Copyright 1987 by Cambridge University Press.

Strevens (1977, 1988) suggested a further division for occupational and academic ESP according to when they take place.

Figure 1.7

ESP Classification by Experience
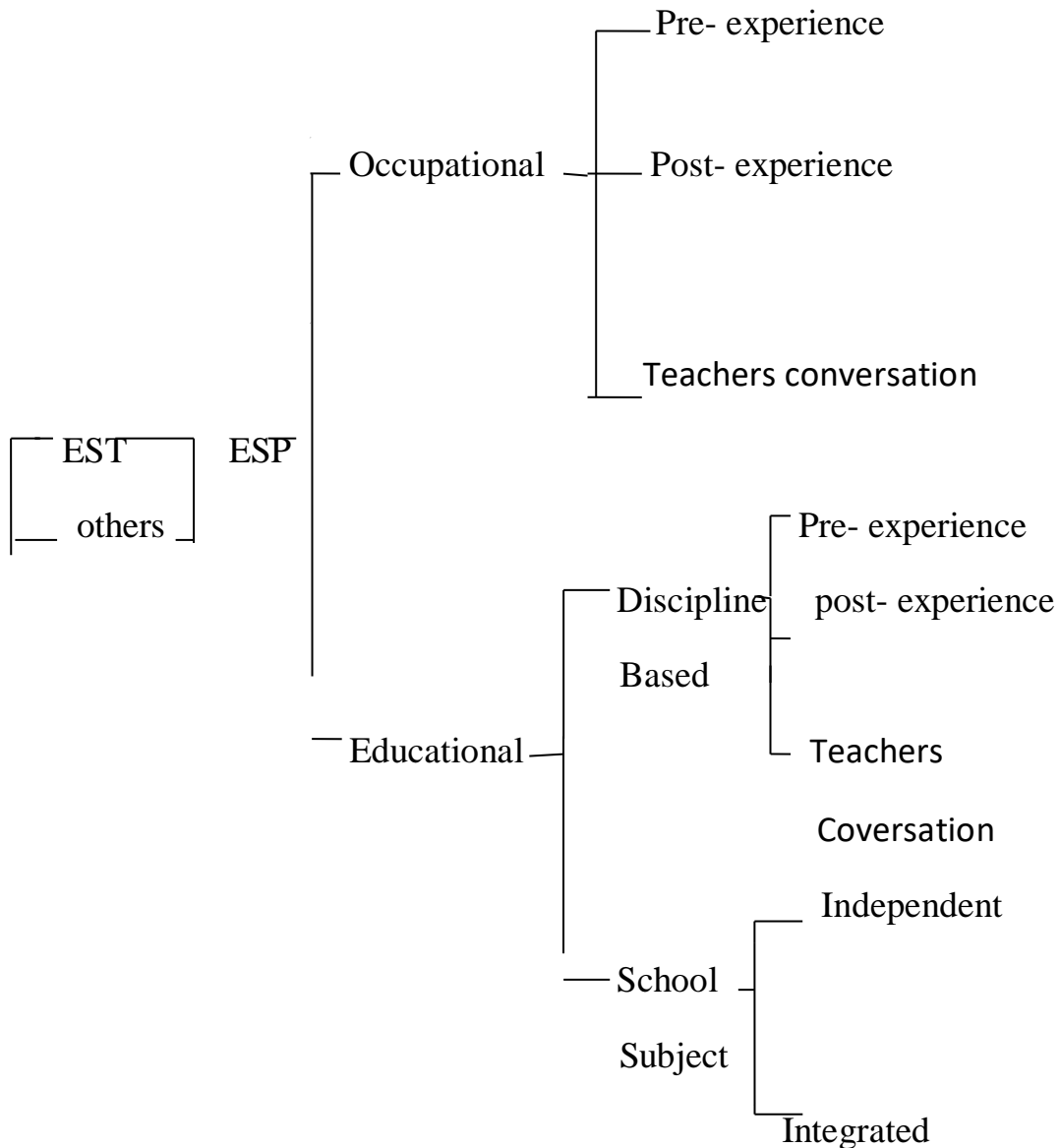
Note. Reprinted from An Introduction to ESP by N. Umera- Okeke , 2005, p.10.

Copyright 2005 by Fab Education Books.

In **EOP**, the training time could be before or after the learner has worked in a specific field. Pre-experience when English for the job is taught simultaneously with the learning of the job itself. In post-experience the learner is familiar with the job and is just adding relevant Knowledge of English. Teachers' conversation courses refer to re-training teachers of other languages to enable them to convert to teaching English either additionary or alternatively.

EAP varies according to the aims and framework within which it is offered. It is divided into discipline-based English offered in higher education and school-subject English at primary and secondary levels. It can be taught as a separate subject (independent) or can be the medium of instruction in other subjects (integrated).

Dudley- Evans and St John (1998) presented another categorization to ESP according to discipline or professional area. **EAP** covers areas of Science and Technology (**EST**) as the main area, English for Medical Purposes (**EMP**), English for Legal Purposes (**ELP**) and English for Management, Finance and Economics.

EOP is divided into two categories : English for Professional Purposes (**EPP**) and English for Vocational Purposes (**EVP**).

EPP has two subsections: English for Medical Purposes (**EMP**) and English for Business Purposes (**EBP**).

EVP is grouped into two subfields: Vocational English needed for specific trades and occupations and Pre-vocational English concerned with finding a job and interview skills.

Figure 1.8

ESP Classification by Professional Area
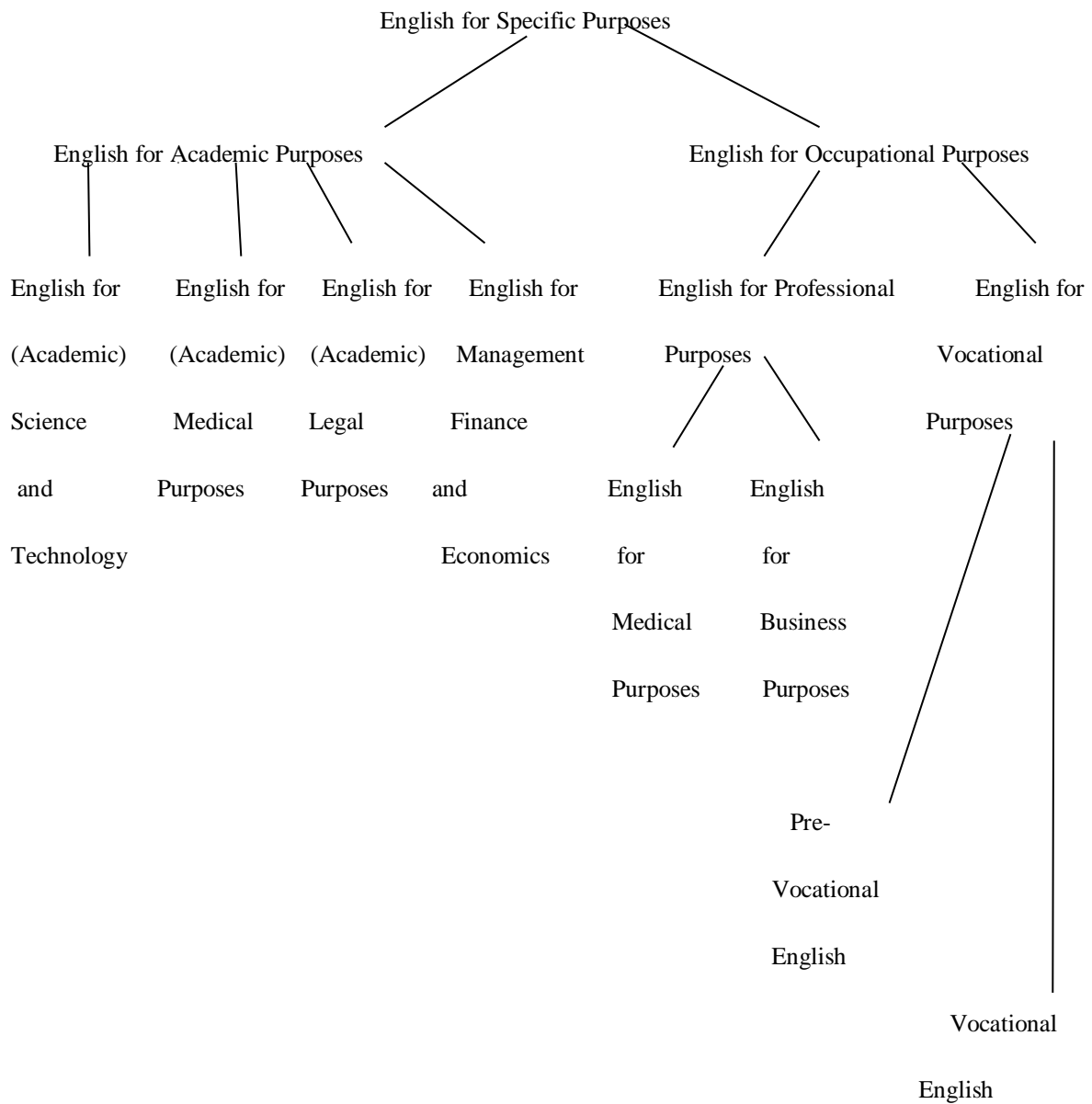
English for Specific Purposes

English for Academic Purposes

English for Occupational Purposes

English for (Academic) Science and Technology

English for (Academic) Medical Purposes

English for (Academic) Legal Purposes

English for Management Finance and Economics

English for Professional Purposes

English for Medical Purposes

English for Business Purposes

English for Vocational Purposes

Pre-Vocational English

Vocational English

Note. Reprinted from Developments in English for Specific Purposes : A Multi Disciplinary Approach by T. Dudley- Evans and M. St John , 1998, p.6. Copyright 1998 by Cambridge University Press .

1.6 ESP Vs GE

While designing an ESP curriculum, the first thing one needs to know is the difference between ESP and GE. GE is ''the common core English'' used by all native and non native speakers (Orr, 2002, p.2). GE and ESP are basically taught in ESL and EFL classrooms ; whereas, ESP is taught to special target groups .

Schleppegrall and Bowman (1986) explained that the difference ''lies in learners and their purpose for learning'' (p.68). Strevens (1977) distinguished ESP from other methods of language teaching saying: ''Special purpose English teaching (ST…LT) occurs whenever the content and aims of the teaching are determined by the requirements of the learner rather than by external criteria'' (p.186). ESP teaching approach is learner centered where learners' needs and goals are of supreme value; whereas, GE approach is language centered and focuses on learning English from abroad perception covering all the language skills and cultural aspects of English speaking community.

Mackay and Mountford (1978) supported this view; according to them, English is taught "not as an end itself but as an essential means to clearly definable goal" (p.28). This goal may vary according to the situation; academic, professional or scientific.

Strevens (19 77) stated that:

> ESP differs from general English in that it is based on a close
> analysis of the learners' communicative needs for a specific
> occupation or activity, as well as a detailed analysis of the
> language of that occupation or activity. (p.186)

For this reason, McDonough (1984) argued that the ESP practitioners need to understand the requirements of other professional either in academic or professional

fields. They should be open to adapt new means and way and flexible to accommodate new ideas.

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

The most important EGP features are:

1. The focus is often on education.

2. As the learners' future needs are impossible to predict, the course content is more difficult to select.

3. Due to the above point it is important for the content in the syllabus to have a high surrender value.

The most relevant ESP features are:

1. The focus is on training.

2. As English is intended to be used in specific vocational contexts, the selection of the appropriate content is easier.

3. It is important for the content in the syllabus to have a high surrender value, most relevant to the vocational context.

4. The aim may be to create a restricted English competence.

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) stated that there is no difference between the two in theory, but a great deal of difference in practice. The basic distinctions they mentioned can be summarized in the following table:

Table 1.4

Main Differences between ESP and GE

	ESP	**GE**
Learners	Designed for adults (work/academic studies)	Designed for high school students.

Aims	To meet the needs of particular learners.	To improve overall English competence.
Approach	Learner centered approach.	Language centered approach.
Language focus	The course may focus on one or few aspects and language skill(s) most needed by the learners.	The course targets all aspects of language: grammar, vocabulary, phonology, etc. All the four language skills are stressed equally.

1.7 Features of ESP Courses

Carver (1983) mentioned three features common to ESP courses:

-Authentic materials

-Purpose- related

-Self- direction

The use of authentic materials has been pointed to by many authors (Carver, 1983 ; Coffey, 1984 ; Hubbard, 1995) as is a crucial component in ESP teaching. Authentic materials are defined as "texts produced by native speakers for non-pedagogical purpose" (Bacon and Finnemann ,1990,p. 35) or as "the material which has not been especially designed for language teaching, but produced for purposes other than to teach language" (Nunan, 1988, p.99). Thus, these authentic materials should be taken from real world and not created for teaching reasons. Such materials are important for communication purposes because they provide a realistic context for tasks that relate to learners' needs (Torregrosa Benavent & Sánchez-Reyes Peñamaria , 2011). Teachers and students need to use authentic materials as a means to "link the formal, and to some extent artificial, environment of the

classroom with the real world in which we hope our students will eventually be using the language they are learning" (House, 2008 as cited in Torregrosa Benavent & Sánchez-Reyes Peñamaria, 2011, p.89)

Flowerdew and Peacock (2001) mentioned three arguments for the use of authentic materials rather than simplified or adapted ones: According to them, unlike the real life material, non authentic texts which are constructed solely for teaching purposes cannot provide the material appropriate for the classroom. Simplified texts are often deprived of their original and subtle meanings, and they cannot adequately prepare learners to real world situations.

Dudley Evans and St John (1998) pointed out that a text is truly authentic if it is exploited in ways that reflect real world use. According to them, authenticity lies in the nature of the interaction between the reader (or hearer) and the text. As they stated:

> A key question is whether the activities based on the text
>
> reflect the ways in which the text would actually be used
>
> by students in their course work. Exercises that ask students
>
> to answer comprehension questions by finding relevant sentences
>
> in the text are not authentic, but those that ask students to use
>
> information from the text in a task or problem- solving activity
>
> are. (p.28)

Widdowson (1983), on the other hand, insisted on the idea that authenticity in the language teaching means attaining "the communicative activity of the language use" (p.30). Therefore, the way the materials are processed in the classroom plays a significant role for authenticity.

For this reason, some authors suggested that authenticity includes both authentic language material and teaching activities which require authentic language tasks.

Authentic materials are greatly useful for problem solving, project based learning, case based learning, games, and simulation and role play tasks. Learners should possess a certain degree of knowledge of the target language. Dudley Evans (1997) suggested that ESP should be offered to learners at intermediate or advanced level so that the use of authentic materials is entirely feasible.

The second feature of ESP course is purpose- related orientation which refers to the simulation of communicative tasks required of the target situation. According to Carver (1983), the aim of the ESP course is to enable learners to become communicatively competent in the target field. Carver cited students' simulation of different tasks required for a conference. The tasks included reading of papers, note-taking, writing, presentation of papers, etc.

At Algonquin College English for business courses involved students in the design and presentation of a unique business venture including market research, pamphlets and logo creation. The students presented all their final products to invited ESL classes during a poster presentation sessions.

For health science program, the students attended a seminar on improving the listening skills. They practiced listening skills such as listening with empathy, and then employed the new acquired skills during a fieldtrip to a local community centre where they were partnered up with English- speaking residents. A large component of students' evaluation was based on an independent study assignment in which they were to investigate and present an area of their interest. The students were encouraged to conduct research and make oral presentations.

Bojavic (2006) described English for Agribusiness Management (EAM) Course at the faculty of Agronomy in Cacak. The course involved different tasks like presenting agricultural product, logo creation, negotiation with clients (suppliers and buyers) and telephone conversations. The students also practiced listening skills though the application was restricted; they employed the new acquired skills in their classes with their colleagues and the teacher.

The last feature of ESP course as viewed by Carver (1983) is self- direction or what he defines as '' … turning learners into users'' (p.134). According to him, in order for self- direction to occur, learners must have a certain degree of freedom to decide when, what and how they will study. There must be a systematic attempt by teachers to foster students' autonomy by teaching them about learning strategies. This will help them to access information of a new culture.

Kennedy and Bolitho (1984) lent credence to this as they stated: ''a prime concern for the teacher is to enable a student to become more and more autonomous in his learning as the course goes on'' (p.141).

1.8 ESP Teaching Objectives

Stern (1992) stated that there are four types of ESP teaching objectives: proficiency, knowledge, affective and transfer.

• Proficiency objectives concern the mastery of skills of reading, writing, listening and speaking.

• Knowledge objectives concern the acquisition of linguistic and cultural information. Linguistic knowledge objectives involve the analysis and awareness of the systematic aspects of language. Cultural knowledge objectives, on the other hand, concern the control of socio-cultural rules such as mastery of the norms of society, values and orientations and also the ability to recognize culturally significant facts, knowing what is acceptable and what is not.

• Affective objectives refer to the development of positive feelings towards the subject of the study. They include attitudes toward attaining second language competence, socio-cultural competence and language learning.

• Transfer objectives involve the ability to generalize from what has been learnt in one situation to other situations.

Basturkmen (2006), on the other hand, proposed five broad objectives in ESP teaching:

• To reveal subject-specific language use.

• To develop target performance competencies.

• To teach underlying knowledge.

• To develop strategic competence.

• To foster critical awareness.

1.8.1 Revealing Subject-specific Use

This objective is linked to the linguistic knowledge objective and, to a lesser extent, to cultural knowledge objective in Stern's (1992) categorization. Teaching oriented towards this objective aims to show the learners how the language is used in the target environment and to impart to them the knowledge about it that has been revealed by linguistic research. According to Basturkmen (2006), there is a direct link between research and pedagogy with teaching primarily focused on demonstrating the forms and features that descriptive linguistic research has brought to light.

Bhatia (1982) as reported by Basturkmen (2006), made an in-depth linguistic analysis of the language of qualification in legal texts and suggested a number of suggestions for teaching English to students of law. Teachers are advised to discuss the organization of texts with the students, to highlight the structure of the texts and demonstrate the language of qualification in legal writing. He proposed that teachers need to simplify example texts so that the structures used in legislative writing can be made more transparent to the learners.

1.8.2 Developing Target Performance Competencies

Funnel and Owen (1992) described competency based occupational education as an approach that focus on developing the ability to perform the activities of an

occupation or function to the standards expected of those working in that occupation. Basturkmen (2006) argued that teaching oriented towards this objective presents language operationally in terms of what people do with language and the skills they need to do it.

Courses are organized around core skills and competencies which in their turn are subdivided into micro-skills and more specific competencies. This orientation can be linked to proficiency objective in Stern's (1992) classification. The link between needs analysis and teaching is straightforward. Needs analysis highlights the demands and expectations of the target environment, and ESP teaching helps students to meet those demands (Basturkmen, 2006).

1.8.3 Teaching Underlying Knowledge

Douglas (2000) claimed that specific purpose language ability results from interaction between specific purpose background knowledge and language ability. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) used the term underlying competencies to refer to disciplinary concepts from the students' field of study. They argued that ESP should focus on developing students' knowledge of disciplinary concepts as well as their language skills. The objective of teaching underlying knowledge can be seen as cultural knowledge objective in Stern's categorization (Basturkmen, 2006).

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) suggested that ESP classroom is the appropriate place to introduce learners to concepts from their disciplines and the language they would need to express those concepts. They reported the ESP courses that they taught to overseas students in the United Kingdom. The courses aimed to prepare learners for study in technical colleges. In such cases, Hutchinson and Waters stated that the role of ESP teaching is providing students with background knowledge, termed underlying competency. This means teaching conceptual subject content alongside language i.e. teaching engineering students about pump systems while teaching language use for describing systems and processes.

1.8.4 Developing Strategic Competence

Douglas (2000) proposed three-part of specific ability language including language knowledge (grammatical, textual, functional and sociolinguistic), background knowledge and strategic competence (assessment of the external context and engaging a discourse domain. Douglas argued that strategic competence acts as a 'mediator' between the external situational context and the internal language and background knowledge that is needed to respond to the communicative situation. Strategic competence is the link between context of situation and language knowledge. Basturkmen (2006) defined strategic competence as the mean that enables language knowledge and content knowledge to be used in successful and efficient communication.

Dudley Evans and St John (1998) stated that ESP learners bring to language learning knowledge of their own specialist field and communication in it. Although this knowledge may be conscious, it is often latent (implicit or tacit knowledge) and the learners will not be able to control the use of that knowledge. Therefore, ''the ESP teachers' job may be to develop a more conscious awareness so that control is gained'' (p.188).

Dudley Evans and St John (1998) cited an example of EAP unit at Birmingham University who developed a team teaching approach of working with postgraduate students from highly specialized field. Their aim was to avoid situations where the EAP teacher "with smattering knowledge in the subject area …view of himself…the expert…on how the subject ought to be taught, and even what the subject ought to be" (p.152).

The approach involved three parties in teaching: the EAP teacher, the subject specialist and the students. The role of the language teacher was a mediator between the language and subject knowledge by providing language needed to express the content.

The authors listed a number of advantages that could be gained from such team taught courses:

• The students can have immediate assistance with any difficulties that may arise.

• Subjects specialists find out how effectively they communicate to the students.

• The EAP teacher gains familiarity the concepts of the subject and how is used to represent it.

• The EAP teacher understands where linguistic difficulties arise in relation to conceptual matter.

1.8.5 Fostering Critical Awareness

This objective can be linked to the cultural knowledge objectives in Stern's (1992) classification and aims at making students conscious and culturally aware of the target situation (Basturkmen, 2006). A major question in ESP is whether ''the function of ESP teaching should be exclusively on helping students fit into target situations by teaching them the language, behaviours, or knowledge to act appropriately'' (Ahmed, 2014, p.14).

Bansesch (2001) claimed that teaching should promote the communicative norms of the target environment and lead students to accept these norms uncritically. According to Allison (1996, 1998), ESP has often been seen as a pragmatic venture that helps students become familiar with established communicative practices (Ahmed, 2014). Benesch (1996) described critical approaches as a reaction to the pragmatic ESP/ EAP perspective that ''changing existing form is unrealistic whereas promoting them is practical'' (p.736).

Thus, instruction with the aim of raising students' critical awareness involves discussing with students how norms and communicative practices in the target environment become established , encouraging them to critique any negative aspects and making them aware of ways to try to change or modify the situation so as to position themselves better in relation to it.

Figure 1.9

ESP Teaching Objectives
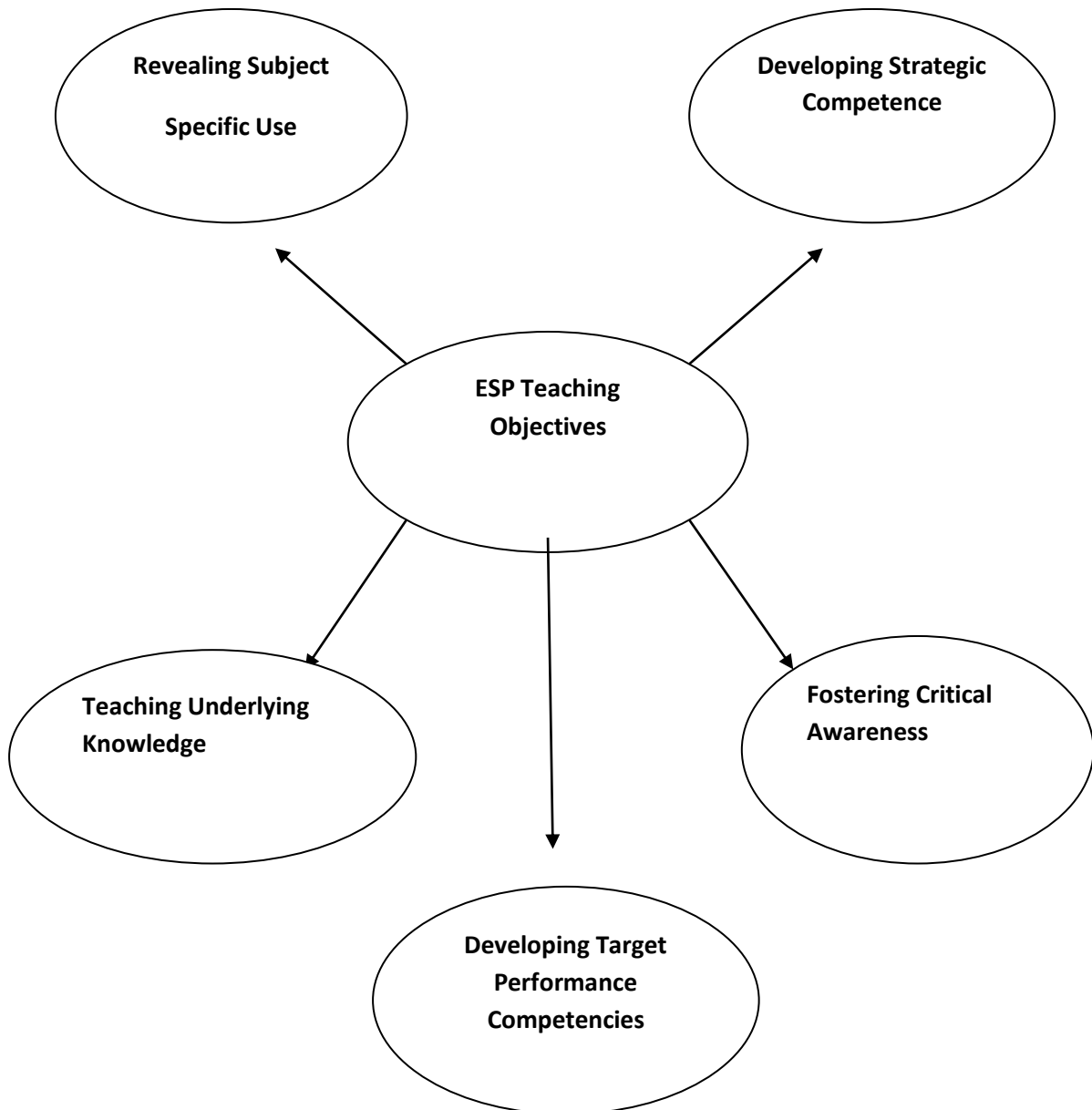
Conclusion

With regard to the main points that have been discussed in this chapter, it can be concluded that ESP is the teaching of English to learners who have specific goals and purposes; these goals can be professional, academic or scientific. It is not the specific discipline that is the primary in ESP but the specific goal of the specific learners. Historical development of ESP has been traced, and it has revealed that though ESP is considered a modern approach, ESP textbooks have existed since the sixties. It is found that the purpose of the ESP course is to enable the learners to function effectively in the target situation, and that the ESP course has three basic features: authentic materials, purpose- related and self- direction.

CHAPTER II

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND ON TEACHING/ LEARNING ENGL ISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES

 Introduction

The present chapter presents some theories and views related to the field of ESP teaching and learning and makes explicit some concepts found in the related literature. This chapter deals with with various teaching practices in ESP such as: course design, needs analysis, syllabus design, material production and assessment as well as different roles assigned to ESP teachers and learners.

2.1 The Roles of the ESP Practitioner

Research on theoretical and practical similarities and differences between ESP and GE teachers (Dudley Evans and St John, 1998 ; Hutchinsn and Waters, 1987 ; Nunan and Lamb, 1996 ; Robinson, 1991 ; Swales, 1980) has suggested that :

> language Teachers for Specific Purposes have a lot in common with teachers of general foreign language. For both it is necessary to consider linguistic development and teaching theories, to have insights in contemporary ideas regarding their own position and role as well as the position and role of foreign language learners in education and to face new technologies offered as an aid to improve their methodology."
> (Madhavilantha, 2014, cited in Javid, 2015, p.22)

However, ESP is assumed to be more focused, practical and object focused as compared to EGP (Dudley Evans and St John, 1998). In ESP, courses vary depending on the learners' specific field or profession; therefore, teachers who tend to teach these courses need to perform a variety of roles and acquire a specialised knowledge (Dudley Evans and St John, 1998).

Robinson (1991) revealed that ''the role of the ESP teacher is a controversial issue… there is no single ideal role description'' (p.79). That's why, Swales (1980) and Dudley Evans and St John (1998) and many others prefer to use the term 'practitioner' rather than 'teacher' to emphasise that ESP work involves

more than teaching. Sierocka (2008) claimed that the ESP teacher has got more roles to play besides the role of teacher.

Dudley Evans and St John (1998) suggested that the ESP teacher has to embdy five key roles:

• Teacher

• Course designer and material provider

• Researcher

• Collaborator

• Evaluator

Figure 2.1

Roles of ESP Practitioner
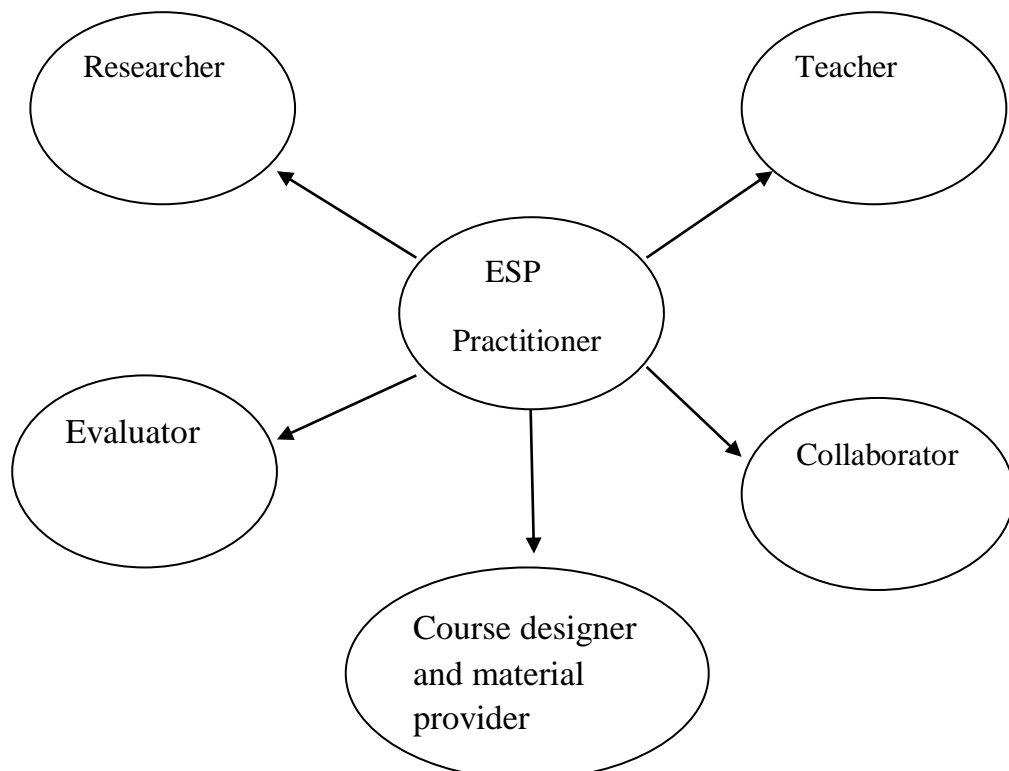
The first role as teacher is 'synonymous' with of general English teacher with the main focus of helping students to learn (Dudley Evans and St John, 1998). However, the difference lies in the objective behind teaching (Harmer, 2001).

In ESP, a teacher does not mean only being a language provider but has also to bear the burden of the content area of his learners (Javid, 2015). Saliu (2013) noted that English for specific purpose ''are designed to develop the communicative use of English in a specialised field of science, work or technolgy'' (p. 2). This makes his /her role more challenging since '' the teacher is not the 'primary knower' of the carrier content … The students may in many cases … know more about the content than the teacher'' (Dudley Evans and St John, 1998, p.13).

Several study researches worldwide (Abdulaziz, Sayed and Mahmoud, 2012; Chen, 2011 ; Hoa and Mai, 2016 ; Kiran, 2013; Medrea and Rus, 2012, Poedjiastute, 2007; Saliu, 2013) have shown that lack of specalised knowledge on the learners' specific field of study can be a serious problem to the ESP practitioner.

Saliu (2013) stated that teachers in many cases find themselves teaching texts whose content they know little or nothing about or as Hutchinson and Waters (1987) described teachers as ''reluctant dwellers in a strange and uncharted land'' (p.158). Goonetilleke (1989) stated that it is not very easy to find the teachers who ''know English as well as the subject of the students'' (cited in Javid, 2015, p. 23). By getting engaged in a need analysis process, the ESP practitioner becomes aware of his/ her learners' needs so as to bring the relenant materials required by the group of learners in class. Hull (2004) has described the role of the ESP practitioner as ''a facilitator rather than presenter of content'' (cited in Javid, 2015, p. 23). Javid (2015) claimed that the ESP practitioner should have the ability to get ready to teach students from one

professional field to another. Moreover, Dudley Evan and St John (1998) noted:

> ESP teachers also need to have a great deal of flexiblity , be willing to
>
> listen to learners, and to take an interest in the desciplines or proffesional
>
> activities the students are involved in … ESP teachers must be happy
>
> to take risks in their teaching. (p.14)

According to them, the willingness to be flexible and to take risks in teaching is one of the keys to success in ESP teaching.

Javid (2015) conveyed that ESP practitioners have also to act as counselors and motivators. A ''good couselor ,as defined by Sifakis (2003), is good person, intelligent, creative, sincere, energitic, warm towards others, responsible and of sound judgement'' (cited in Javid, 2015: 25). Javid (2010) pointed out that ''the role of a language teacher is not merely limited to teach and impart knowledge and skills but it also involves the task of motivating them by exploiting certain behavioral and social factors'' (Javid , 2015).

Course designing and providing relevant materials is another important aspect of ESP teaching. Dudley Evans and St John , 1998 ; Robinson, 1991 ; Swales ,1980 all agree that the ESP practitioner is required to design, set up and administer the ESP course.This job becomes rather more challenging because it's rarely possible to find a textbook that matches learners' needs (Javid , 2015) . Dudley Evans and St John (1998) explained that the role of the ESP practitioner in providing materials constitutes the following processes :

• Selecting published materials.

• Adapting the material if it is not suitable.

• Writing their own materials when it is not possible for them to find something suitable for the target situation.

Jones (1990) highlighted that ''ESP teachers find themselves in a situation where they are expected to produce a course that exactly matches the needs of a group of learners, but are expected to so do with no, or very limited preparation time'' (cited in Javid, 2015, p.24). This makes ESP teaching very demanding, especially for someone who is new in this field (Javid , 2015).

ESP calls for an extremly proffesional behaviour on the part of ESP practitioners who need to update their knowledge by remaining constantly in touch with research in various fields of ESP and to incorporate the findings of research into their own situation to better cope with learners' needs. According to Dudley Evans and St John (1998):

> An ESP practitioner has to go beyond the first stage of Needs
>
> Analysis- Target Situation Analysis (TSA) which identifies
>
> key target events, skills and texts- to observe as far as possible
>
> the situations in which students use the identified skills and
>
> analyse samples of the identified texts. As part of this process,
>
> ESP teachers generally need to be able to carry out research to
>
> understand the discourse of the texts that students use. (p.15)

Nunan (1990) maintained that action research as well as keeping oneself abreast with the on- going research in the field of ESP are extremly necessary for ESP practitioners.

Large body of literature (Anderson and Speck, 1998 ; Carpenter, 2007 ; Dudley Evans and St John, 1998 ; Hanusch, Objiofor and Volcic, 2009 ; Lee, 2008 ; Renau, 2015) suggests that ESP practioners need to coordinate with subject specialists.The objective behind this cooperation is to have knowledge about the subject skills, tasks and syllabus and to discover how the subject

integrates with the language to bring suitable materials for their learners Dudley Evans and St John (1998). Dudley Evans and St John described three different ways in which this joint work can take place : cooperation, collaboration and team teaching.

At the first stage, cooperation, the ESP teacher takes the initiative to enquire about the students' field of specialism to design appropriate program of study. The Specialist, as Jordan (1997) maintained, acts as an informant on what goes on in the subject decipline. The second step, collaboration, witnesses a more direct involvement of the subject teacher to validate the syllabus content by devising common materials. Finally, the third stage, team teaching, implies a stricter cojoined work in the classroom where each educator provides his/ her oun expertise in the field. When team teaching is not a possibility, the ESP practitioner must cooperate more closely with his/ her learners who will generally be more familiar with the specialsed content of their field materials more than the teacher him or herself (Dudley Evans & St John, 1998).

ESP practitioners are also required to be involved in multiple kind of evaluation including ''the testing of students and the evaluation of courses teaching materials'' (Dudley Evans & St John, 1998, p.16). In addition, they need to assess themselves and the teaching methods and approaches they follow to check how much success can be bruoght up to their classes. Javid (2015) described this:

> Along with the pre-program placement tests, and the final achievement test, several course quizzes during an ESP program should be conducted to assess the progress of the students. Furthermore, evaluation of "course design and teaching materials should be done while the course is being

taught, at the end of the course and after the course has

finished'' (p.26)

Dudley Evans and St John (1998) rather advised '' to follow up with students sometime after the course in order to asses whether the learners have been able to make use of what they learned and to find out what they were not prepared for'' (p.17). To be updated in terms of research evaluation and assessment will help ESP practitioners to better cope with their learners' needs and bring up seccessful courses into their classes.

ESP teaching demands well- trained teachers but research studies have revealed that most ESP practitioners are below the required strength which is the main reason behind ineffective ESP teaching (Javid, 2015). Furthermore, Chen (2006) stated that the chances of ESP teacher education prgrams seem non-existent. Research has suggested that action research is a useful tool for teacher development and Dudley Evans and St John (1998), Nunan (197), Palmer and Postegullo (1997) and Richard and Lockart (1994) among many other authos have offered insights into its advantages ''to foster teachers ability to reflect, improve their teaching and grow in personal prfessionalism'' (Javid, 2015, p.23).

2.2 The Role of the ESP Learner

In ESP approach, learners are no more seen as passive consumers of teachers' knowledge, but having the capacity for detachment, critical reflection, decision making and independent action (Little, 1991). ESP teachers, therefore, should not teach but rather guide the students to learn alone. They should not make of learners passive recipients of information but rather curious learners and seekers of knowledge, and since the time-span spent in the classroom will never be sufficient for them to learn, they need to be driven to look for information outside the classroom and thus become autonomous. As for Harmer (2001), "However good a teacher may be, students will never learn a language or anything else,

unless they aim to learn outside as well as during class time. This is because language is too complex and varied for there to be enough time for students to learn all the need to in a classroom" (p. 335).

Recent research interest has shifted from what to learn into how to learn "autonomous learning and metacognitive strategies are suggested as the two basic essentials for teaching and learning ESP" (Pirsl et al., 2013, p.5). As far ESP learners are concerned, Dobrota (2009) posited that since they are urged to master professional English, ESP students "need to be given necessary guidance to become autonomous learners able to cope independently with the various challenges in their working environment" (p. 511).

Dudley Evans and St John (1998) claimed that ESP courses are usually designed for adult learners who have a clear idea of what they want to learn. Sifakis explained that learning adulthood is not restricted to the age of the learner but is also associated with ''the way a learner approaches a learning situation'' (Dudley Evans and ST John, 1998, p. 7). He contended that ''all ESP learners (even non-adults) share adulthood-oriented characteristics'' (Javid, 2015, p.20).

On describing these characteristics, he commented :

> The personal growth and full development of adults, also
>
> regarded as maturity- an ideal and a goal ; a greater sense of
>
> perspective and an ability to make judgments (about themselves
>
> themselves and others) based on accumulated experience -
>
> adults are usually serious in what they undertake and want to be
>
> taken seriously ; an inherent autonomy which renders them
>
> responsible decision makers, whose motivation   (or degree f
>
> voluntary participation and personal involvement) is a central
>
> prerequisite as far as learning is concerned. (Javid, 2015, p.20)

Robinson (1991) defined adult as goal-oriented learners who do not want to learn English for social or cultural reasons but for well-defined occupational or academic needs. Hull (2004) stated that ''the adult learner is self-directed and autonomous'' (Javid, 2015, p.21). Carter (1983) claimed that self-direction is one of the three characteristics of ESP in which the learner himself can decide on the way to study. "ESP is concerned with turning learners into users" (p.134). He added that teachers should teach their learners about the different ways and techniques of learning. Being autonomous, according to Illes, (2012), implies learners taking responsibility for different aspects of the learning process including setting goals, determining content, selecting resources and techniques as well as assessing progress. In such a framework, an autonomous learner is a decision maker (Chan, 2003) who exercises varying degrees of control at the levels of learning content, learning management and cognitive processes (Benson, 2012).

There are many voices calling for a broader change in language teaching/ learning by involving students in the design of ESP curriculum. Hutchinson and Waters (1987), in their turn, stressed the significance and role of learners in designing and implementing the ESP course.   According to Ghafournia and Sabet (2014), an effective ESP program should focus on three essential principles. The first principle is ESP learners' awareness of the learning process. ESP learners should be regarded as active participants who can reflect about their learning preferences, instructional syllabus and methodology. The second one is the identification of particular characterizations of ESP learners; that is before implementing any ESP program, a detailed analysis, identifying the skills, strategies and knowledge required by learners is necessary. The third and last principle is establishing a particular learning contract which is a particular form of educational negotiation that should be made between ESP curriculum planners, language teachers, content teachers and learners. Research suggests that learners should be involved in the process of the choice of content materials,

curriculum development and teaching methodology to ensure maximum commitment and motivation (Javid, 2015). Adams-Smith (1989) advised that ESP course content should be kept flexible to accommodate learners' recommendations (Javid, 2015).

2.3 The Psychological Dimension of Teaching/ Learning Process

There is empirical evidence given by language scholars and educationalists that learners' attitudes have an enormous influence on their learning achievements. Therefore, Swales (1980) recommended that ESP designers should know about their students' will to learn. As he stated:

> It is very important for a course designer to know not only what
>
> his students can do and need to do but also to know what they
>
> would be willing to do or could be persuaded to do within the
>
> confines of their particular learning environment. (p.68)

In this regard, Hutchinson and Waters (1987) argued that learners, as all people do, have their likes and dislikes that should not be ignored because they may result in the success or failure in learning. They put forward a diagram through which they explained how important it is when the learner wants to learn. According to this diagram, the first step of learning is the learner's will to learn. For them, the relationship between the cognitive and emotional aspects of learning is one of vital importance to the success or otherwise failure of the learning experience. This brings us to a matter which is one of the impotant elements in language learning that is motivation.

Figure 2.2

A Positive Learning Cycle
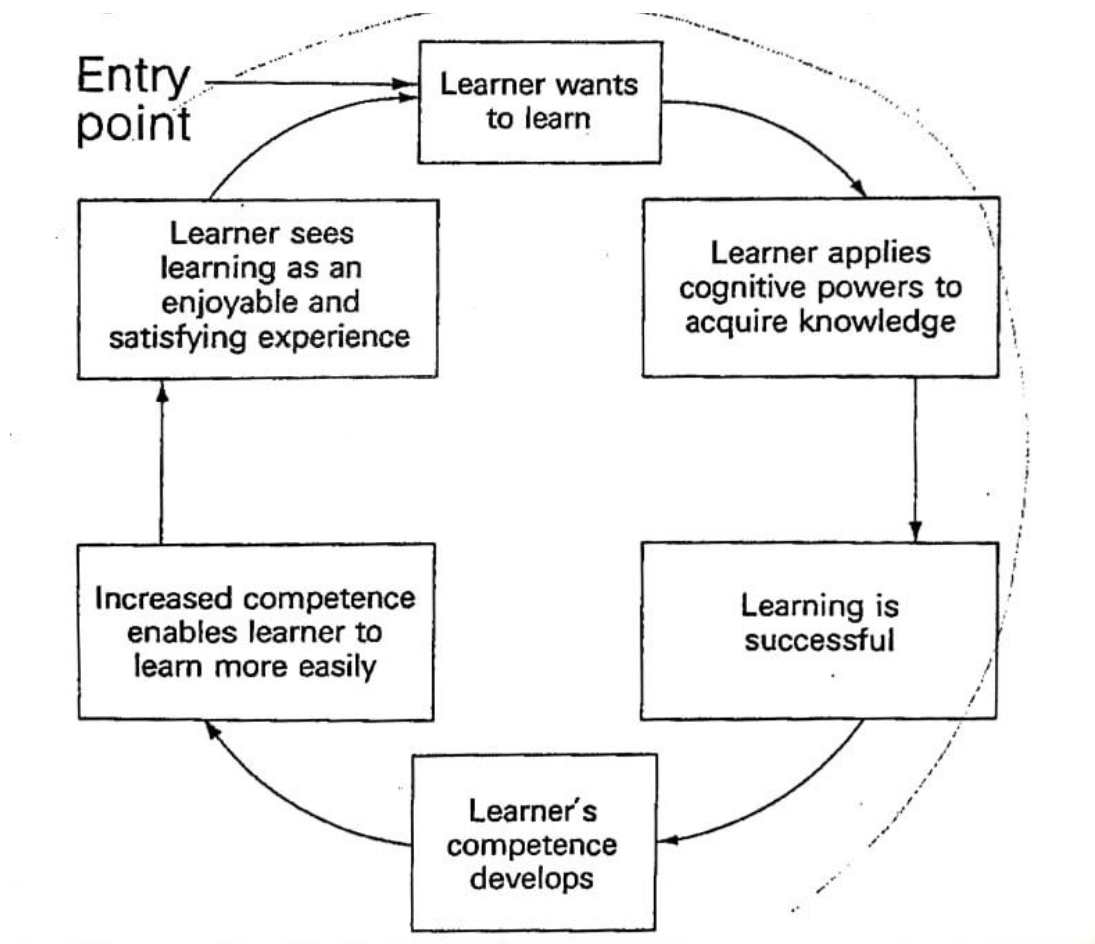
Note. Reprinted from English for Specific Purposes: A Learner- Centered Approach by T. Hutchinson and A. Waters, 1987, p. 47. Copyright 1987 by Cambridge University Press.

Harvey (1989) disscussed the concept of motivation, both intrinsic and extrinsic, in detail and highlights that internal/ external need ''is a broad motive which makes certain goal attractive and important for the individual, and motivation is the impulse which geneterates the learning activity'' (Javid, 2015, p.21). Many other researchers have stressed that motivation is a key factor for language learning. Brown (1980) maintained that ''it is easy in second language learning to claim that a learner will be successful with the proper motivation'' (p.160). Gardner (2006) asserted that ''students with higher levels of motivation will do better than students with lower levels'' (p.241).

In literature, most of the studies conducted on the area of motivation in languge learning in the Arab and worldwide countries are often related with measuring learners' instrumental and integrative motivation. There exist few studies about the factors that affect learners' motivation. Gorham and Christophel (1992) in a study they conducted to investigate the factors that affect students' motivation in college classes in West Virginia found that the most variable factor was associated with teachers' behaviour while factors such as assessement and choice of testbook are secondary. Mukkatash (1983) stated that students' low English proficiency is linked to several variables including teaching methodologies, learners' demotivaion and the lack of the target language. Dornyei and Otto (1998) conveyed that motivation and demotivation are not stable phenomenon (changeable) and are affected by several learning context variables. Dornyei and Clément (2001) desribed demotivated learners as learners being originally motivated but by the influence of several unfavourable external variables lost their motivation.

2.4 ESP Course Design Components

Hutchinson and Water (1987) viewed that much of the work done by ESP teachers is concerned with designing appropriate courses for various groups of learners ; ''for ESP teacher, course design is often a substantial and important

part of the workload'' (p.21). They assumed that designing a course is ''fundamentally a matter of asking questions in order to provide a reasoned basis for the subsequent processes of syllabus design, material writing, classrooom teaching and evaluation'' (p.21). According to them:

The ESP teacher need to have knowledge about:

1. Why does the student need to learn?

2. Who is going to be involved in the process?

3. Where is the learning to take place?

4. What potential does the place provide?

5. What limitation does the place impose?

6. When is the learning to take place?

7. How much time is available? How it will be distrobuted?

8. What does the learner need to learn? What aspects of

language will be needed and how the will be described ?

9. What level of proficiency must be achieved?

10. What topics areas will need to be covered?

11. How will learning be achieved?

12. What learning theory will undelie the course?

13. What kind of methodology will be employed?

(Hutchinson and Waters,1987, p. 21-22)

Investigating these fundamental questions throughly, Hutchinson and Waters categorised them under three broad areas: language descriptions, theories of learning and needs analysis. They emphasised that the interdependence of the three elements is of great importance in ESP syllabus design.

Figure 2.3

Factors Affecting ESP Course Design
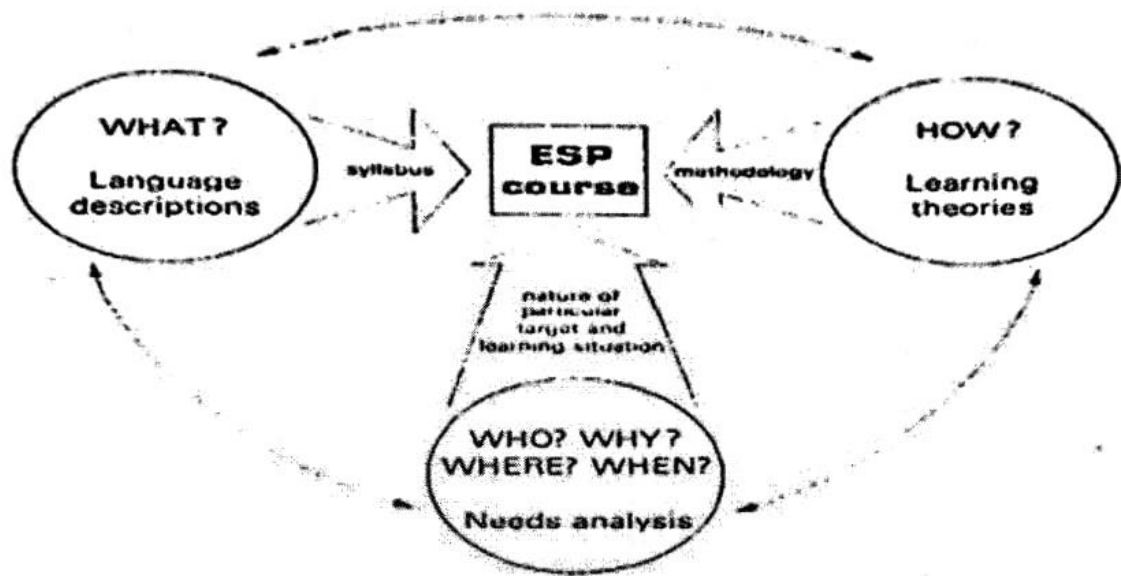
Note. Reprinted from English for Specific Purposes: A Learner- Centered Approach by T. Hutchinson and A. Waters, 1987, p. 22. Copyright 1987 by Cambridge University Press.

2.4.1 Language Descriptions

Any ESP course design is based on concepts about language description or the way in which the language system is analyzed and described for the purpose of learning.   There are various language descriptions that were generated by

succeeding schools of thought and movements in linguistics which have influenced ESP in some way.

2.4.1.1 Classical or Traditional Grammar

Descriptions of English and other languages were based on grammars of classical languages, Greek and Latin. These discriptions focused on the analysis of the grammatical function of each word in the sentence. Thus, the form of the word would change according to wether it was a subject, object, indirect object and so on.

Due to the fact that ESP appeared after the classical form of language description, the effect of traditional grammar on ESP has never been strong enough. However, many linguists still believe that traditional grammar has never stop to provide teachers with indirect source of guidance. In this respect, Allen and Widdowson (1975) stated:

> Teachers who wish to maintain a balanced view of linguistics should
> not overlook the fact that traditional grammar has many useful virtues.
> The traditional handbooks provided an aray of terms and directions
> which most of us used in learning to talk about our own language, and
> which many people continue to find serviceable throughout their lives.
>
> (Cited in Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p. 25)

2.4.1.2 Structural Linguistics

The structural view of language description emerged in 1930 with the advent of structuralism associated with linguists like Leonard Bloomfield.In structural description, the grammar of the language is described in terms of syntagmatic structures which carry the fundamental propositions (statement, interrogative,

negative, imperative, etc) and notions (time, gender, number,etc) (Hutchinson &
Waters, 1987). Sentences with different meaning can be formed by varying
words within these structural frameworks.

This method of linguistic analysis led to the development of substitution table
as a typical means for explaining and practicing grammatical patterns which is
widely used today in language teaching.

2.4.1.3 Transformational Generative Grammar

The ideas of this trend of language analysis came with the publication of
Noam Chomsky book entitled *Syntactic Structures* in 1957. Chomsky argued that
the structural description of language was too superficial because it only
described the surface structure of language and thus could not explain the
relationships of meaning which were not realized in the surface structure. To
explain this case , Hutchinson and Waters (1987) used the following examples:

• John is easy to please.

• John is eager to please.

From a structural point of view, the two sentences indicate the same
relationship between the words in the sentences. But for Chomsky, the
relationship is not the same. In the first sentence, John is the receiver of pleasing
while in the second sentence, he is the doer of the act of pleasing.

Chomsky argued that language should not be described in isolation from the
human mind producing it. Thus, in language there are two levels of meaning:
deep level (performance) that is concerned with the organization of thoughts, and
surface level (compentance) which is concerned with the syntax of the language.

In the early stages of its development, ESP puts most emphasis on describing
the performance needed for communication in the target language; little attention
was paid to competence underlying it.

The previous descriptions to language were criticized for considering language only from the point of view form. Language should also be looked at from function point of view. Language does not exist for its own sake. People use it to do things with it: to give information, to promise, to threaten, to make excuses, etc. This gave birth to the concept of communicative competence led by some socioliguists as Dell Hymes who maintained that competence consists not only of grammatical rules to formulate correct sentences but also a knowledge of when to speak, when not , what to talk about, with whom, when, where, in what manner, etc. The concept of communicative competence led to the development of the next three stages in language description.

2.4.1.4 Language variation and Register Analysis

Language varies according to the context of use. Thus, it is possible to identify the kind of language associated with a specific context such as an area of knowledge (medical English, legal English, business English, etc) or an area of use (academic texts, business meetings, doctor patient communication, etc). As a result, much of ESP research was based on identifying the formal characteristics of various registers to be used as the basis for the selection of syllabus items.

2.4.1.5 Functional / Notional Grammar

 Before exposing the ideas of this view to language description, it seems necessary to clarify the difference between the terms functional and notional which are frequently confused. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) explained that functions are concerned with the social behaviour or what the human intends to do with language, for example, advising, warning, describing, etc (communication acts). Notions, on the other hand, reflect the way the human mind thinks. Notions such as: time, gender, number, quantity, etc.

 In contrast to structural syllabus which is based on only form, the functional/ notional syllabus is based on language use. The influence of the functional/

notional view of language was very strong on ESP in the 1970s. However, it also has its drawbacks. According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987), "it suffers in particular form a lack of any kind of systematic conceptual framework, and as such does not help the learners to organise their knowledge of the language " (p.32).

2.4.1.6 Discourse Analysis

This view of language description focuses on how meaning is generated between sentences. The context is important in creating meaning.

To make explicit the principles of this view, Hutchinson and Waters (1987) introduced the following examples:

1) -Can I go out? (a child asking his parents)

    -It is raining.

2) -Have you cut the grass yet? (a husband addressing his wife)

    -It is raining.

3) -I think I will go out

In the three situations, the propositional meaning (statement) is the same. The notions are the same (present time, 1st person singular). But the sentence is fulfilling three different communicative purposes.

In the first example, the child is asking permission to go out. The parent's reply "it is raining." acts as a refusal of the request. In the second example, the statement "it is raining." acts   as a reason or an excuse. In the third example, it acts as an advice. The meaning of the same sentence changes with different context. The change of meaning is influenced by the sociolinguistic context (who is speaking to whom and why), the relationship between the participant in the dialogue and their reason for speaking.

Discourse analysis had an enormous influence on ESP teaching materials aimed at developing learners' knowledge of how sentences are combined in texts in order to produce particular meaning. Text diagramming excercises were used as a means of instruction.

2.4.2 Theories of Learning

A number of experts believe that success in English mastery in ESP comes from the students themselves. No matter how perfect teachers design ESP programs, curriculum and teaching materials, they should never neglect the way their students learn a language. Different theories have been established about how people learn a language. It is interesting to note that learning theories are dynamic. Although these theoris change over time, they complement each other.

2.4.2.1 Behaviourism

Proposed and developed by Pavlov and Skinner, behaviourism is a theory that considers language to be learned as a behaviour or habit. This theory believes that behaviour change occurs because of the repetition process between stimulus and response sequences. A stimulus is given; the response is what happens next. This theory argues that even complex actions can be broken down into stimulus-response. According to this theory, a language is merely repeated model of a targed language. It had a great impact on learning psychology and on language teaching. It provided the theoretical base underlying the audio lingual approach which was widely used in the 1950s and 1960s. This method is based firstly on the behaviourist stimulus- response concept and secondly on the assumption that second language learning should reflect and imitate the perceived processes of mother tongue learning. Some of its principles are:

• No translation is allowed.

• Frequent repetition is essential for effective learning.

• All errors must be immediately corrected.

• New language should be dealt with in the sequence: listen, speak, read and write.

Drills were the basic exercise technique to practice language patterns. Such drills are still widely used in modern ESP textbooks. However, authers have tried to provide a meaningful context for the drills.

2.4.2.2 Cognitivism

   While behaviourists believe that language is essentially acquired through a process of stimulus-response, cognitivists argue that language is not just a learned habit devoid of creativity. They posit that humans are endowed with language acquisition device (LAD) which enables them to learn languages and use them creatively. Language learners do not just imitate what they hear but constantly use their mental abilities to think and creatively manipulate language. Learners are seen as active processors of information. According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987):

> Learning, then, is a process in which the learner actively tries to
>
> make sense of the data, and learning can be said to have taken
>
> place when the learner has managed to impose some sort of
>
> meaningful interpretation or pattern on the data. (p.45)

Problem solving tasks are the basic teaching technique associated with the cognitive theory of language learning. The cognitive theory had a significant empact on the development of ESP courses; especially, in teaching reading strategies.

2.4.2.3 The Affective Factor

According to this theory, the affective aspects have the functions of stimulating, motivating and affecting the human cognition (brain). The intellectual behaviours such as perception, imagination and thinking belong to the operation system of cognitive activities. The state of these cognitive activities is influenced by affective factors. Affective factors include emotions such as: motivation, self confidence, anxiety and so on. Therefore, learners' feelings and emotions play a substantial role in determining the success or failure of learning process. Negative emotions prevent efficient processing of language, and on the contrary, positive emotions promote the efficiency of the process (Ni, 2012). Arnold (2000) argued that "attention to affective factors can lead to more effective language learning'' (p.2). That's why, ESP teachers should not neglect their learners' affective factors and make their classes a comfortable place for learning.

2.4.3 Needs Analysis

According to Dudley Evans and St John (1998), "needs analysis is the corner stone of ESP and leads to a very focused course" (p. 122). Thus, any ESP course should be based on the analysis of learners' needs.

2.4.3.1 Definition of Needs Analysis

A number or scholars and researchers have defined the term 'needs' differently. Brindley (1984) used the term to refer to learners' "wants, desires, demands, expectations, motivations, lacks, constraints and requirements" (p.28). Richterich (1972) stated that "a need does not exist independent of a person. It is people who build their images of their needs on the basis of data relating to themselves and their environment" (p. 29). Richards and Platt (1992) defined needs analysis as "the process of determining the needs for which a learner or a group of learners acquires a language" (p. 242). Nunan (1988), on the other hand,

described it as " a family of procedures for gathering information about learners and about communication tasks" (p.75).

Some other authors made a distinction between the terms "needs analysis" and "needs assessment", which are often used interchangeably.They claimed that assessment involves obtaining data ;whereas, analysis involves assigning value to those data (Graves, 1996). Hutchinson and Waters (1987) maintain that finding out the needs of the learner involves finding out his target and learning needs. Target needs nclude the necessties, lacks and wants of the learner while learning needs look at the route to achieving these needs.

2.4.3.2The Role of Needs Analysis in ESP Course

According to Brindley (1989), needs analysis should be the starting point of any course design. He argued:

> If instruction is to be centred on learners and relevant to their purposes,
>
> then information about their current and desired interaction patterns and
>
> their perceived difficulties is clearly helpful in establishing program goals
>
> which in turn can be translated into learning objectives. (p.63)

Brindley stated that needs analysis is essential in two different ways: as a guide in setting broad goals and secondly, as a guide in the learning process. ESP is a learner- centred approach; the ESP teachers should continuously seek information from their learners about what they want or need to study during the course and based on learners' feedback, they can make changes in their courses to adjust the learning goals. Savage and Storer (1992) claimed that learners can

contribute sunbtantially to the course if thay are in all stages of course development: at the initial, during and at final stages of course evaluation.

According to Hawkey (1980), needs analysis helps the course designer to make specifications about the course content (language skills, functions and forms). Language needs of the learner should be the bases for course development. Jordan (1997) also stressed the importance of needs analysis for designing syllabus, course materials and classroom activities.

Schutz and Derwin (1981) argued that a detailed analysis of the situation of language use is a pre-requisite for the selection of the linguistic forms and structures to be taught. They reported that failure of a number of language programs was due to not considering the actual use the learner intended to make of the language or because the list of uses drawn up by the course designer was based on imagination rather than an objective assessment of the learner's situation. Bowers (1980) stated that any language teaching project must reflect the language needs and wishes of the learners concerned and accord with a responsible theory of language learning. Therefore, needs analysis should be seen as indispensable aspect of ESP course design in order to make the ESP course meaningful for the learners and keep them engaged.

2.4.3.3 Sources for Needs Analysis

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) stated that a variety of sources can be consulted to obtain data for needs analysis. Long (2005) suppoted this view, according to him, "multiple of sources should always be employed, both because they add breath to the analysis and because triangulation of sources offers an important means of validating data" (p.63). West (1994) suggested the needs analysis triangle in which needs should be identified from three major sources: learners, teachers and company employers for the three parties cooperate interactively. Long (2005) adds to the triangle domain experts and literature. West (1994) also

named other sources that can be consulted such as former students and those working in the target situation.

Jordan proposed a variety of data collecting methods can be used in needs analysis including advance documentation, language test at home, language test on entry, self assessment (by students), observation and monitoring, class progress tests, surveys (questionnaires), structured interviews, learner diaries, case studies, final tests, evaluation/feedback, follw-up investigation and previous research. Hutchinson & Waters (1987) cited fewer methods for needs analysis data gathering as questionnaires, interviews, observations, data collection (by which the authors meant gathering texts) and consultations with learners and sponsers. However, according to them, the decision of what type of data to collect and what methods to use is subject to availability of time and resources to conduct needs analysis.

2.4.3.4 Approaches to Needs Analysis

Dudley Evans and St John (1998) suggested the following needs analysis approaches:

2.4.3.4.1 Target Situation Analysis (TSA)

Target situation analysis reveals what the learner needs to know in order to function effectively in the target situation. Richards (2002) defined target situation as:

> The situation or setting in which the student will have to use the
> target language. This may be a study or work situation or any
> context in which the learner needs to use the language. Analysis
> of the communicative and linguistic demands of the target
> situation is essential phase in needs analysis (p.539)

The target situation consists of a range of techniques that are used for the analysis of communication variables such as participants, setting, target levels, aims and purposes, interaction, instrumentality, dialect, etc, which are organized as parameters and dynamically interrelated. These parameters can be applied to any group of learners (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987).

This approach aims to evaluate the language structures, functions, tasks, processes and linguistic information that learners should acquire in order to communicate successfully in the target environment.

2.4.3.4.2 Present Situation Analysis (PSA)

Present situation analysis examines how the learners' level is at the start of their language course. Robinson (1991) stated that "PSA seeks to establish what the students are like at the beginning of their course, investigating their strengths

and weakness" (p.9).

The ESP practitioner seeks information regarding their language, skills and learning experiences. According to Songhori (2008), an effective needs analysis should involve both TSA and PSA in order to suit the requirements of learners and achieve the intended goals.

2.4.3.4.3 Learning Situation Analysis (LSA)

This approach seeks to identify the methods and strategies that learners use to acquire knowledge. Accordingly, the HOW is more than important than the WHAT. ESP teachers should provide their learners with the required learning skills to meet the goals of the learning process while taking into account their varying levels and keep them engaged.

2.4.3.4.4 Means Analysis

Means analysis is concerned with identifying the constraints and circumstances in which the course will be delivered. It considers "what realistically the ESP course and teacher can offer" (Basturkmen, 2010, p.19). Frendo (2005) proposed the following list of points to be taken into consideration when conducting means analysis:

• Facilities (rooms, seating, location).

• Equipment (boards, flipcharts, cameras, projectors).

• Time available to design the course and prepare materials.

• Time available for training.

• Availability or teaching materials.

• Time of the day that learners will be available.

2.5 Approaches to ESP Course Design

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) identified three main approaches to course design : language-centered approach, skill-centerd approach and learning-centered approach.

2.5.1 Language-centred Approach

This approach is based on making a direct connection between the analysis of the target situation and content of the ESP course. As it is described by Hutchinson and Waters (1987), it proceeds by identifying learners' target situation and selecting in parallel theoretical views about the language and hence identifying the linguistic features of the target situation. Then, creating a syllabus and designing materials to exemplify syllabus items. The final step in this approach is evaluation procedures to test the aquisition of syllabus items.

Figure 2.4

A Language-centred Approach to Course Design
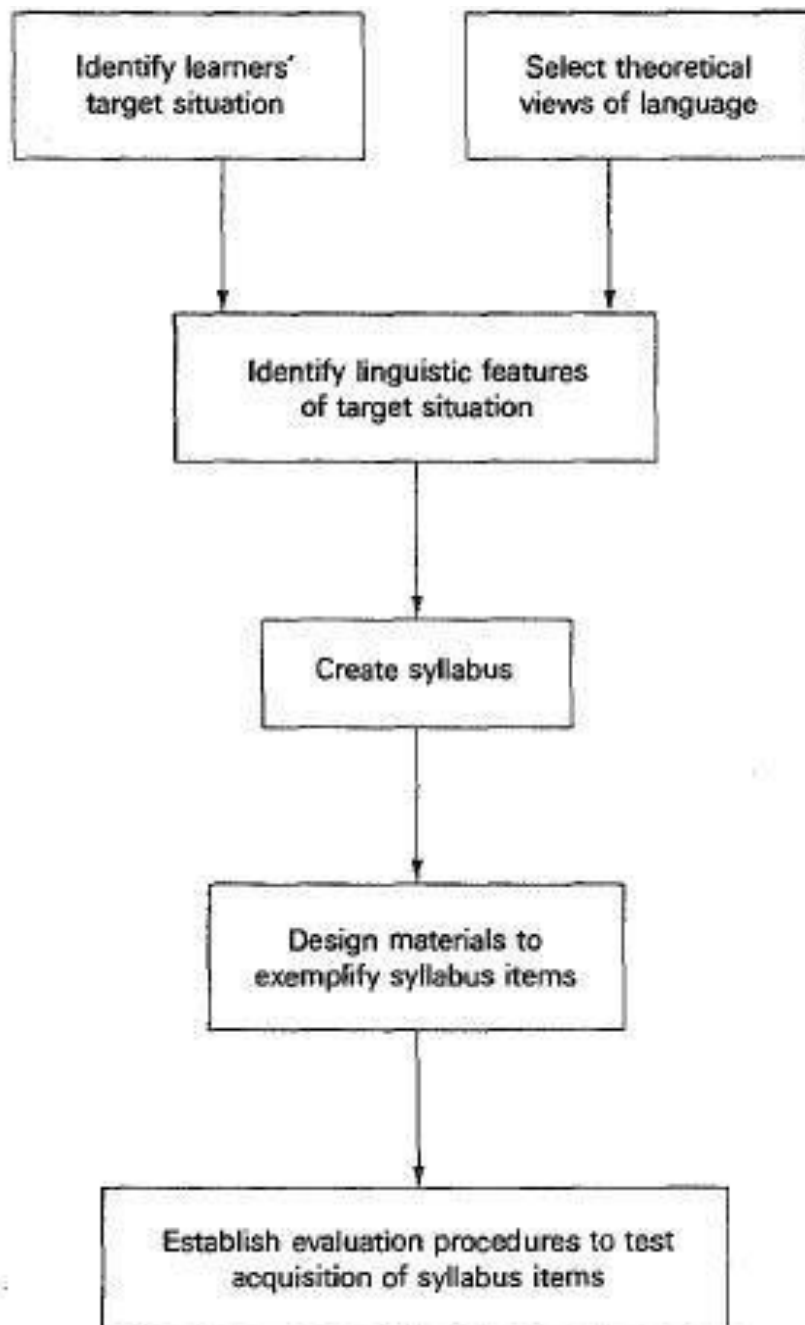
*Note. Reprinted from English for Specific Purposes: A Learner- Centered
Approach by* T. Hutchinson and A. Waters, 1987, p. 66. Copyright 1987 by
Cambridge University Press.

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) noted that language-centred approach may be seen as a logical process that starts from the identification of the learners' target situation to materials design and evaluation procedures. However, it is criticised of being straightforward process which contradicts the fact of learning and learners' thinking which cannot be always straightforward and logical. Basturkmen (2010) also criticised it for producing a systematic learning in the learner by basing it on the systematic analysis and presentation of linguistic data characterising a certain type of specialised discourse. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) pointed out a number of weaknesses to language-centred approach :

• The learning needs of the students are not accounted for at all. It is therefore learner-centred but learner-restricted.

• The language-centred approach analysis of target situation data is only at the surface level. It reveals very little about competence that underlies the performance.

• The language-centred approach is a static and inflexible procedure which contradicts with the nature of needs analysis which is an ongoing process and authentic one that should never be static.

• It gives no acknoledgment to factors playing a part in the creation of course like the types of texts chsen to be included in the course ; forexample, texts may be boring to students.

2.5.2 Skills-centred Approach

Unlike language-centred course design which is criticised for the surface data that gathers and analyses, the skills-centred approach aims ''to get away from the surface performance and looks at the conpetencies that underlies the performance'' (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p.67). It is based on two fundamental principles, one theoretical and the other pragmatic.

The basic theoretical hypothesis is that underlying any language behaviour, there are certain skills and strategies that the learner uses in order to comprehend or produce a discourse. Therefore, a skill-centred course ''presents its learning objectives (through probably not explictly) in terms of both performance and cmpetence'' (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987, p. 69). The other pragmatic basis derives from a distinction made by Widdowson (1983) between goal oriented courses and process oriented courses (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987).

Holmes (1982)   stressed upon the narrow understanding of needs as involving only the target situation necesities. If the ESP course is designed in terms of goals, a large number of students will fail in their ESP course. He emphasized that ESP course and the target situation ''are seen as a continuum of constantly developing degrees of proficiency with no cut-off point of success or failure'' (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987, p. 70). The emphasis in the ESP course is not on achieving a particular set of goals but on enabling the learners to achieve what they can within the given constraints. Holmes (1982) added:

> The process oriented approach … is at least realistic on
>
> concentrating on strategies and processes of making students
>
> aware of their own abilities and potential, and motivating them
>
> to takle target texts on their own after the end of the course, so
>
> they can continue to improve.
>
> (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987, p. 70)

The skill centred approach goes beyond the constraints of learning imposed by limited time and resources. It aims to help learners to develop skills and strategies which will continue to develop after the end of the course itself. It is

not to provide a specific corpus of linguistic knowledge but to make the learners
better processers of information (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987).

Figure 2.5

 Skills-centred Approach to Course Design
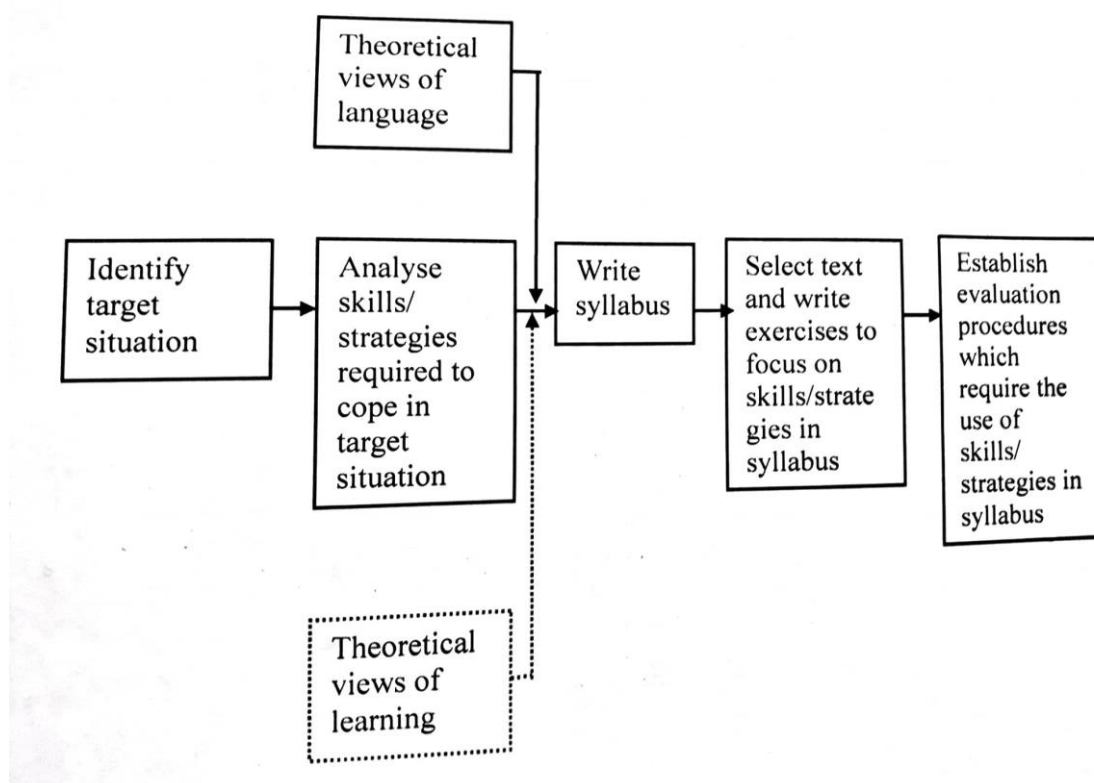
*Note. Reprinted from English for Specific Purposes: A Learner- Centered
Approach by* T. Hutchinson and A. Waters, 1987, p. 71. Copyright 1987 by
Cambridge University Press.

The skill centred approach proceeds by identifying the target situation and analysing the skills and strategies required in the target situation, also gathering theoretical views of both language and learning. The next step is writing the syllabus selecting texts and writing exercises that focusing on skills and strategies in the syllabus. The last step involves establishing procedures that require the use of skills and strategies in the syllabus.

Hutchinson and Waters   criticised the skill centred approach for the processes it is concerned with are the processes of language use not of language learning.

2.5.3 Learning-centred Approach

This approach is also referred to as a learner centred approach. Hutchinson and Waters explained that they favour the term learning centred approach to indicate that the concern is to maximise learning, the learner is one factor in the learning process but not the only one. They stated:

> Learning is not just a mental process, it is a process of
> negociation between individuals and society. Society sets
> the target (in the case of ESP, performance in the target
> situation) and the individuals must do their best to get as
> close to that target as is possible (or reject it). The learners
> will certainly determine their own route to the target and
> the speed at which they travel the route, but that does not
> make the target unimportant. (p.72)

Hence, in learning centred approach to course design, the ESP learning situation and the target situation both influence the nature of the syllabus, materials,

methodology and evaluation procedures. Each of these components will influence and be influenced by the others. Course design is seen as a dynamic process. It does not proceed in a linear fashion from initial analysis to completed course. Needs analysis is ongoing process, needs and resources vary with time to enable the course to respond to developments.

Figure 2.6

A Learning-centred Approach to Course Design
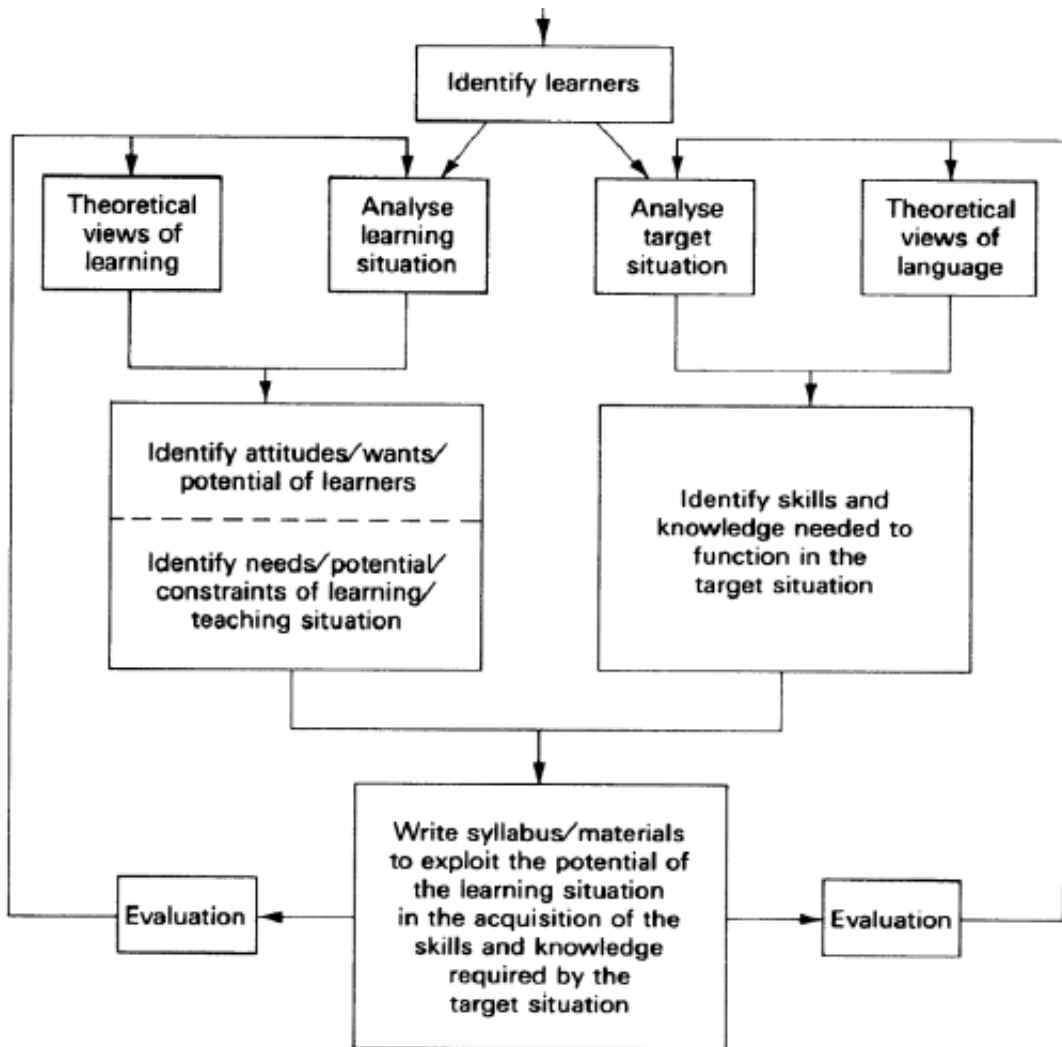
Note. Reprinted from English for Specific Purposes: A Learner- Centered Approach by T. Hutchinson and A. Waters, 1987, p. 74. Copyright 1987 by Cambridge University Press.

The learning centred approach depends on a thruogh and deep needs analysis for the learners and their target situation and gathering theoretical views of both language and learning. This will result in identifying attitudes/ wants of the potential learners and also the skills they need to function in the target situation. At the same time this approach does not neglect identifying the constraints of learning and teaching situations. The next step is writing the syllabus and preparing materials to exploit the potential of the learning situation in the aquisition of the skills and knowledge required by the target situation. Unlike language centred and skill centred approaches, evaluation in learning centred approach is not considered as a final step. Rather it is ongoing prcess that occurs both before and after the writing of the syllabus.

2.6 Processes of ESP Course Design

In the last few decades, there has been a tremendous concern for teaching English for specific purposes. This concern ''is based on the awareness percieved regarding the learners' needs and concerning what to do with the target language, rather than with what the linguistic elements the learner needs to master'' (Omer Hajana & Ali Adam, 2015, p. 3868). People need to learn English for different vocational, accademic and other professional purposes (Mackay and Mountford, 1978). Therefore, teachers need to select materials which closely fit the aim of the learner. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) maintained that ESP is ''an approach to language teaching in which all descisions as to content and method are based on the learner's reason for learning'' (p.20). Needs analysis is one major factor that differenciates ESP from other language teaching. It ''is considered as one of the key stages in ESP, the others being the syllabus design, selection and production of materials, teaching and learning and evaluation'' (Dudley Evans and St John 1998, p.21). In the following sections, these key elements necessary for any ESP program will be discussed in more detail .

2.6.1 Needs Analysis

Several scholars and authers (Coffey, 1984 ; Dudley Evans and St John, 1998 ; Hutchinson and Water, 1987 ; Munby, 1978 ; Robinson, 1991 ; Strevens, 1977) have agreed on the centrality of needs analysis as the starting point for any course design, and it is of utmost importance for ESP (Wu, 2012).Brindly (1989) regarded needs analysis as ''a vital pre-requisite to the specification of language learning objectives" (p.63). Johns (1991) also described needs analysis as the first step in curriculum for it can provide validity and relevancy for all the follow up curriculum design activities. Some authors distinguished between the terms needs analysis and needs assessment, which are often used interchangeably, claiming that assessment involves obtaining data ;whereas, analysis involves assigning value to those data (Graves, 1996).

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) maintained that finding out the needs of the learner involves finding out his target and learning needs. Target needs nclude the necessties, lacks and wants of the learner while learning needs look at the route to achieving these. Learning needs examine how the learner achieves his learning goals.   Jordan (1997) described target and learning needs as goal-oriented and process-oriented needs respectively. Widdowson in Robinson (1991) uses the terms objective and subjective needs. Brindly (1989) defined narrow or product-oriented needs as a situation '' whereby the learner's needs are seen solely in terms of the language they will have to use in a particular communication situation ; the 'broad or process-oriented needs' he described as need in terms of the learning situation'' (p.65).

Basturkmen (2010) maintained that the task of needs analysis can be conducted both before the courses are set up and when they are running. Pre-course needs analysis determines the language, skills and methods to be used in an ESP course and confine its content, and ongoing-needs analysis helps the course develper to refine the ESP course.

According to Nitu (2002), needs analysis facilitates the descision of the content and form of the course. It gives answers for four main questions about the ESP course design : who (target learners), why (their reasons for attending the ESP course), where (the location of the ESP course) and when (the duration and frequency of the ESP courses). Moreover, it determines the skills needed in the target situation inorder to develop learners' skills to communicate effectively.

Needs analysis involves ''compiling information both on the individual or groups of individuals who are to learn a language and on the use which they are expected to make of it when they have learned it'' (Richterich, 1983, p. 2)

2.6.1.1 Target Situation Analysis

Target situation analysis seeks to determine the set of situations where learners will have to use the English language. It focuses ''on the needs students have before the course starts and allows determining students' goals'' (Belyaeva, 2015, p. 77). Hutchinson and Waters (1987) suggested conducting needs analysis by considering necesities, lacks and wants.

2.6.1.1.1 Necessities

Necessities refer to 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. It is a matter of observing what situations the learner will need to function in and then analysing the constituent parts (the linguistic features, discoursal, functional, structural, lexical) of them .

2.6.1.1.2 Lacks

Lacks are what learners are deficient in i.e. what they ignore or cannot perform in English. Subsequently lacks are the gaps between the initial or actual situation of the learners in terms of language proficiency or apptitudes, and the one which is required after the accomplishment of the language training.

2.6.1.1.3 Wants

Wants refer to the learners' personal expectations and hopes towards acquiring English i.e. what they would like to gain from the language course.

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) presented an analysis framework which includes a set of questions that the course designer needs to ask to collect information about the target situation and the attitudes of the learners in the learning process.

Why is the language needed?

-for study;

-for work;

-for training;

-for combination of these;

-for some other purpose, e.g. status, examination, promotion.

How will the language be used?

-medium:speaking, writing, reading, etc;

-channel: telephone, face to face;

Types of text or discourse: e.g. academic texts, lectures, informal

conversations, technical manuals, catalogues.

What will the content areas be?

-subjects: e.g. medicine, biology, architecture, shipping, commerce,

engineering;

-level: e.g. technician, craftsman, postgraduate, secondary school.

Who will the learner use the language with?

-native speakers or non-native;

-level of knowledge of receiver: expert, layman, student;

-relationship: e.g. colleague, teacher, customer, superior, subordinate.

Where will the language be used?

-physical setting: e.g. office, lecture theature, hotel, workshop,

library;

-human context: e.g. alone, meetings, demonstrations, on telephone;

- linguistic context: e.g. in own country, abroad.

When will the language be used?

-concurrently with the ESP course or subsequently;

-frequently, seldom, in small amounts, in large chunks. (p. 59-60)

2.6.1.2 Gathering Information about Learners

According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987), a relevant needs analysis of the target situation can reveal what the learners need, but it is not suficient ; in ESP context, the question how will the learners learn is of cental importance. Many problems occur in ESP classes as a result of teachers' neglect of students' interests. Thus, it is crucial to consider learners as a source of essential information to achieve an efficient course. Ellis and Johnson (1994) opined that it is workable to gather information about the factors which affect learners' response to training, motivation and learning potential. These factors might include knowing learners' general personal data : sex, nationality, mother tongue, culture, their views about language learning and learning style, their educational background as well as their language learning experience.

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) emphasised that ESP has less to do with linguistics and everything to do with psychology. They underlied that learners apply various skills, various learning strategies and different learning schemata and are motivated by different needs and interests.

All Wright (1982) as qouted in in West (1994) stated that ''the investigation
of learners' preferred learning styles and strategies gives us a picture of the
learners' conception of learning'' (p.28)

Robinson (1991) affirmed that it is necessary to take into consideration
learners' type, cultural awareness and proficiency level in English to provide the
learners with the appropriate knowledge.

Needs analysis is carried out to establish the what and the how of the course
is the first stage in ESP course development, followed by curriculum design,
materials selection, teaching methodology, assessment and evaluation. Dudley
Evans and St John (1998) argued that these stages should not be seen as separate,
processing in a linear fashion. Rather, they are interdependent overlaping
activities.They illustrated the stages in ESP process through a syclical
representation diagram showing how needs analysis is often ongoing feeding
back into various stages.

Figure 2.7

Linear VS Cyclical Processes of Needs Analysis
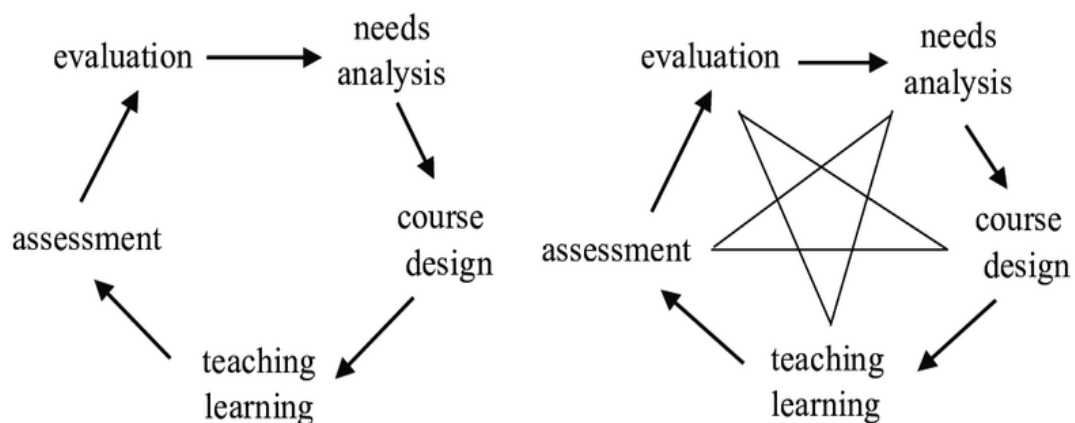
*Note. Reprinted from Developments in English for Specific Purposes : A Multi
Disciplinary Approach by T. Dudley- Evans and M. St John , 1998, p.121.
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West (1997) used the metaphor of a journey to describe the need analysis process (Ahmed, 2014). He presented a cmprehensive description of needs analysis process involving the following areas :

-Target situation analysis : identification of tasks, activities and

skills learners are/ will be using English for ; what learners

should ideally know and be able to do.

-Discourse analysis : descriptions of language used above.

-Present situation analysis : identification of what the learners do

 and do not know and can or cannot do in ralation to the demands

of the target situation.

-Learner factor analysis : identification of learner factors such as

their motivation, how they learn and their perceptions of their

needs.

-Teaching context analysis : identification of factors related to

the environment in which the course will run. Consideration of

what realistically the ESP course and the teacher can offer.

(cited in Ahmed, 2014, p.28)

2.6.2 Specifying Goals and Objectives

After needs identification, the teacher or course designer moves ahead to specify the goals and objectives of the course i.e. what is wanted from the course and why the learners attend the course. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) emphasised that goals and objectives are the outcomes of needs analysis. Brindly (1989) stated that needs analysis is ''a vital pre-requisite to the specification of language learning objectives'' (p.63). Haddam (2015) noted that it is important to

have clear and adequate goals and objectives of a course on which the remaining steps are set up.

According to Graves (1996), course should have goals and objectives which indicate the outcomes of the course and make them achievable. Goals are related to the acquisition of a job in the future or communication of the target language community (Harmer, 1991). They should not aim only at the acquisition of certain knowledge and skills but also at development of a positive attitude towards language and culture. Xenodohidis (2006) emphasised that goals should be realistic, otherwise the students would be demotivated. Objectives, on the other hand, are the ways which make the goals of the course arrive to its final destination (Grave, 1996). The ways refer to activities, skills, language type or combination of them all (Harmer, 1991). Nunan (1988) argued that objectives should be congruent to the goals and relevant to how the teacher cnceptualiize the content of the course.

Designing on the right goals and objectives of a coourse is related to several factors : learners' needs, policies of institutiions and the content of the course. Stern (1992) in Grave (1996) proposed five types of goals : cooognitive goals, proficiency goals, affective goals and transfer goals which contribute in the development of learners' awareness and attitudes as well as the language and skills.

In his book, Nunan (1988) gaves a clear description of how objectives might be set. Depending on what is learned, the desired objectives may sound like the following : ''students will learn that ….'', ''students will be aware of ….'', ''students will develop the ability to….'', ''students will know how…'', etc. Objectives may also be stated in terms of what students will do in the course. Saphier and Gower (1987) in Graves (1996) listed five kinds of objectives all interrelated:

> 1. Coverage objectives articulate what will be covered.

Example : We will cover the first five units of the course

book.

2. Activity objectives articulate what the students will do.

Examples : students will write six different kinds of

paragraphs. Students will do paragraph development

exercices.

3. Involvement objectives articulate how to maximize student

Involvement and interest. Examples : Students will engage in

discussions about which paragraphs they like best. Students

will brainstorm lists of interesting topics to write about.

4. Mastery objectives articulate what students will be able to

do as a result of their time in class. Example : Students will

be able to write interesting paragraph that contains a topic

sentence and supporting details.

5. Critical thinking objectives articulate which laerning skills

students will develop. Example : Students will be able to

determine characteristics of a good paragraph and say why

they think a paragraph is good. (p.18-19)

Nitu (2002) acknowledged that the elictation of learners' general and specific objectives of ESP courses is a crucial stage that helps the course designers to have a clear idea about what the course is going to be about. Ellis and Jonson (1994) described course objectives as ''the goals of a course in English, as indicated by the needs analysis and expressed in terms of what the learner should be able to do'' (p.221).

Accordingly, learners' needs and objectives in learning the language are the main part in course objectives. Thus, it is of a paramount importance to plan an appropriate course that suits the target group in terms of their abilities.

2.6.3 Conceptualizing the Content

Conceptualizing or determining the content of a course that is choosing and analysing the necessary content related to the needs analysis and the goals and objectives is another basic element in ESP design. Sysoyev (2000) pointed out that the content of ESP courses focuses on developing basic skills, communication competence, vocabulary awareness, etc.

According to Basturkmen (2010), the language content is the essence of any ESP course design. The main focus of any course design is to enable learners to be aware of the languge used in the specailist field or target discourse community and communicate effectively wiithin it. To this effect, course designers and teachers conduct several investigations based on three approaches to describe the specialist discourse: ethnography, genre anlysis and corpus analysis. The language content of ESP courses is mainly characterised by being detailed, accurate and offer realistic descriptions of how language is acctually used in a given area.

Dudley Evans and St John (1998) distinguished two types of course content : real content and carrier content. Real content denotes pedagogical aims including language features and skills that the learners want to master. Carrier content denotes the means by which real content is dellivered such as texts and activities. Carrier content plays a central role in enriching learners' voccabulary within the specialist area.

Reilly (1998) in Xenodohidis (2006) gave practical guidelines to content choice and design. Accrding to Reilly the course developer needs to:

• Define what the students should be able to do as a result of the instruction.

• Rank the syllabi in order of importance according to the desired outcomes.

• Evaluate available resurces and match them with the syllabi.

• Designate one or two syllabi as dominant.

• Review how combination and integration of syllabus types can be achieved and in what proportion and translate decisions into actual teaching units.

2.6.4 Material Production

Material writing is a fact of life for a large number of ESP teachers (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). In ESP teaching situation appropriate materials are most of the time not available. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) acknowledged that ''it is likely that a course tailered to the needs of specific group of learners will not be availble'' (p. 106). Therefore, a large amount of the ESP teachers' time maybe taken up in writing materials (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987).

The ESP teacher has to devise materials that fit the specific subject area of learner so that they can percieve the relation between the course content and their needs. The production of such materials and suitable activities is not an easy task since the ESP teacher is niether a subject specialist nor a material writer; besides, few teachers have had any training in the techniques and skills of materials production (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987).

The ESP learner needs to acquire the linguistic repertoire and to handle the cmmunicative acts related to the field he/ she is studying or will be working in. That is why, Basturkmen (2010) maintained that it is workable to use authentic materials in instruction. Authentic texts make learners aware of language use. In case these materials make learners face difficulties, she suggested that it would be useful to adapt, edit or create new suitable materials by course developers. Graves (1996) lent support to this, she argued that teaching materials are '' tools that can be figiratively cut up into component pieces and then rearranged to suit the needs, abilities and interests of the students in the course'' (p.27). According to Mc Donough (1984), the sources of materials can be :

• Published materials (textbooks, journals, magazines).

•Real speech (lectures, broadcasts, seminars, conversations).

• Simplied and adapted materials from public materials or instances of real speech.

In reality scripts materials are the major tool used by almost all ESP teachers ; however, with the availability of technological supports in accademic settings ''a great number of teachers, nowadays, use many types of language learning vidoes accompanied by course books or workbooks solely for instructional purposes'' (Baleghizadeh & Oladrostem, 2010 as cited in Lamri , 2011, p. 44) targeting at providing authentic simulated situations, intersting and pleasent activities to the learners. Baleghizadeh and Oladrostem recommended videos ''as one of the main types of authentic materials, be constantly used in order to contextualize language for students'' (cited in Lamri, 2011, p. 45). According to Harmer (2001), there are a number of reasons why videos should be used : seeing language in use, cross cultural awareness, creative and communicative uses of language and motivation.

Discussing the issue of teacher-generated materials, Hutchinson and Waters (1987) proposed a model which provides a coherent framework for the integration of various aspects of learning : input, content focus, languge focus and task.

a. Input : it may be a text, dialogue, video-recording, diagram or any piece of communication data depending on the needs identified in needs analysis. The input provides the learners with correct models of language use and new language items, helps to develop learners' information processing, skills, gives learners opportunities to use their existing knowledge of both the language and the subject matter and stimulates communication in the classroom .

b. Content focus : ''language is not an end itself, but a means of conveying information and feeling about something. Non-linguistic content should be

exploited to generate meaningful communication in the classroom'' (ibid 109).
The content should be relevant to the learners' professional needs and personal
interests.

c. Language focus : the ultimate aim of the course is to enable learners have the
chance to breake the language into pieces, study how it works and practice
putting it back together.

d. Task : the materials designed should lead towards a communicative task in
which learners use the content and language they have learned.

These four elements are combined in the model as follows:

Figure 2.8

A Material Design Model
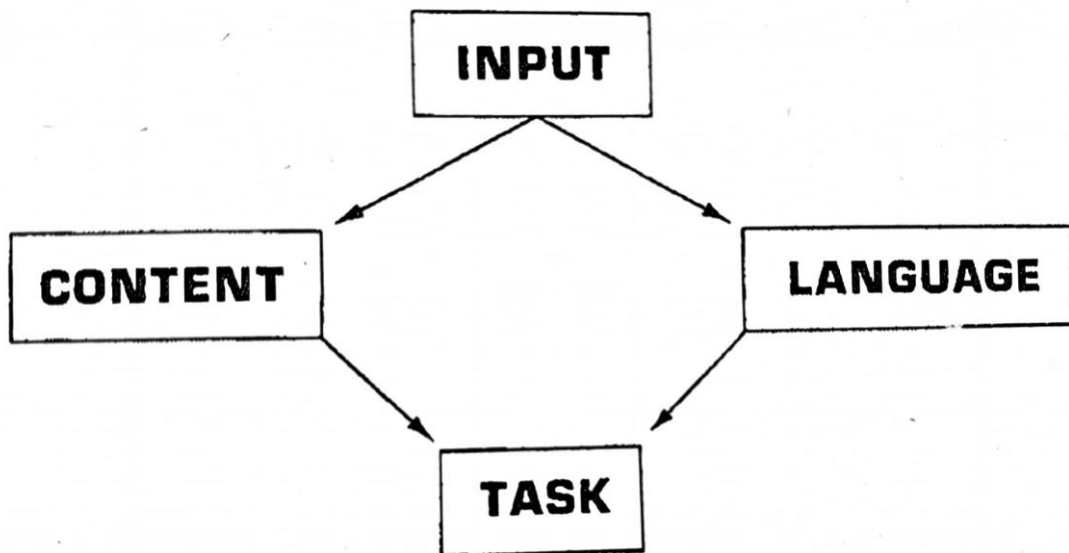
*Note. Reprinted from English for Specific Purposes: A Learner- Centered
Approach by* T. Hutchinson and A. Waters, 1987, p. 109. Copyright 1987 by
Cambridge University Press.

Hyland (2006) stated that though materials development process can vary widely, depending on local circumstances, it typically begins with the identified needs for materials, e.g. students require further practice in a particular area which is followed by the teacher exploring a given area in order to gain a better understanding of the particular skills or features involved. Next, an appropriate input source is located, e.g. a text or video and exploited to design interesting and credible activities or tasks that relate to   learners' target needs. After being used in the classroom, the materials are evaluated for their success in meeting the needs identified at the oneset of the materials design process, typically through teacher's judgment or learners' questionnaires.

Wallace (1992) suggestd the following criteria when selecting ESP materials:

• Adequacy: the selected materials should contain appropriate language and information about the course.

• Motivation: they should present interesting content in order to help students be active and work hard to understand better.

• Sequence: there must be a relation to prevoious texts, activities and topics not to miss the sense of a lesson.

• Diversity: the selected material should lead to a range of classroom activities, be a vehicle for teaching specific language structure and voccabulary and promote strategies.

• Acceptability: it should contain acceptable cultural customs and language.

2.6.5 Course Planning

Course planning or organizing course content, also known as sequencing or grading is very important, since it provides the teacher and students with a clear idea of what will be taught (Xenodohidis, 2006). Grading or sequencing has been defined as the arrangement of the content of a language course or textbook so

that is presented in a helpful way. Gradation would affect the order in which words, word meaning, tenses, structures, topics, functions, skills and so on are presented (Richards, 2006).

Richards (2006) noted that gradation maybe based on the complexity of an item, its frequency in written or spoken English or its importance for the learner. Richards (2001) and Richards and Schimdt (2010) listed a number of principles on which sequencing of content in language teaching courses should be based which include : simple to complex (easier items occur before more difficult ones), chronology (items occur according to the order in which events nuturally occur (e.g. listening before speaking), need (items occur according to when learners are most likely to need them outside the classroom), prerequisite learning (an item is taught because it prvides a foundation for the next step in the learning process), whole to part or part to whole (the overall structure of an item, such as a paragraph may be taught before its components part or vice versa), spiral seuencing (items are recycled but with new aspects of the item appearing with subsequent appearing with subsequent appearances).

According to Graves (1996), there are two principles underlying the concept of sequencing material building and recycling. Building can follow the process of simple to the more complex, from concrete to more open ended, while recycling means that the students deal with previously taught materials in a new way ; '' in a new skill   area, in a different type activity or with a new focus'' (Graves, 1996, p.38).

Another way to consider course organization is as a cycle or as a matrix (Graves, 1996). In a cyclic approach, the teacher introduces a cycle of activities following a consistent sequence. In a matrix approach, the teacher works with some activities and as time pases, decides with which ones to continue depending on the interests of the students and availability of the materials.

Activities may be sequenced following a content based instruction (CBI), also known as content and language intergrated learning (CLTL) (Hakim, 2013). Richards and Schimdt (2010) described it as ''a method that integrates language instruction with subject matter instruction in the target language, for example, studying sience, social studies or mathematics through the medium of English in a content-based ESL program''(p.125).

Brinton (2003) noted that the principles for CBI are:

• Basing instructional decisions on content rather than on language criteria.

• Integrating the four skills (writing, reading, listening, speaking) into the course.
• Involving students in all phases of the learning process.

• Choosing content for its relevance to students' lives , interests and academic goals.

 • Selecting authentic texts and tasks and drawing students' attention to language of specialised discourse (language used in a particular domain).

Specialised discourse analysis is considered as an important step in ESP course design for it offers realistic descriptions of discourse derived from empirical investigations of communication and language use in the community or specialist field. Dudley Evans (2001) emphasized on giving importance to text analysis as a key stage in ESP course development and material design after needs assessment. The ESP teacher needs to ''consider the (written or spoken) texts that the learner has to produce and or understand, tries to identify the texts' key features and devises teaching materials that will anable learners to use the texts effectively'' (p.134).

The content and activities may also be sequenced according to the standard operational procedure (SOP) of the related job or what is also known as task based apprach. In this approach, the tasks to be performed in each duty are

identified then sequenced based on the operational procedure. The sequenced tasks are again analysed to reveal the language functions and language expressions needed for those tasks. Certain information related to the culture undestanding and standard performance required for those tasks may also be assessed and analysed.

Task based approach is a recent view based on the findings of linguists and psychologists. It runs counter to principles of tranditional approaches like PPP (Presentation, Practice, Production) model of teaching (Foster, 1999). Richards and Schmidt (2010) described task based approach syllabus as:

> a syllabus which is organized around TASKs, rather in terms of grammar or vocabulary. For Example, syllabus may suggest a variety of different kinds of task which the learner is expected to carry out in the language such as using telephone to obtain information ; drawing maps based on oral instruction, giving orders and instruction to others, etc. (p.585)

The approach is assumed an effective way of teaching since it provides a purpose for the use and learning of a language other than simply learning items for their own sake (Nunan, 1988).

2.6.6 Course Evaluation

Course evaluation is a crucial stage in ESP course design since it allows the teacher to be able to know whether   goals and objectives were met, whether teaching methods were effective or whether new things and prcedures should be involved in the course design process. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) stated that evaluation consists of two forms : learner assessment and course evaluation.

They claimed that learner assessment should be done contiously to decide whether the desired proficiency level of students to perform the communicative tasks has been achieved and that the results of this kind of evaluation help all stake holders to ''decide whether and how much instruction is required'' (p.144). Hughes (2003) mentioned four purposes for language testing: to measure proficiency, to diagnose specific strengths and weaknesses, to place students in a course or a program and to asses their achievement in a course or a program .

According to Hyland's (2006):

> Assessment refers to the ways used to evaluate
> information about the learner's language ability or
> achievement. It is an integral aspect of teaching-learning
> process and central to students' progress towards
> increasing control of their skills   and understandings. It is
> also an everyday practice, as teachers cntinually make
> judgments about the progress, strengths and   weaknesses
> of their learners and communicate these to students.
> Assessment therefore has both a teaching and a   testing
> function, and a distinction is often made formative and
>   summative assessment. As a formative process, assessment
> is closely linked with teaching and with issues of teacher
> response, or feedbacks, allowing the teacher to advise
> students, moniter learning and fine-tune instruction.
> Summative assessment, on the other hand, is concerned
> with 'summing up' how much a student has learned at the
> end of the course. (p.99)

 Hakim (2013) maintained that all stake holders should be involved in the evaluation process by using different methods such as questionnaires, surveys, talks, etc. ESP practitioners may also ask their learners to express their opinions on the subject matter, instructional methods, activities, teachers' role and performance and so on .

Evaluation of the course is a brave step on the part of the ESP practitioner who should be open-minded in listening to learners' comments, suggestions and criticism and should take an act on planning and teaching future ESP course. Grave (2000) in his book, *Designing Language Courses: A Guide for Teachers*, the processes of course design are beautifully outlined in the following framework :

Figure 2.9

 The Processes of ESP Course Design
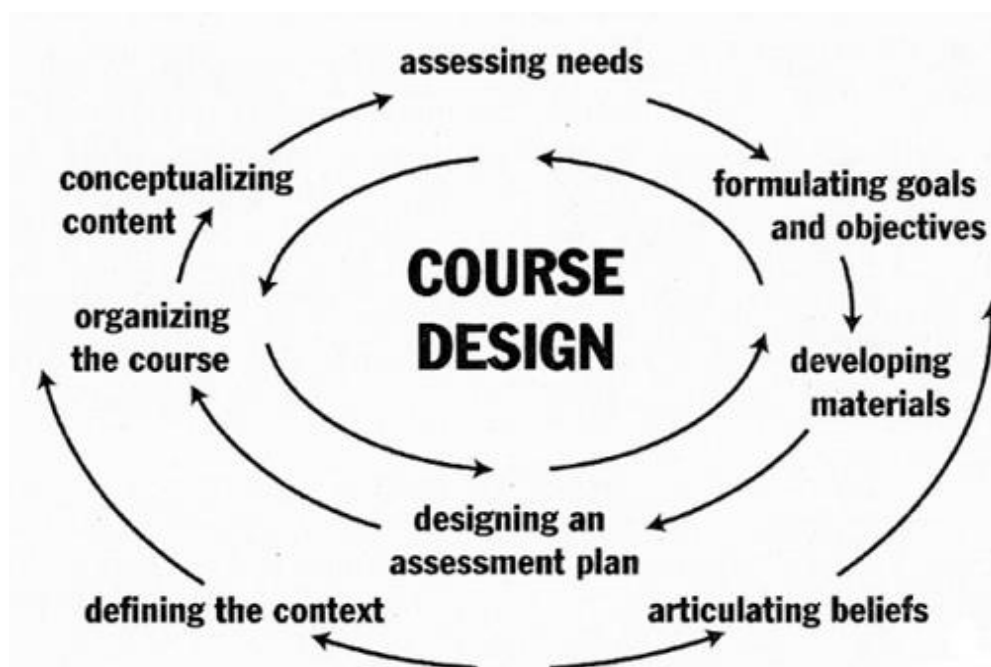
Note. Reprinted from Designing Language Courses: A Guide for Teachers by K. Grave, 2000, p.3. Copyright 2000 by *Heiln & Heiln*

2.7 Difference between Course, Curriculum and Syllabus

   Before delving into ESP syllabus design, it seems necessary to clarify the difference between three main concepts: course, curriculum and syllabus. A course can be defined as ''an intergrated series of teaching-learning experiences, whose ultimate aim is to lead the learners to a particular state of knowledge'' (Hutchinson and Waters 1987, p. 65).

   Syllabus is "a specification of the content of a course of instruction [which] lists what will be taught and tested" (Richards , 2001, p.2). Hutchinson and Waters (1987) defined syllabus as "a document which says what will (or at least what should) be learnt" (p. 80). Basturkmen (2006) proposed a standard view of a syllabus through a set of attributes and items:

• It consists of a comprehensive list of content items (e.g. words, structures, topics) and process items (tasks, methods).

• It is ordered (easier, more essential items first).

• It has explicit objectives, usually expressed in the introduction.

• It is a public document.

• It may indicate a time schedule.

• It may indicate a preferred methodology or approach.

• It may recommend materials.

   Curriculum "includes the goals, objectives, content, processes, resources, and means of evalution of all the learning experiences planned for pupils both in and out of the school and community through classroom instruction and related programs" (Roberston as cited in Yalden, 1987, p.18)

The basic differences between syllabus and curriculum can be summarized in the following points:

• Syllabus is the summary of topics covered or units to be taught in a particular subject; whereas, curriculum refers to the overall content taught in an educational system or a course.

• Syllabus is descriptive in nature, but the curriculum is prescriptive.

• The curriculum has a wider scope than the syllabus. Curriculum is concerned with the planning, implementation, evaluation, management and admimistration of educational programs while syllabus focuses narrowly on the selection and grading of the content.

• Syllabus is set for a particular subject. Unlike curriculum which covers a particular course of study or program.

• Syllabus varies from one teacher to another while curriculum is the same for all teachers.

2.8 The Place of Syllabus in ESP Course

ESP course designers should be aware that the achievement of an effective course program encompasses planning an appropriate course suitable for the target groups of learners and a careful syllabus design in order to deliver the required knowledge.

According to Frendo (2005), the syllabus should cover the information of the course in terms of order. An effective syllabus will encompass the language needed and the discourse that learners will face in their workplace. The syllabus must contain a learnable language and learning within it should be achieveable. The structure of the the syllabus put the needed language into orderly, manageable chunks with both content and order according to learners situation (Frendo, 2005). In addition, the syllabus offers convenient materials for the

course. Hutchinson and Waters define syllabus as ''a document which says what will (or at least what should) be learnt'' (1987, p. 80). For Robinson (1991) , syllabus is ''a plan of work and thus essentially for the teacher, as a guidline and context of class content'' (p.34) . Basturkmen (2006) argued that ''in order to specify what language will be taught, items are typically listed and referred to as syllabus'' (p.20).

The above assertions point out that the syllabus first concerns the teacher and that it helps him/ her plan courses. Basturkmen (2010) viewed that syllabus design is directly linked to the focused course. The course might include several aspects .i.e. grammar, vovabulary, language functions (speech acts), notions, skills or strategies. An efficient syllabus should cover the aspects involved in the course. She posited that certain criteria should be taken into consideration by the course developer when planning the syllabus:

• Types of units (skills, vocabulary, genres, functions, notions and disciplinary, professional or cultural content)

• Items in the unit (genres, semantic sets and functins)

• Sequencing : decisions about what should come first, second and so forth and also decisions made according to considerations like immediate and less immediate need, level of difficulty with easier before more difficult items and logical flow (e.g. in Business English, opening meetings before closing meetings.

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

2.9 Considerations in ESP Syllabus Design

When designing a syllabus, several aspects should be taking into accounts including:

1.The students

• Age

• Language proficiency

• Level of competence

• Goals

• Interests

• Contributions

2. The task

• Communication tasks

• Language skills

3. The text

4. Exrernal constraints

• Time

• Resources

• Terminal Exams

• Expectations

2.10 Syllabus Design Criteria

Nunan (1988) stated the syllabus design "is mainly concerned with the selection and grading of the content" (p.5). Harmer (2010) noted that every type of syllabus needs to be developed on the basis of a number of criteria:

• Learnability

Some structural or lexical items are easier for students to learn than others. Therefore, simpler language items are to be taught at first place then increase the level of difficulty as the learner's language level improves.

• Frequency

It means to start with items that are more frequent in the language than ones that are only used occasionally by native speakers.

• Coverage

This means to begin with words and structures that have greater coverage (scope for use) than others.

• Usefulness

This means to teach the common words and structures useful for the situations that learners are expected to use the language in.

2.11 Types of Syllabi

Robinson (1991) argued that a significant issue in ESP is "the relationship in any syllabus of language, pedagogy and content (that is the students' specialist area" (p.35). It is agreed that any decision made in designing an ESP teaching program should be based on learners needs for learning English. That's why, course designers should carefully plan the content to ensure that it includes what the learners need and keep them engaged.

There are varouis types of syllabus, each has four main components:

• Objectives

• Method or methodology

• Materials

• Evaluation

The course designer may also include other relevant information such as course policy, weekly schedule, assignment, course identity and course description.

Figure 2.10

Bases for Language Syllabi

Bases for language syllabi
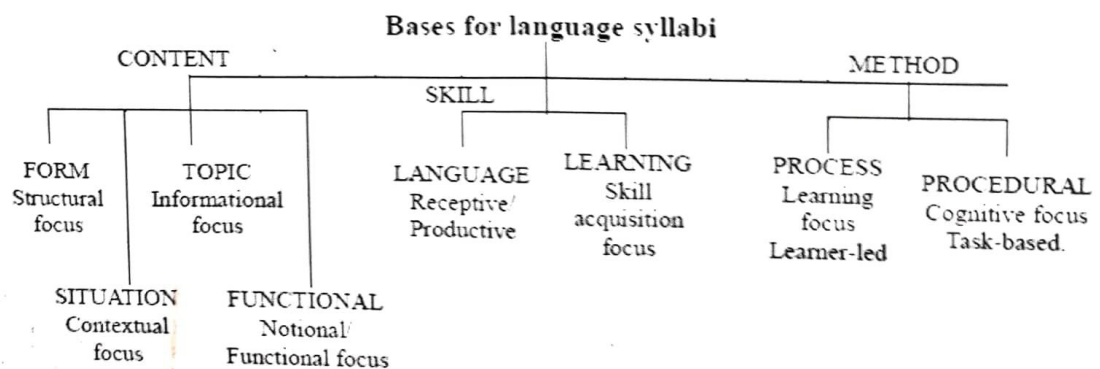
Note. Reprinted from The ELT Curriculum: Design, Innovation and Management by White, 1988, p.49. Copyright 1988 by Blackwell

According to Basturkmen (2006), syllabi can be divided into two different types: synthetic syllabi and analytic syllabi. Long and Crookes (1993) put forward a classification for different synthetic and analytic syllabi as demonstrated in figure 3.10 below.

Figure 2.11

Classification of Syllbi

	Syllabi	
Synthetic Syllabi		**Analytic Syllabi**
-Structural		-Task-based
-Functional/ Notional		-Procedural
-Lexical		-Process
-Relational		-Content-based
-Skill-based		-Learner-centered
-Situational		-Natural
-Topical		
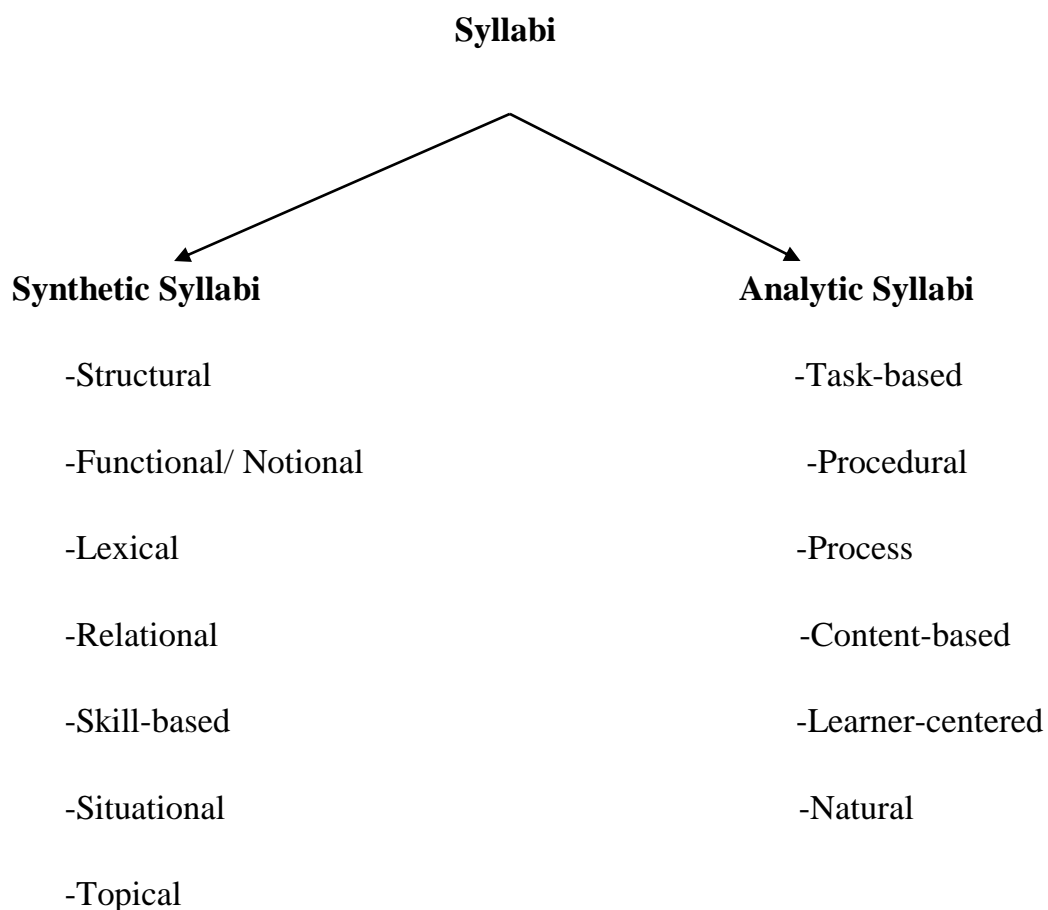
2.11.1 Synthetic Syllabus

In synthetic syllabus, the target language is broken down into discrete items that are presented separately, step by step. This type of syllabus relies on the

112

learner ability to learn a language in parts (structures, functions) and to integrate, or synthesize, the pieces when the time comes to use them in communicative purposes. The Structural syllabus, lexical syllabus and functional syllabus are some examples of synthetic syllabi .

2.11.1.1 Structural Syllabus

Structural   syllabus, or so called grammatical syllabus, is one of the most common syllabi and is still used today in many course books. The grammatical syllabus consists of a list of a list of grammatical items selected and graded in terms of simplicity and complexcity (Nunan, 1988). Structural   syllabus is based on a theory of language which assumes that grammatical or structural aspects of language forms are the most basic or useful items in learning language. According to this type of syllabus, language rules are learned in a linear fashion and learners should demonstrate complete mastery of one rule before moving to another (Nunan, 2001). The disadvantage of the structural syllabus is that it over emphasizes language structure and neglects communicative competence.

2.11.1.2 Lexical Syllabus

The lexical syllabus focuses on vocabulary rather than sentence structure. It is based on the idea that an important part of language of language acquisition is the ability to comprehend and produce lexical phrases unanalyzed wholes or chunks, and that these chunks become the raw data by which learners peceive patterns of language traditionally thought of as grammar (Lewis, 1993).

Course designers build up vocabulary areas based on a detailed analysis of how frequency vocabulary and phrases of a selected corpus of language used in communication. This kind of syllabus usually contains lists of the most frequent words, their meanings, word collocations and patterns where the words can be used. Grammar is included in the lexical syllabus in the different patterns of words, expression of notions and functions, but the organizing principle is

lexical. Harmer (2001) maintained that it would be complex to apply this type of syllabus because there are so many facets to lexis. Because vocabulary is present in any type of language content, a lexical syllabus can only be considered as one component of a comprehensible syllabus.

2.11.1.3 Functional/ Notional Syllabus

The functional/ notional syllabus came into existence as a reaction to the structural syllabus in the 1970s. This syllabus emphasizes language as a vehicle of communication; language items are categorized dependent on their communicative use (functions) and semantic categories (notions) rather than by grammatical class or structure. According to Nunan (1988), functions are the communicative purposes for which the language is used such as: informing, questioning, describing and so on; whereas, notions are the conceptual meaning expressed through language such as: time, duration, frequency, size, quantity , etc. The goal of this syllabus is to help the learner to use the language appropriately in real-world communication. The functional/ notional syllabus includes topics, notions and concepts the learner needs to communicate. It is primarily based on analysis of learners' social and/ or vocational communicative needs.

2.11.1.4 Situational Syllabus

The underlying belief of this syllabus is that language is always used in context, never in isolation (Yalden, 1983). In this syllabus, the contents are organized according to specific situations in which the target language is likely to be employed. Examples of learning situations are the job interview, in a meeting, etc.

Johnson (2002) as cited in Sabbah (2018) suggested three types of situational syllabus differentiated by their informational content and linguistic content:

1. Limbo: the specific setting of the situation is of little or no importance.What is important is the language involved.

2. Concrete: situations are related to specific settings and language associated with it.

3. Mythical: situations depend on a fictional cast of characters in a fictional place.

The most common way of presenting a situation is as a dialogue, usually at the beginning of the lesson, and the topics, settings, participants in situations can vary infinitely.

2.11.1.5 Topic Based Syllabus

This syllabus is built around certain topics and themes. Jordan (1997) argued that topics are selected from the learners' specialist studies, and the languge analyzed based on appropriate sytax and lexis is then practiced.

Topic based instruction model allows the integration of skills. Teachers who use topic based in their classrooms avoid teaching the skills separately but seek to integrate them since it's the theme itself that controls the selection and sequencing of language focus.

The topic based textbooks units begin with exercises that stimulate learners' interest in the topic and develop their ability to manipute the language appropriate to the theme followed by a variety of activities that elaborates the theme such as: key ideas including cultural, cross cultural and linguistic; listening comprehension; reading; speaking; writing and vocabulary learning (Sabbah, 2018).

The topic based syllabus is seen to be efficient in the case of ESP situation because it is believed that "students who learn a language for a purpose learn it better" (Straight, 1998, p.1).

2.11.1.6 Skill Based Syllabus

This syllabus considers language as an accumulation of skills. Skills are what people are expected to be able to do to be competent in a language, relatively independently of the situation or context in which the language use may occur. The content of language teaching in this type of syllabus is a collocation of specific abilities that may play part in using language. Examples are reading skills such as skimming and scanning, writing skills such as writing specific topic sentences, writing memos or reports and listening skills such as getting specific information, etc.

2.11.1.7 Relational Syllabus

In the relational syllabus, the language items are organized on notional relations, such as cause-effect; or discourse relations, such as question-reply; or clause structure (White, 1988). The relational syllabus is not very popular as other syllabi. Like the structural and functional/ notional syllabi, the relational syllabus received criticisms for it comprises only certain parts and cannot cover all aspects of the whole linguistic system.

2.11.2 Analytic Syllabus

The analytic syllabus rejects the linguistic control over the learning environment. The language is not divided into building blocks. A variety of structures is allowed right from the start, and the learner is asked to approach the global language by approximating his/ her own linguistic behaviour to it (Kara, 2001). The procedural, process, task based and content based syllabi are all examples of the analytic syllabus.

2.11.2.1 Task Based Syllabus

This syllabus is based on communicative tasks. According to this approach, learners learn the target language while performing communicative tasks. Task

based syllabus grew from the work of Prabhu in 1980 which was based on a learning centered view of language teaching. Prabhu claimed that if enough attention is given to meaning, then the form will be handled in a better manner. Richards et al as cited in White (1988) defined task as "an activity or action which is carried out as a result of processing or understanding language (i.e. as a response)" (p.17). Nunan (1988) stated that the selection of these tasks should proceed along the learners' needs and their real word specifications. Nunan suggested two types of tasks: real world tasks such as using telephone and pedagogical tasks like information-gap task.

2.11.2.2 Procedural Syllabus

Tasks in this syllabus are designed with the principle of teaching through communication rather than teaching for communication. The underlying concept behind the procedural syllabus is that while the conscious mind is working out some of the meaning-content, some subconscious part of the mind perceives, abstracts or acquires some of the linguistic structures enbadied in those entities, and in this way internal system of rules is acquired (Sabbah, 2018). Opinion-gap, information-gap and reasoning-gap are common tasks in this syllabus.

2.11.2.3 Process Syllabus

Process syllabus has nothing to do with preselection and specification of content of language. It is associated with the proposal of Breen and Candlin in 1980 who drew syllanus designers attention to the gap between intention and reality (White, 1988). They argued that any pre-designed plan is inevitably and continually reinterpreted by the teacher and his/her learners. Therefore, they suggested a unified planning where both the teacher and the learners contribute to syllabus design. Breen (1987) described this syllabus as one which goal is to answer the overall question: Who does what with whom, on what subject matter, with what resources, when, how and for what learning purposes? (White, 1988). The process based syllabus is founded upon four levels. At level one, general

aims, procedure and content are discussed by the teacher and the learners so the decisions related to classroom language learning are made. At level two, the procedures necessary to reach the agreed goals are selected. At level three, activities are chosen according to the decisions made at level one. Each activity is made of some tasks which are negociated at lavel four.

2.11.2.4 Content Based Syllabus

The purpose of this syllabus is to teach the content or information of a specific subject matter using the language that the students need or want to learn. It is grounded on Krashen's theory that for learning a language to happen, sufficient opportunity to engage in meaningful use of that language should be provided. In content based syllabus, "the activities of the language class are specific to the subject matter being taught, and are geared to stimulate the students to think and learn through the use of the target language" (Stoller, 2002 as cited in Jalilzadeh & Tahmasebi, 2014, p.224)

Conclusion

With regard to all what have been discussed so far, it can be concluded that ESP is an approach to language teaching that has imposed its influence all over the world due to the technological, economic and scientific developments of America which made English the first international language in the globe. The previous chapter has given an overview to ESP dealing with its definitions, origions, develolopment, categories, characteristics and objectives of teaching it. The current chapter highlights various teaching and learning practices in ESP such as: course design, needs analysis, syllabus design, material production and assessment as well as different roles assigned to ESP teachers and learners. It has been revealed that learners' needs are of central importance in ESP. By identifying learners' needs, the ESP teacher can adopt and make use of appropriate teaching methodology and plan suitable syllabus which meets those particular requirements. The next chapter deals with research methodology.

CHAPTER III

SITUATION ANALYSIS AND RESEARCH DESIGN

Introduction

The present chapter attempts at giving a clear and thorough description of the study. It starts by introducing the context of the study. The investigator sheds light on English language teaching in Algeria and on ESP teaching situation with particular emphasis on the ESP teaching situation at the University of Ghardaia at which the study was undertaken. Then, in detail, the researcher discusses research design, the population and sampling procedures, data collection instruments and data analysis techniques.

3.1 The ESP Situation in Algeria

In Algeria, Arabic is the official language of the country that is used in all schools and institutions. French and English are taught in schools and universities as foreign languages. The majority of Algerian people can understand and speak French. This goes back to the old historical relations with the French who colonized the country for more than 132 years.

As far English language is concerned, it is taught from the first year in middle school till the third year in secondary school. In universities, the status of the English subject varies from one specialty to another. In some fields, it is regarded as a compulsory module, while in others, just as an additional one. Yet, a few number of Algerians speak English. Most of them belong to younger generations.

However, in the last two decades, there has been a growing interest in the English language in Algeria. The Algerian government saw that English is necessary for economic and intellectual growth. As a result, English became taught everywhere; not only in public schools and universities but also in private schools and some professional settings like (e.g. Sonatrach oil company, Sheraton hotel, etc).

At tertiary level, with LMD reformation, the ministry of Higher Education has called for introducing English for more Specific Purposes at all levels of education License, Master and PhD. Currently, ESP courses are provided at different curricula in all universities nationwide. Unfortunately, in Algeria, there is a scarcity of ESP practitioners as there is no concept of establishing ESP teacher training institutes that can produce qualified ESP practitioners. As a result, general English teachers are often hired by higher education institutions to teach ESP. The majority of these teachers carry no professional training for teaching English specialized courses; therefore, they face many challenges related to syllabi, course design, teaching methodology and so on.

The Algerian ESP educational context is also characterized by a great reliance on part-time lecturers. Urgent solutions should be made by the government to solve this problem. Due to shortage of ESP practitioners, the majority of ESP teachers hired by universities are part-time teachers who have other duties working at high or middle schools or in private schools. Since there are no financial incentives (not well-paid), most of them soon quit their classes. The students within higher education institutions may have more than one teacher each year and of course more than one in their curriculum. Each with new course content and methodology and no continuity in the ESP course. Tar (2009) states that "this situation must be halted at university, and continuity and reinforcement of learning content and objectives assured. This is fundamental" (p.5).

3.2 The ESP Situation at the University of Ghardaia

The University of Ghardaia, at which the study took place, is located in the south of Algeria in the city of Ghardaia. It covers an area of thirty hectares with three university poles and can bear more than ten thousands pedagogical seats. It was formed as an annex affiliated to the University of Algiers in 2004 and included only two specialties: history and sociology.

Then, in 2005, it developed to a university centre with two institutions: Institution of Social and Human Sciences and Institution of Business Sciences. In 4 June, 2012, the institution was granted full university status.

The total number of students in the academic year 2017- 2018 reached 12090 under the supervision of 394 professors. In license, a total of 8154 students: 1331 in first year, 2809 in second year and 2014 in third year. As for master, 3936 students enrolled at different specializations: 2128 in first year and 1808 in second year.

The University of Ghardaia comprises six faculties:

1. Faculty of Economy and Management and Commerce

2. Faculty of Social and Human Sciences

3. Faculty of Law and Political Sciences

4. Faculty of Letters and Foreign Languages

5. Faculty of Sciences and Technology

6. Faculty of Natural Sciences

However, it is worth to note that the study in hand will cover only five faculties. The faculty of Letters and Foreign Languages is not concerned with the study as English is taught there as a second language not as ESP.

At the University of Ghardaia , ESP courses are provided for students in various specialties but not for all levels, and there exist some departments where the ESP course is never present i.e. department of law and department of psychology (see the table below).

Table 3.1

Time Allocated to the ESP Course at Different Faculties of Ghardaia University

Faculty	Specialty	1st year	2nd year	3rd year	1st year master	2nd year master
Faculty of Economy, Management and Commerce	Economics	1h.30	1h.30	1h.30	1h.30	_
	Commerce	1h.30	1h.30	1h.30	1h.30	_
	Accounting and Finance	1h.30	1h.30	1h.30	1h.30	_
	Management	1h.30	1h.30	1h.30	1h.30	_
Faculty of Law and political Sciences	Law	_	_	_	_	_
	Political Sciences	1h.30	1h.30	1h.30	1h.30	1h.30
Faculty of Human and Social Sciences	Human Sciences	1h.30	1h.30	1h.30	1h.30	1h.30
	History					
	Media & communication		1h.30	1h.30	1h.30	1h.30
	Psychology	1h.30	_	_	_	_
	Sociology		1h.30	1h.30	1h.30	1h.30
	Islamic Sciences	1h.30	1h.30	1h.30	1h.30	1h.30
Faculty of Natural Sciences	Biology	1h.30	1h.30	1h.30	1h.30	1h.30
	Agricultural Sciences		_	1h.30	1h.30	_
Faculty of Sciences and Technology	Science and Technology	1h.30	1h.30	1h.30	1h.30	_
	Computing	1h.30	1h.30	1h.30	1h.30	_
	Mathematics		_	_	1h.30	_

In the above table, the dashes represent absence of the ESP course.

Arabic and French are used as a medium of instruction while the role of English is purely functional; it is taught as a pedagogical support for most of the documentation and scientific literature is available in English. Though ESP courses are supposed to gain a certain status of importance, they are often underestimated due to administrative decisions, teachers' behaviors and learners' attitudes.

The ESP course holds a lower status (coefficient one) as compared with the other subject-specific modules with high coefficients. The time allocated to the ESP course is only one hour and a half per week. Most of the time, it is programmed as the last session in the day or at the last day of the week.

In addition, curriculum developers give no particular attention to ESP courses and do not provide specifications for the course content and methodology. The ESP teachers are free to teach whatever they judge relevant to their students.

3.3 The Case Study

Mitchell (1983) defined a case study as a "detailed examination of an event (or series of related events) which the analysts believes exhibits (or exhibit) the operation of some identified general theoretical principles" (p.192). According to Yin (1994), a case study "is an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not evident" (p.13). Yin argued that one should use case study strategy when he or she deliberately wants to study contextual conditions. Anderson (1993) regarded case studies as being concerned with how and why things happen, allowing the investigation of contextual realities and the differences between what is planned and what actually occurs. For Gomm,

Hammersely and Foster (2000), case study refers to research that investigates a few cases in considerable depth.

Case studies have been criticized for lack of scientific rigor and reliability ,and that they do not address the issues of generalizability (Johnson, 1994). However, there are some advantages of case study. Patton (1987) maintained that case studies are particularly useful when one needs to understand some particular problem or situation in great-depth, and when one can identify cases rich in information.

According to P. Hodkinson and H. Hodkinson (2001), the advantages of case study researches are:

• They can help us to understand complex inter-relationships.

• Case studies are grounded in "live reality".

 • Case studies facilitate the exploration of the unexpected and unusual.

 • Multiple Case studies can enable research to focus on the significance of the idiosyncratic.

 • Case studies can show the processes involved in causal relationships.

• Case studies can facilitate rich conceptual/ theoretical development.

3.4 Sources of Data for Case Studies

In case study, information can be collected from various sources. Some of the important sources include:

 • Life histories.

 • Personal documents.

 • Letters and records.

 • Information obtained through interviews.

• Observations.

Figure 3.1

Sources of Data for Case Studies

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                                          ┌─────────────────────┐
                                          │   Life histories    │
                                          └─────────────────────┘

                                          ┌─────────────────────┐
                                          │ Personal documents  │
                                          └─────────────────────┘

┌─────────────────────┐                   ┌─────────────────────┐
│  Sources of data for │                  │ Letters and records │
│     case studies     │                  └─────────────────────┘
└─────────────────────┘
                                          ┌─────────────────────┐
                                          │ Information obtained │
                                          │  through interviews  │
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                                          ┌─────────────────────┐
                                          │    Observations     │
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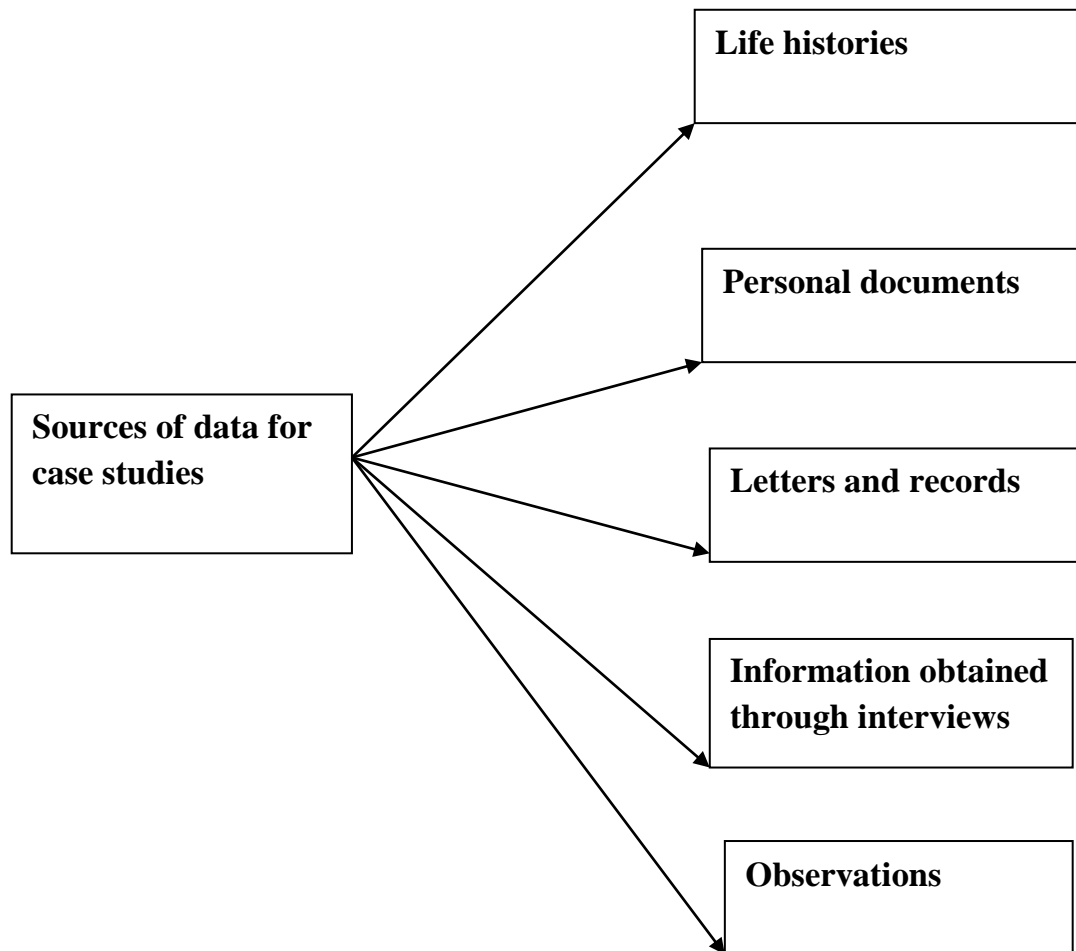
3.5 Techniques Used for Data Collection in Case Studies

Some types of techniques used to collect data in case studies include:

1. Observation: this could be direct observation of observation of events and behaviours as well as participant-observation where the researcher is an active participant in the events being studied.

2. Interviews: discussing or questioning a person for the purpose of an evaluation or to generate information.

3. Secondary data: data collected from the setting by other individuals.

4. Documents: any writing that could be useful in making inferences about events. These could be letters, agendas, memos, administrative letters, newspapers articles, etc.

5. Records: anything that can rely on or providing an evident officially.

Figure 3.2

Techniques Used for Data Collection in Case Studies
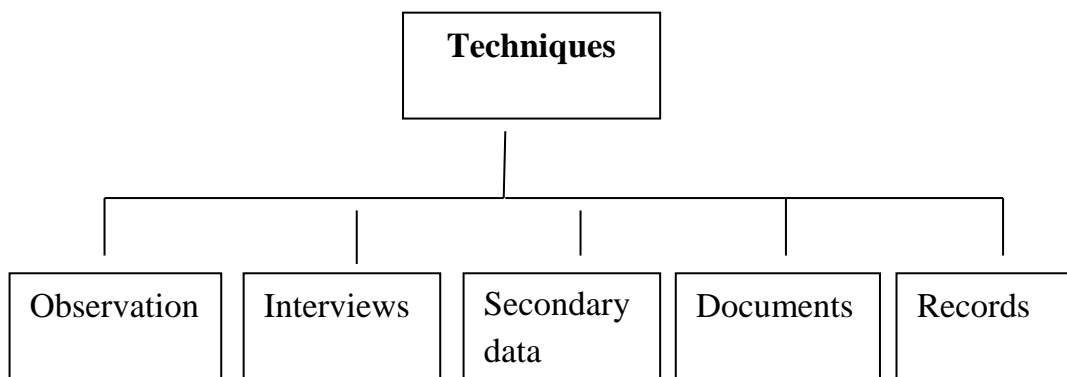
3.6 Types of Case Study Research

There are different types of case studies identified by researchers. Stenhouse (1985) identified four broad styles of case study: ethnographic, evaluative, educational and action research case studies.

1. Ethnographic case study: it is an in-depth study of a single case using participant observation supported by interviews as in cultural or social anthropology. According to Stenhouse (1985), ethnographic case study "calls into question the apparent understanding of the actors in the case and

offers from the outsider's standpoint explanations that emphasize casual or structural patterns of which participants in the case are unaware" (p.49).

The other three types are concerned with different aspects of educational action.

2. Evaluative case study: it is in-depth study of a single or collection of cases with the purpose of providing educational decision makers (administrators, teachers, parents, pupils, etc) with information that will help them to judge the usefulness of particular policies, programmes, etc.

3. Educational case study: in this type of research, the researcher is concerned with understanding educational practices and how to improve them. According to Stenhouse (1985), educational case studies are concerned to "enrich the thinking and discourse of educators either by the development of educational theory or by refinement of prudence through the systematic and reflective documentation of evidence" (p.50).

4. Action research case study: it is "concerned with contributing to the development of the case or cases under study by feedback of information which can guide revision and refinement of the action" (Stenhouse ,1985, p.50)

Figure 3.3

Stenhouse' Categorization of Case Studies

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                    ┌─────────────────┐
                    │   Case Study    │
                    │    Research     │
                    └────────┬────────┘
          ┌──────────┬───────┴───────┬──────────┐
   ┌──────────────┐ ┌──────────┐ ┌────────────┐ ┌──────────┐
   │ Ethnographic │ │Evaluative│ │Educational │ │ Action   │
   │              │ │          │ │            │ │ research │
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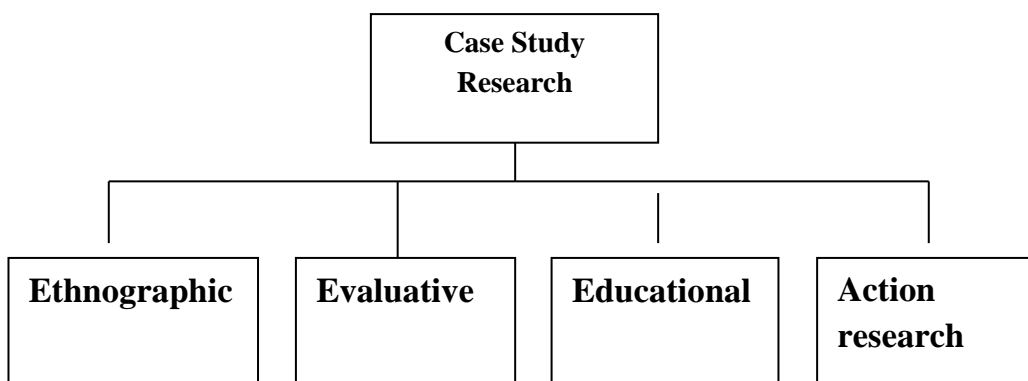
Yin (1993), on the other hand, suggested three types of case studies: exploratory, explanatory and descriptive case studies.

1. Exploratory case study: it aims to answer what or who questions. This type of case studies involves researching a specific topic to the point where thorough, detailed and complete understanding occurs.

2. Explanatory case study: it aims to answer how or why questions. The researcher undertaking an explanatory case study is interested in giving explanations of what happened and why it happened. "Explanatory case study …presents data bearing on cause-effect relationships explaining which causes produced which effects" (Yin, 1993, p.5)

3. Descriptive case study: it presents an accurate description of a phenomenon within its context.

Figure 3.4

Yin's Categorization of Case Studies
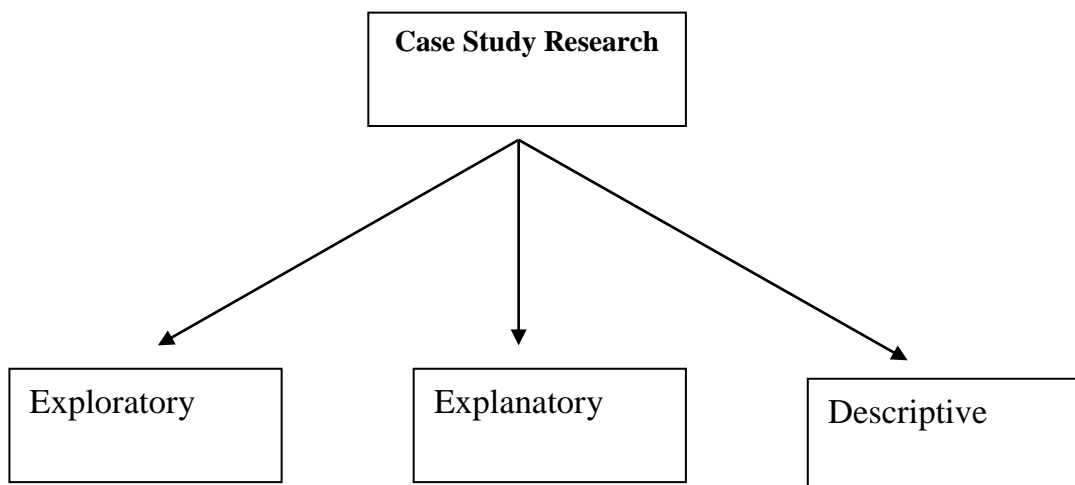
Stake (1995) distinguished intrinsic and instrumental case studies. He based his distinction on the methods used to collect and analyze data which differ from one type to another. The intrinsic case study is undertaken with issues or problems that interest a researcher to understand in detail a specific case. The instrumental case study involves exploring some general areas to understand rather than a particular case. In the latter the "use of case study is to understand something else. Case study here is instrumental to accomplishing something other than understanding the particular case" (Bassey, 1999, p.30).

3.7 Features of Case Study

Theorists have divergent views regarding the features characterizing case studies. Merriam (1998) proposed the following characteristics of a case study:

• It involves an intensive study of an individual, family, group, institution or other level that can be conceived as a single unit.

• The information is highly detailed, comprehensive and typically reported in a narrative form as opposed to the quantified scores on a dependent measure.

 • It attempts to convey the nuances of the case including specific context, extraneous influences and special idiosyncratic details.

 • The information it examines can be retrospective or archival.

 Hitchcock and Hughes (1995) noted that a case study has several

hallmarks:

• It is concerned with a rich and vivid description of events relevant to the case.

• It provides a chronological narrative of events relevant to the case.

• It blends a description of events with their analysis.

• It focuses on individual actors or group of actors and seeks to understand their perceptions of events.

• It highlights specific events that are relevant to the case.

• The researcher is integrally involved in the case.

• An attempt is made to portray the richness of the case in writing up the report.

Luxmi Devi (2020) stated that the main characteristics of a case study are:

1. A descriptive study:

a. The data gathered constitute descriptions of psychological processes and events and of the contexts in which they occurred.

b. A case study is more of a qualitative method rather than quantitative method. Emphasis is always on the construction of verbal descriptions of behavior or experience but rarely quantitative data may be collected.

c. High levels of detail are provided.

d. The behavior pattern of the concerned unit is studied directly where efforts are made to know the mutual inter-relationship of causal factors.

2. Narrowly focused

a. A case study offers a complete and comprehensive description of all facets of a social unit, be it a single individual or may be a social group.

b. It focuses on a limited aspect of a person(s) such as his/their psychopathological symptoms.

3. It combines objective and subjective data

Researchers may combine objective and subjective data. Both the data are regarded as valid data for analysis.

Though researchers have differing views regarding the features of a case study, they share common beliefs about the processes that the investigator should go through to conduct a case study. Stephen and Micheal (1981) put forward five steps for conducting a case study:

1. State the objectives.

2. Design the approach (look for the available sources of data, think of data collection methods to be used)

3. Collect the data.

4. Organize the information to form a coherent, well- ordered reconstitution of the unit of the study.

5. Report the results and discus their significance

Figure 3.5

How to Conduct a Case Study: Crucial Components, Steps and Interaction
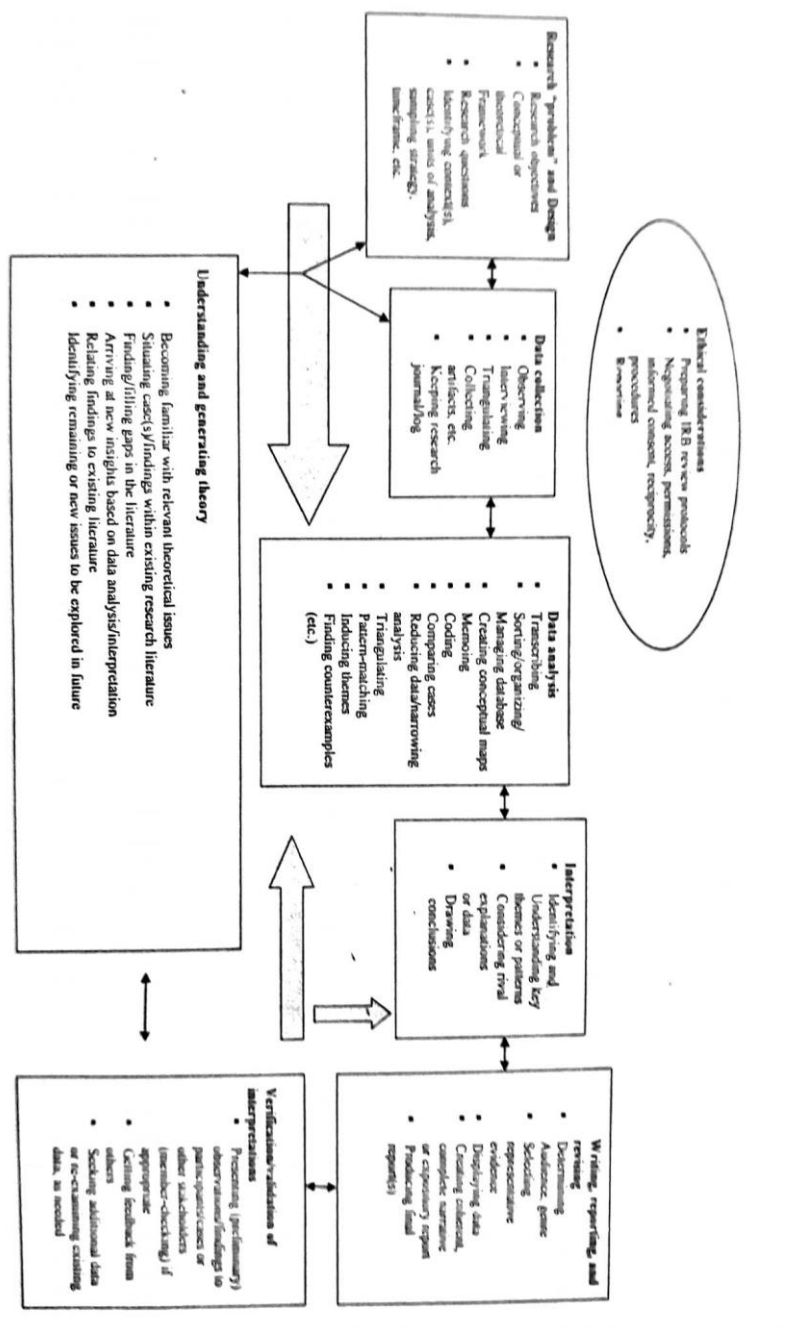
Note. Reprinted from Case Study Research in Applied Linguistics by

P. Duff , 2008, p. 100. Copyright 2008 by Taylor & Francis Group.

Figure 3.6

The Design of the study
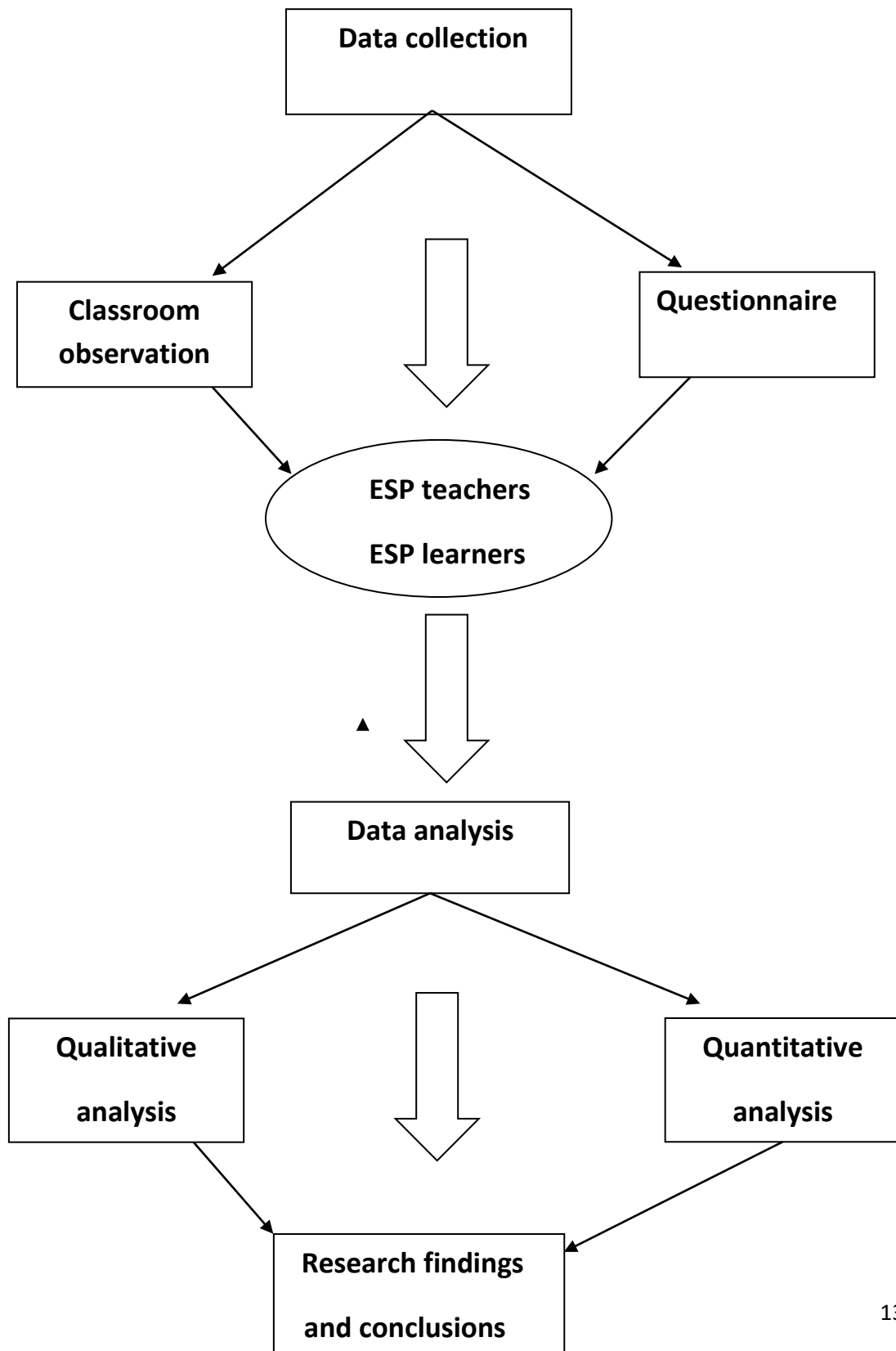
In the next sections, these steps will be discussed in more detail.

3.8 The Design of the Study

The study in hand is an exploratory descriptive case study. It was carried out to identify the major challenges and difficulties encountered by ESP teachers and learners which may hinder successful teaching/ learning of ESP in the Algerian university. The researcher followed the aforementioned steps for conducting a case study research. Thus, the researcher proceeded as follows:

• **Identifying research problem and design**: the researcher first identified the research problematic and set out research objectives. Then, she had to decide upon the appropriate methods for data collection and ways of processing these data. Doing so, the researcher was ready to begin her data collection.

• **Data collection**: the process of data collection started with a direct observation of ESP course in question. The use of classroom observation has been of great help in getting in-depth information about day-to-day issues that ESP teachers and learners face. It allowed the researcher to gather authentic data and to have a full idea about the real teaching/learning experiences of ESP teachers and learners. To complement data gathered through observations and collect data from the sources of information themselves, the investigator administered two questionnaires one for ESP teachers and another for learners.

• **Data analysis**: despite the fact that the case study is regarded by researchers as a qualitative approach because it focuses on the exploration of the case rather than measurement of proof, the researcher analyzed data gathered using a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods.

• **Interpretation**: at this stage, the researcher combined data gathered through different research tools and compared it in order to make sense of

data gathered and draw conclusions. Findings from former researches were also consulted to explain the results and allow comparison.

• **Writing the report**: here comes the last phase in the research process which is sharing the results with public or writing up the study report. The researcher, at this stage, attempted to present her study in a systematic way. She organized it into five chapters together with general introduction and general conclusion. In the introduction, the research questions and objectives are set out. Then, she reviewed literature related to the topic and explained research methodology and finally displayed the results and draw conclusions.

3.9 The Population and Sampling Strategy

Before going in depth into the procedures followed by the researcher in selecting the subjects of the study, it seems worth clarifying some basic terminology:

• Population

• Sample

• Sampling

The study population, also known as the statistical population, can be defined as "the collection of the elements which has some or other characteristics in common" (Singh, 2018). It includes all people or items with the characteristics some one wishes to understand. Number of the elements in the population is the size of the population.

Sample is a subset of elements or individuals from within a statistical population to estimate characteristics of the whole population. Salant and Dillman (1994) define a sample as "a set of respondents selected from a larger population for the purpose of the survey" (p.78).   Number of elements in the sample is the sample size.

The way of selecting elements in the population is called sampling design or sampling strategy.

The most important thing that should be taken into consideration is that the sample drawn from the population must be representative so that it allows the researcher to make inferences or generalizations from the sample statistics to the population understudied (Maleske, 1995).

Let's now turn to describe the population under consideration:

The population of the study included both ESP teachers and learners enrolled at different faculties at the University of Ghardaia during the academic year 2017- 2018.

As it was infeasible to involve all the population in the study, the researcher had to select a sample that is representative to the whole population.

Representative sampling is of great debate among researchers, however, for practical considerations, three common types of sampling methods are used in social science and scientific research studies: random, stratified and quota sample.

In theory "random sampling involves selecting at random from a population list" (Robson, 1993, p.137). But randomness is not an arbitrary process, it is a statistically defined procedure that requires a table or set of random numbers which are generated by a computer or by statistical calculations (Oppenheim, 1966). Its advantage is that every element of the population gets an equal chance to be part of the selected sample.

Although this method is regarded as ideal in theory, in practice it would need a great deal of effort and too much time to obtain a full list of all ESP learners in the university. Therefore, other sampling methods were consulted which would allow representativeness.

In stratified sampling the population is divided into small subgroups (strata) "based on the similarity in such a way that the elements within the group are homogeneous and heterogeneous among the other subgroups formed" (Singh, 2018). The elements are then randomly selected from each stratum. The sample size of each stratum (layer) is proportional to the size of the layer. The purpose is to ensure adequate representation of subjects in each stratum.

Quota sampling involves selecting a pre-determined number of individuals into sample. Sampling proceeds until these totals or quotas are reached.

Therefore, for this study, the researcher used a random sampling method for ESP teachers and a combination of the quota and stratified method for ESP learners.

3.9.1 ESP Teachers

Twenty four ESP teachers working at different departments at the University of Ghardaia took part in the study . All of them were handed the questionnaire that they were asked to answer anonymously.

The next table summarizes the number of ESP teachers working in different departments across the five faculties:

Table 3.2

ESP Teachers working at the University of Ghardaia during the academic year 2017- 2018

Faculty	Number of ESP Teachers/ departments			
Faculty of Economy, Management and Commerce	**Economy** 2 teachers (Subject specialist+ language teacher)	**Management** 1 teacher (language teacher)	**Commerce** 1 teacher (language teacher)	**Accounting and Finance** 2 teachers (Subject specialist+ language teacher)
Faculty of Social and Human Sciences	**Human Sciences** History 2 teachers Media & Communication 2 teachers (4 language teachers)		**Social Sciences** Psychology 0 teacher Sociology 1 teacher (language teacher)	**Islamic Sciences** 1 teacher (language teacher)
Faculty of Law and Political Sciences	**Law** 0		**Political Sciences** 1 teacher (language teacher)	
Faculty of Sciences and Technology	**Computing and Mathematics** 2 teachers (Subject specialist+ language teacher)		**Science and Technology** 4 teachers (3subject specialists+ 1 language teacher)	
Faculty of Natural Sciences	**Biology** 3 teachers (2 subject specialists+1 language teacher)		**Agricultural Sciences** 2 teachers (Subject specialist+ language teacher)	
Total	**24**			

As It was not possible for the investigator to manage classroom observation with all those teachers, she opted to select randomly one teacher from each specialty i.e. 12 teachers. Selecting randomly the participants gave the opportunity for each teacher to be selected and this

might reduce the risks of bias and ensure reliability and validity of this research work.

The researcher was aware that classroom observation might be unwelcomed experience by some teachers who might refuse to be observed, but all the teachers were very helpful and welcomed the researcher into their classes. As a result, the researcher tried to identify a set of problems and difficulties the ESP teachers encounter in each faculty, comparing them, in a hope to be able to draw conclusions of similar and different difficulties they face in order to suggest some useful recommendations to better cope with the necessities of the target situation.

3.9.2 ESP Learners

The target learners were undergraduate students from different specializations. As has been stated earlier in this chapter, the ESP course is not delivered for all specialties at all levels at the University of Ghardaia. Thus, only learners who have ESP in their program were concerned with the study.

The table below shows the number of ESP learners across the five faculties:

Table 3.3

Distribution of ESP Learners at the University of Ghardaia During the academic year 2017- 2018

Faculty	License				Master		
	Specialty	1Y	2Y	3Y	Specialty	1Y	2Y
Faculty of Human and Social Sciences	Human Sciences	History	219	139	112	Modern History of Maghreb	93	71
						Medieval History of Maghreb	42	_
		Media & communication		170	155	Public Relations	92	68
	Social Sciences	Psychology		_	_	School Psychology	_	_
						Psychology of organization & work	_	_
			349			Clinical Psychology	_	_
		Sociology		74	25	Educational Sociology	00	11
						Sociology of organization & work	31	41
						Cultural Sociology	09	13
	Islamic Sciences	Sharia & Law			59	Sharia & Law	42	56
		Fundamentals of Fiqh	50	101	37	Fundamentals of Fiqh	43	44
		Doctrine and Comparison of Religions			15			
Total	**2164**						

Faculty	Department	Specialty				Specialty		
Faculty of Law and political Sciences	Law	Criminal Law	_	_	_	Criminal Law	_	_
		Specific Law				Specific Law		
	Political Sciences		18	22	24	Political & administrative organization	27	54
Total	145							
Faculty of Natural Sciences	Biology	Ecology & Ocean Science		96	56	Biochemistry	60	42
		Microbiology	472	180	43	Ecology Science	54	51
		Biochemistry			48			
	Agricultural Sciences	Vegetable Production		_	39	Plant Protection	51	_
		Plant Protection			33			
Total	1225							
Faculty of Sciences and Technology	Science and Technology	Material Sciences	33	00	00	Chemical Engineering	52	_
		Renewable Energies	27	17	00	Electro-technical Renewable Energies	37	_
		Mechanism		72	34	Mechanism & Systems	41	_
		Industrial Maintenance	497	94	_	Industrial Maintenance	43	_
		Irrigation		46	_	Urban Irrigation	43	_
		Civil Engineering		82	_	Water Resources	16	_
		Methods Engineering		93	_	Structures	47	_

Computing and Mathema-tics	Mathematics	173	_	_	Function Analysis and Applications	21	_
	Computing		52	36	Intelligent Systems to Extract Knowledge	28	_
Total	**1585**						
Faculty of Economy, Manage-ment and Commerce	Economics	Monetary& Banking Economics		105	25	Monetary& Banking Economics	52	_
		Economy& Business Management			30	Economy& Business Management	32	_
	Commerce	International Trade		93	20	Industrial Marketing	18	_
		Marketing			23			
	Accoun-ting and Finance	Accounting & Finance	635	154	44	Accounting	60	_
		Business Finance			34	Business Finance	61	_
		Accounting & taxation			39	Management Audit & control	66	_
	Manage-ment	Business Administration		143	64	Business Administra-tion	88	_
		HR Management			46	HR Management	30	_
		Tourism	12	0	0			
Total	**1874**						
Total of ESP learners	**6993**						

As it was impossible to involve all the learners in the study, the researcher, then, had to select a sample of learners that is representative to the population in question.

The calculation of an adequate sample size is crucial in any study to be able to arrive to accurate and valid results.

There are many formulas used to calculate the sample size. These formulas vary according to the desired level of precision, desired confidence level, and the estimated proportion of the attribute present in the population. They all lead to the same results. The researcher tried three formulas and got similar results.

In the present study the researcher adopted Krejcie & Morgan's(1970) formula for estimating sample size with a confidence level of 95% and sampling error of 5% as follows:

$$s = x^2 NP(1 - P) \div d^2(N - 1) + x^2 P(1 - P)$$

Where:

s: required sample size.

x^2: the table value of $chi - square$ for freedom at the desired

confidence level (3.841).

N: the population size.

P: the population proportion (assumed to be .50 since this would provide the maximum sample size).

d: the degree of accuracy expressed as a proportion (.05).

$$s = \frac{3.841 \times 6993 \times 0.5\ (1-0.5)}{(0.05)^2 \times (6993-1) + 3.841 \times 0.5\ (1-0.5)} = 364$$

So, the required sample size is 364.

The total population of ESP learners as table above shows is composed of 6993 elements. They were divided into five groups (according to the faculty to which the learners belong), and which the researcher entended to make comparisons accordingly. The researcher calculated the required sample size for each layer using its proportion in the whole population. These layers are composed of different sub-groups or strata (according to learners' specialties and levels within each faculty). The researcher calculated the required sample for these specialties in the same way without intending to draw comparisons within these specialties, but only to ensure the representation of all specialties in the sample. Then, the sample size for each specialty was divided per the number of sub-specialties and levels to get the number of elements needed for each sub-specialty/level.

$$layer\ proportion = \frac{layer\ size \times 100}{whole\ population\ size}$$

$$layer sample\ size = \frac{proportion\ of\ layer \times sample\ size\ of whole\ population}{100}$$

$$n = \frac{sample\ size\ of\ specialty}{number\ of\ subspecialties\ and\ levels}$$

Where:

n : number of elements for each sub-specialty/ level

Let's take the faculty of Human and Social Sciences as an example:

Human and Social Sciences layer proportion$= \frac{2164 \times 100}{6993} = 31\%$

Sample size of Human and Social Sciences layer$= \frac{31 \times 364}{100} = 113$

1) Specialty of Human Sciences

Proportion of Human Sciences$= \frac{1164 \times 100}{6993} = 17\%$

Sample size of Human Sciences $= \frac{17 \times 364}{100} = 62$

$$n = = \frac{62}{10} = 6$$

$$62 = (6 \times 10) + (2)$$

That means 6 or 7 elements are selected from each sub-specialty/ level.

2) Specialty of Social Sciences

Proportion of Social Sciences$= \frac{553 \times 100}{6993} = 8\%$

Sample size of Social Sciences $= \frac{8 \times 364}{100} = 29$

$$n = = \frac{29}{8} = 3$$

$$29 = (3 \times 8) + (5)$$

That means 3 or 4 elements are selected from each sub-specialty/ level.

3) Specialty of Islamic Sciences

Proportion of Islamic Sciences$= \frac{447 \times 100}{6993} = 6\%$

Sample size of Social Sciences $= \frac{6 \times 364}{100} = 22$

$$n = = \frac{22}{9} = 2$$

$$22 = (2 \times 9) + (4)$$

That means 2 or 3 elements are selected from each sub-specialty/ level.

The following table summarizes ESP learners' number and sample size for each faculty:

Table 3.4

ESP Learners' Number and Sample Size in Each Faculty

Faculty	Number of ESP learners	Proportion	Sample size
Faculty of Human and Social Sciences	2164	31%	113
Faculty of law and Political Sciences	145	2%	7
Faculty of Natural Sciences	1225	18%	65
Faculty of Sciences and Technology	1585	22%	80
Faculty of Economy, Management and Commerce	1874	27%	99
Total	6993	100%	364

The elements within the sample were selected randomly. The researcher thought that the best way to do this is to distribute the questionnaire in lectures. In lectures, unlike TDs, the students attend from different groups, so to distribute the questionnaires randomly would give each a student an equal chance to be selected. Hence, she contacted the teachers of lectures (content teachers) in the five faculties and arranged with them to give her the last 20 minutes of their lectures in which the learners were asked to complete the questionnaire.

3.10 The Pilot Study

The pilot study is an essential stage in any research project. It can be defined as a mini-version of a full-scale study or a trial run done in preparation of complete study to be undertaken in order to ensure that a full-fledged study will be carried out successfully; in other words, it is a feasibility study (Polit et al as cited in Van Teijlingen & Hundley, 2002). However, according to Baker (1994), a pilot study can also be pre-testing or trying out particular research instrument. The pilot study proceeds after the researcher has a clear vision of research topic and questions, the techniques and methods to be applied and what research schedule to be followed. It is "reassessment without tears", trying out all research techniques and methods, which the researcher has in mind to see how practical they will work in practice and if necessary they can then be adapted and modified accordingly (Blaxter, Hughes & Tight, 1996, p.121).

The pilot study of the current research can therefore be defined both as a feasibility study as well as pre-testing of instruments, questionnaires and classroom observation. The following aims were set for the pilot study:

• To assess the feasibility of a full-scale project.

• To prevent any unwarranted problems that would cause measurement error.

• To identify any potential problem areas and deficiencies in the research instruments.

• To try out the classroom observation sheet adopted and see if it is

workable for the researcher context.

• To ensure that the meaning of question items in the questionnaire are clear to the respondents.

• To check whether additional questions are needed in the questionnaires or if some questions should be eliminated.

• To help the researcher become familiar with using observation methods and data analysis software (SPSS).

• To ensure that the proposed methods for data analysis are appropriate.

• To ensure that the research instruments would reveal adequate data.

The pilot study was conducted in the mid of October 2017 with a sample from the target population composed of 4 ESP teachers and 35 students. The researcher attended some ESP sessions at different faculties to try out the observation sheet. The ESP teachers were then invited to fill in the questionnaire and identify any item whose meaning was not clear or caused confusion. All the respondents claimed that all the items were clear. After that, the researcher organized a session to meet the students. The respondents were asked to fill out the questionnaire and ask for clarification if they encountered any problem. The questionnaire seemed satisfactory, the instructions were clear and adequate, and the questions caused no ambiguity. The researcher then insertered the data into the computer for analysis. Two questions in students' questionnaire seemed not necessary in analysis, so they were eliminated.

The results of the pilot study indicated that the research method was valid, reliable and appropriate for the main research.

3.11 Data Collection Instruments

Cohen et al. (2000) claimed that in planning research, choosing the method of data collection is a central concern. This is because the method directly influences research results. Therefore, an appropriate method should be selected to achieve research aims. In the present study, as was elaborated above, the researcher used classroom observation and questionnaires.

Let's now turn to discuss each of the research tools that the researcher has designed:

3.11.1 Classroom Observation

Classroom observation is a method used for assessing teachers' and learners' behaviors in the classroom through direct observations. It specifies both the events and behaviors to be observed and how they are recorded. Generally, the data that is collected from this procedure focuses on the frequency with which specific behaviors or types of behavior occur in the classroom and measures their duration. It is regarded by researchers as an important component in any scientific investigation since it is the sole tool that permits the investigator to see things as they occur naturally in their context and to have accurate picture of the situation.

Observation methods has been widely used in research studies and teacher development projects designed to improve classroom instruction. Classroom observation has several advantages:

1. It permits the researcher to study the processes of education in naturalistic settings.

2. It provides more detailed and precise evidence than other data sources.

3. It stimulates change and verifies that the change occurs.

The descriptions of instructional events that are provided by this method have also been found to lead to improved understanding and better models for improving teaching.

Despite these advantages, classroom observation has some limitations disadvantages:

1. It is a process that cannot be done in one day. It takes days and sometimes years.

2. Through observation particular problem cannot be analyzed.

3. Students' attitudes could not be studied with the help of observation.

4. You cannot get the complete answer to a problem through observation alone.

In the present study, the researcher, through observation visits, attempted to get a truthful information about what is actually happening in the ESP classroom. The classroom observations focused on the following aspects:

(i)   Course conduct and content.

(ii)   Teacher-student interaction.

(iii)   The problems and difficulties ESP teachers and learners face in the class.

To pursue this task, the researcher used a classroom observation checklist which was used in Ukraine in 2003 for a baseline study about the teaching of ESP (see appendix A) as an important tool to gather data through 'real time observation' (Wallace, 1998). Audio recordings and note taking were also two basic means used to accomplish this task.

During classroom observation, the researcher acted as a non-participant observer. According to Creswell (2013), a non-participant observer is an observer who visits the class and record notes without becoming involved in the activities of the participants. Thus, the researcher sat at the back of the class and recorded live observation of ESP lessons. The role of a non-participant observer assisted her to record everything that she saw and heard without interrupting the teacher. The only time that she discussed with the teacher was after the lesson for clarification.

Prior to any data collection process, the researcher obtained an official permission to perform her research and adhered to ethical research principles. She asked people working in office of the Studies Director to give her all the necessary information she needed about learners' statistics.

Then, she met the heads of the departments in the five faculties to get information about the ESP teachers and the timetables.

After these meetings, she contacted ESP teachers and sought permission from them to conduct her research in their classrooms. Since she cannot get a clear picture of the teaching/ learning practices from a single lecture, the researcher had to negotiate the number of sessions she could attend. The teachers welcomed the researcher in their classes and invited her to attend as many classes she needed to carry out her study.

The researcher attended four sessions with each teacher, and it was really a tedious job which required a lot of patience from the researcher because the teachers, who are often part-time teachers having other duties outside the University (teachers at private, middle or high schools), were most of the time absent. In many occasions, the researcher had to wait hours for the session then the teacher was absent.

As it was impossible for her to conduct classroom observation visits in all the five faculties at the same time because the researcher has also duties working two days in the week at the department of English, she decided to divide her classroom observations into two phases:

- The first phase of the observation process took place in the first semester of 2017- 2018. The classroom observation started in the mid of October and continued till December 2017. At this phase, the researcher observed classes in three faculties: faculty of Economy, Management and Commerce, faculty of Natural Sciences and faculty of Law and Political Sciences.

- The second phase took place in the rest two faculties: faculty of Human and Social Sciences and faculty of Sciences and Technology during the second semester. It started after the end of the first term exams by the end of January and continued till April 2018.

After observations, the researcher subsequently listened to the audiotape recordings of the lessons observed and referred to the field notes she kept to add to the information in the observation sheets.

For data reliability and validity, two questionnaires; one for ESP teachers and another for learners; were respectively designed to cross-check the information and process analysis. ESP Teachers and learners are regarded by the researcher as the most important informants in this investigation; therefore, administering a questionnaire to both of them was of paramount importance.

3.11.2 Questionnaires

A questionnaire is a research instrument consisting of a set of questions used to collect to gather information about something.

Questionnaires are widely used in research studies because they provide quick and efficient way of obtaining large amount of information from a large sample of people. The results of questionnaires can be also easily quantified by researchers either manually or through the use of software packages such as SPSS.

However, constructing a questionnaire is not easy at all. The problem is that the answers the respondents give can be influenced in unintended ways by the wording of the items which may reduce the reliability and validity of

the research results. Therefore, the researcher should be very cautious to ask correct and clear questions so that they are understood by the respondents in the same way they are intended.

The researcher used questionnaires to get more insightful information that teachers and learners themselves could reveal. After consulting with her supervisor and a number of reviewers to whom she sent the two questionnaires to check the format of the questions, lay out, sequencing of questions, etc. On the basis of their comments and suggestions and the

results of the pilot study, the final versions which are discussed below were constructed.

3.11.2.1 Teachers' Questionnaire

The questionnaire for ESP practitioners (see appendix B) was introduced because the researcher felt that the information it would provide would help her to complement the information obtained from classroom observation, on the one hand, and on the other hand, it would allow her to gather more truthful data from the teachers themselves about the issues and difficulties they experience in their daily job.

The teachers' questionnaire comprised fourteen questions which addressed the following points:

(i)   Background information: these questions aimed to gather general information about the teachers with particular emphasis on their ESP teaching experience, their qualifications and if they received any training before teaching ESP (Q1 to Q7).

(ii)   Teaching situation: the researcher sought to have a deep insight into the ESP teaching situation where teachers are involved. It included questions such as the types of activities they use in class, teaching materials and their availability, collaboration with other teachers and so on (Q8 to Q12).

(iii)   Problems and difficulties teachers face (Q13)

(iv)   Solutions and recommendations: in the last question of the questionnaire, the teachers were invited to give any suggestions that they think would improve the teaching/ learning of ESP at university level (Q14).

The researcher used a mix of open and closed questions. Open questions enabled the respondents to write free response in their own terms. As an example to open questions, the researcher used the following item:

Q 14: Please, add here any suggestions/ recommendations that you think would improve the teaching/ learning of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) at higher education in Algeria.

On the other hand, closed questions prescribed a range of responses from which the respondents had to choose; these including:

(i)   Yes/ no questions: the teachers had to tick the statement they choose.

(ii)   Multiple choice questions: a question was given various alternative answers, and the teachers were asked to select one (sometimes more) particular answer (s).

(iii) Ranking: a list of language component and skills was set out, and the teachers were asked to place them in a rank order ranging from 1 (most used) to 6 (less used) according to the number of activities they devote to each.

(iv)   Scalar: a question in which the teachers were asked to make an evaluative judgment about something by marking one of a series of categories organized into a scale. The various points on the continuum scale indicate different degrees of a certain category (e.g. frequency: a lot / not too much/ not at all).

The various types of questions are distributed as follows in the questionnaire:

Table 3.5

Types of Questions Used in Teachers' Questionnaire

Yes/No	Multiple Choice	Ranking	Scalar
Q7, Q9, Q10	Q3, Q4, Q5, Q6, Q11, Q13	Q8	Q12

All the ESP teachers across the five faculties were handed the questionnaire to which they were asked to answer anonymously. Their responses will be discussed in the next chapter.

3.11.2.2 Students' Questionnaire

The questionnaire administered to ESP learners was composed of twenty questions (see appendix C). It addressed the following aspects:

(i)   General information: the students had to identify the faculty they study in (Q1).

(ii)   Learners' needs: academic needs and professional needs (Q2 to Q8)

(iii)   The difficulties that learners encounter in the ESP course (Q9 to Q12)

(iv)   Learners' perceptions about ESP courses (Q13 to Q 20).

In the aforementioned questionnaire different types of questions were used (yes/no, multiple choice, scale rating). The following table summarizes how these various types of questions are distributed in the questionnaire:

Table 3.6

Types of Questions Used in Students' Questionnaire

Yes/ No	Multiple Choice	Scale Rating
Q3, Q13	Q1, Q2, Q8, Q9, Q10, Q11, Q12, Q14, Q15, Q16, Q17, Q18	Q4, Q5, Q6, Q7

The questionnaire was translated into Arabic language to avoid any kind of miss understanding and to enable the informants to express their ideas clearly. To help the respondents give as honest answers as possible, they were assured the confidentiality of the information they would give and that they were not required to write their names on the questionnaires.

The questionnaire, like classroom observation, was carried out on two separate occasions:

-The first phase took place at the end of the first semester (December 2017) with learners from 3 faculties (faculty of Economy, Management and Commerce, faculty of Law and Political Sciences and faculty of Natural Sciences). It started in the last week of November and took three weeks, devoting one week for each faculty.

-The second phase took place at the end of second semester (in April 2018) with learners in the rest faculties.

The results of the questionnaire will be discussed in the following chapter.

3.12 Data Analysis

Data analysis is an important stage in the research process. It is the process of systematically applying statistical and/ or logical techniques to describe and illustrate, condense and recap, and evaluate data. The purpose of data analysis is to extract useful information from data and drawing conclusions based on data analysis. This process is regarded by researchers as important as the process of data collection since data by itself will not provide any meaning unless it is delivered in a proper way.

There are several methods and techniques to perform analysis underlying different names. All these various methods for data analysis are largely based on two core areas: qualitative analysis and quantitative analysis. Qualitative analysis results in rich data that gives an in-depth picture, and it is particularly useful for exploring how and why things have happened; whereas, in quantitative analysis, the data are analyzed using mathematical and statistical methods.

In the present study, as previously mentioned, a mixed of qualitative and quantitative approach was applied to data collection and data analysis. The mixed approach has the advantage of using the combined strengths of qualitative and quantitative approaches while making up for the weaknesses of both approaches. Another advantage of the mixed method is the possibility it offers the researcher for the triangulation of the data (Khaldi, 2017).

3.12.1 Qualitative Analysis

This type of analysis is founded on the observations and the interpretations made by the investigator herself. Its purpose is to explore, describe and discover facts. Meriam (1998) described the process of data analysis as being "a complex action of moving back and forth between data and concepts, between description and interpretation, using both deductive

and inductive reasoning" (cited in Kawulich, 2004, p. 98). Patton (1987) pointed out that three things that occur during analysis: data are organized, data are reduced through summarization and categorization and patterns and themes in the data are identified and linked (Kawulich, 2004).

The qualitative method in this study was used for the analysis of all the instruments used in this research. Thus, the information obtained from all sources of data including observations, audio recordings, field notes and teachers' and learners' responses were coded and categorized and organized in order to make interpretations and draw conclusions.

3.12.2 Quantitative Analysis

This type of analysis is the process of presenting and interpreting numerical data which is measured or identified on a numerical scale. Items are described and expressed not by means of natural language description , but in terms of quantity, and a range of numerical values are used without implying that a particular numerical value refers to a particular distinct category. The quantitative data can be analyzed using statistical methods, and the results can be displayed using tables, charts, graphs and histograms.

In this study, this approach was also applied to assess data obtained from all data sources. Thus, data obtained from classroom observation checklists were displayed in pie charts to ease analysis and permit comparison. Data yielded through ESP teachers' and learners' questionnaires was analyzed using SPSS (the statistical package for the social sciences) software. Descriptive statistics including frequencies and proportions were estimated. For easy reference, data were presented in the form of tables.

The above mentioned data analysis methods constituted a great help for the investigator to summarize, compare and later on discuss the findings.

Conclusion

Throughout this chapter, the researcher has tried to explain how the research was carried out. The project could not be fully understood without providing this kind of explicit statement about the methodology adopted, the instruments used and the way data was gathered and analyzed. The results of the study will be displayed and discussed in the following chapter.

CHAPTER IV

DATA PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION

Introduction

The present chapter is devoted to the presentation and interpretation of data obtained from various research tools used in this investigation i.e. the questionnaires and classroom observations. It brings all the findings together to answer the research questions and produce trust worthy conclusions.

4.1 The Results of Classroom Observation

Classroom observation was a useful tool which allowed the researcher to gain direct and truthful insights about teaching and learning practices. A total of 48 observation sheets were obtained by the researcher. In what follows, data collected is summarized and presented in accordance with the different aspects previously mentioned and focused on by the researcher.

4.1.1 Course Content

Almost in all classes observed by the researcher, the content of the course did not vary much: the teacher, a part-time one in most cases, met a group of students, a large and heterogeneous which exceeded 50 students in most cases, for a weekly ninety minutes session. The teacher provided the learners with a text to read followed by vocabulary learning activity and answering reading comprehension questions about the text and doing grammar activities. Some teachers also employed translation and writing activities. However, it is worth mentioning that at the faculty of Law and political Sciences, the learners were asked to make oral presentations, and the teacher tried to involve them in classroom discussions.

During the activities, the researcher noticed that few learners were doing the exercises, uninterested learners were talking to each other or doing homeworks of other subjects.

4.1.2 Teaching Materials

Almost in all the classes attended by the researcher, there was a total absence of a course textbook to process ESP teaching/learning. Audio and video tools, which are supposed to help learners learn better, were not used by ESP teachers.

4.1.3 Teaching Methodology

The basic aim of the ESP subject is to enhance learners' language skills that enable them to communicate effectively in their future profession, participate in international seminars and exchange knowledge and experience with other specialists of the same field. This implies teaching language as a skill . However, in most of ESP classes visited by the researcher, non communicative activities prevailed. At the faculty of Natural Sciences, for instance, out of 21 activities registered during the observations, only 4 (19%) were communicative (skimming, scanning, discussions, etc). The rest focused heavily on structure development (vocabulary learning, translating, doing grammar exercises).

The situation in other faculties did not vary much: (17%) at the faculty of Economy, Management and Commerce , (21%) at the Faculty of sciences and technology and (14%) at the faculty of Human and Social Sciences. At the faculty of law and political sciences though the rate was a little bit higher than other faculties (44.4%), as the teacher asked the learners to make some oral presentations and tried to involve them in classroom discussions, yet few students participated and some of them used Arabic language to explain or express their opinions because of their low level in English proficiency.

ESP teaching , to a great extent, is teacher-centered. The teacher talked three times (3:1) than students do. Observation data showed that the majority of activities are teacher-centered with teacher-student and teacher-whole class modes of classroom interaction prevailing (see pie charts below). While in the ESP approach, the teaching method should be learner-centred focusing on

learners and learning process. The teacher is no longer considered as the main and only active agent in the classroom.

Figure 4.1

Interaction Patterns in the ESP Class

Faculty of Economy, Manegment and Commerce

- Teacher-student
- Teacher-whole class
- Student-student
- Individual work
- Pair work
- Group work
- Mangling
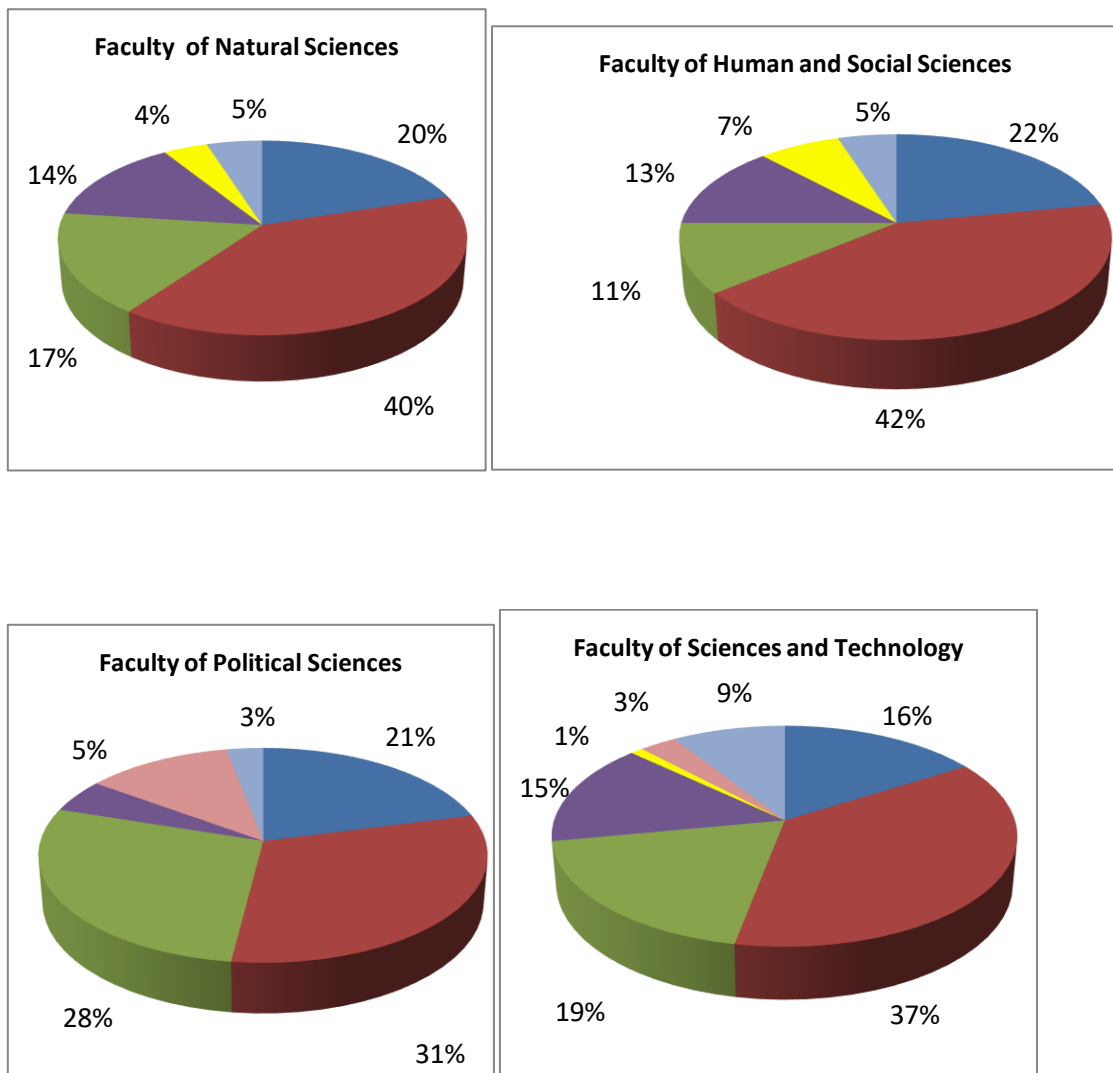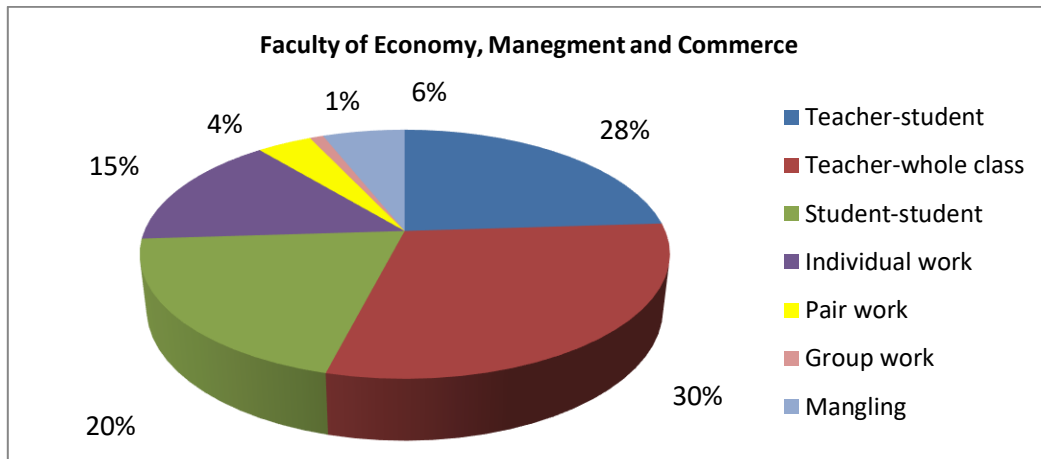
As error correction is concerned, the researcher remarked that teachers overused the traditional method of direct immediate correction at the expense of others methods in class. The mistakes were often corrected in the process of student answering and left without analysis. The reason behind this may be the limited short duration of the ESP class and the large number of students in groups.

Figure 4.2

Error Correction in the ESP Class

Faculty of Natural Sciences

Faculty of Human and Social Sciences

Faculty of Law and Political Sciences

Faculty of Sciences and Technology

Faculty of Economy, Management and Commerce

- Immediate
- Delayed
- By students
- No correction
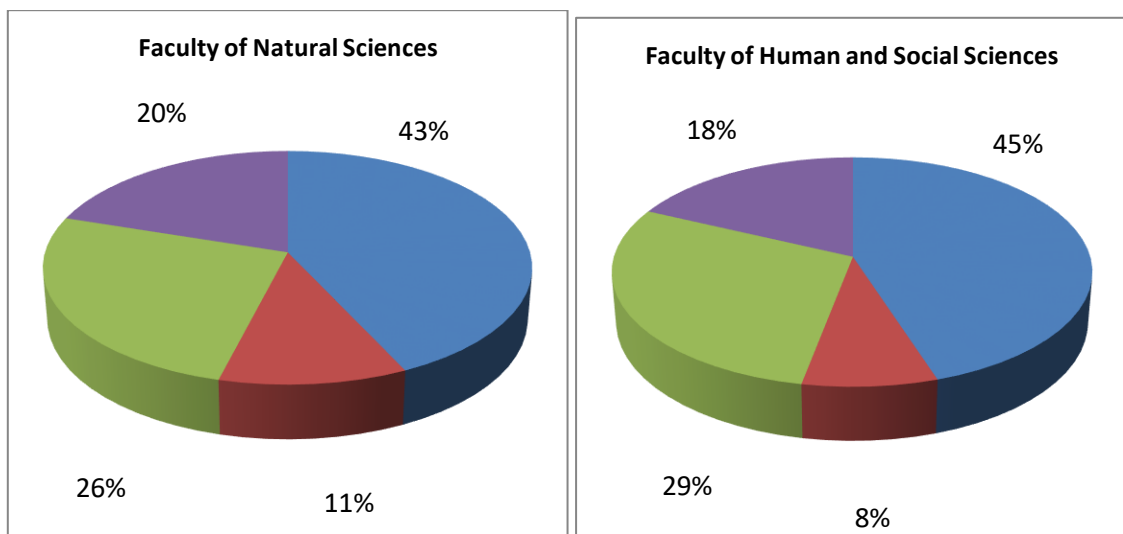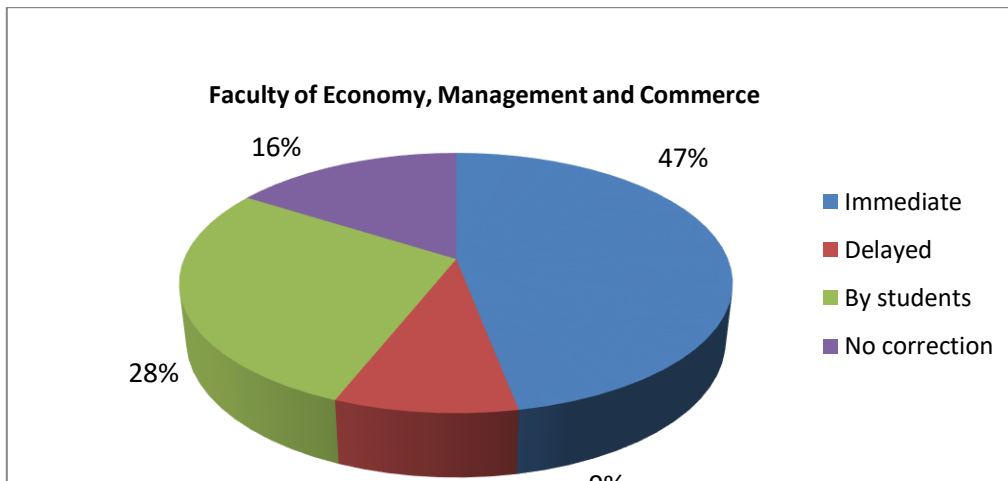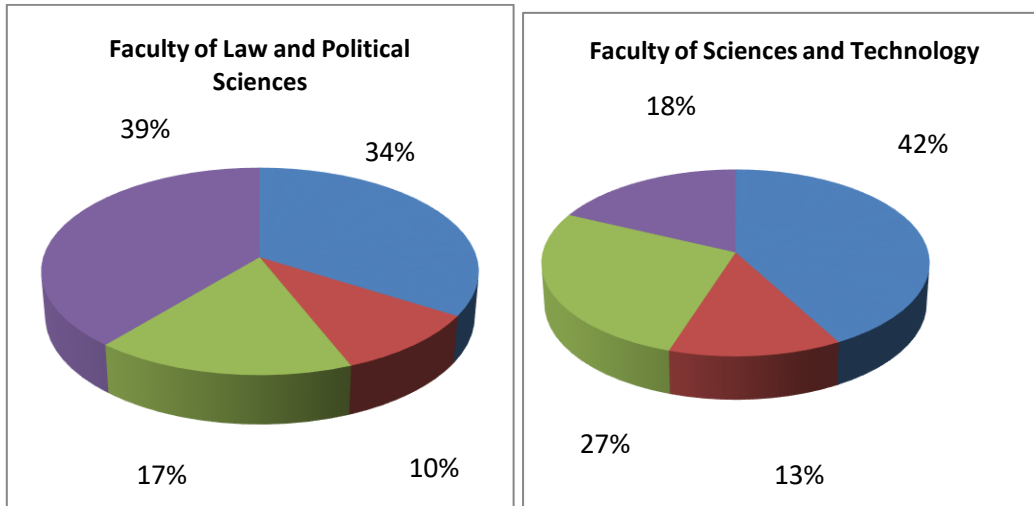
Observations regarding the tasks used for developing the four macro-skills (reading, speaking, writing, listening) revealed that listening and speaking skills were not given sufficient attention, which may result in low proficiency of learners in those fields.

Figure 4.3

Skills Developed in the ESP Class

Faculty of Economy, Management and Commerce

18%

39%

■ Reading
■ Writing
■ Speaking
■ Listening

43%
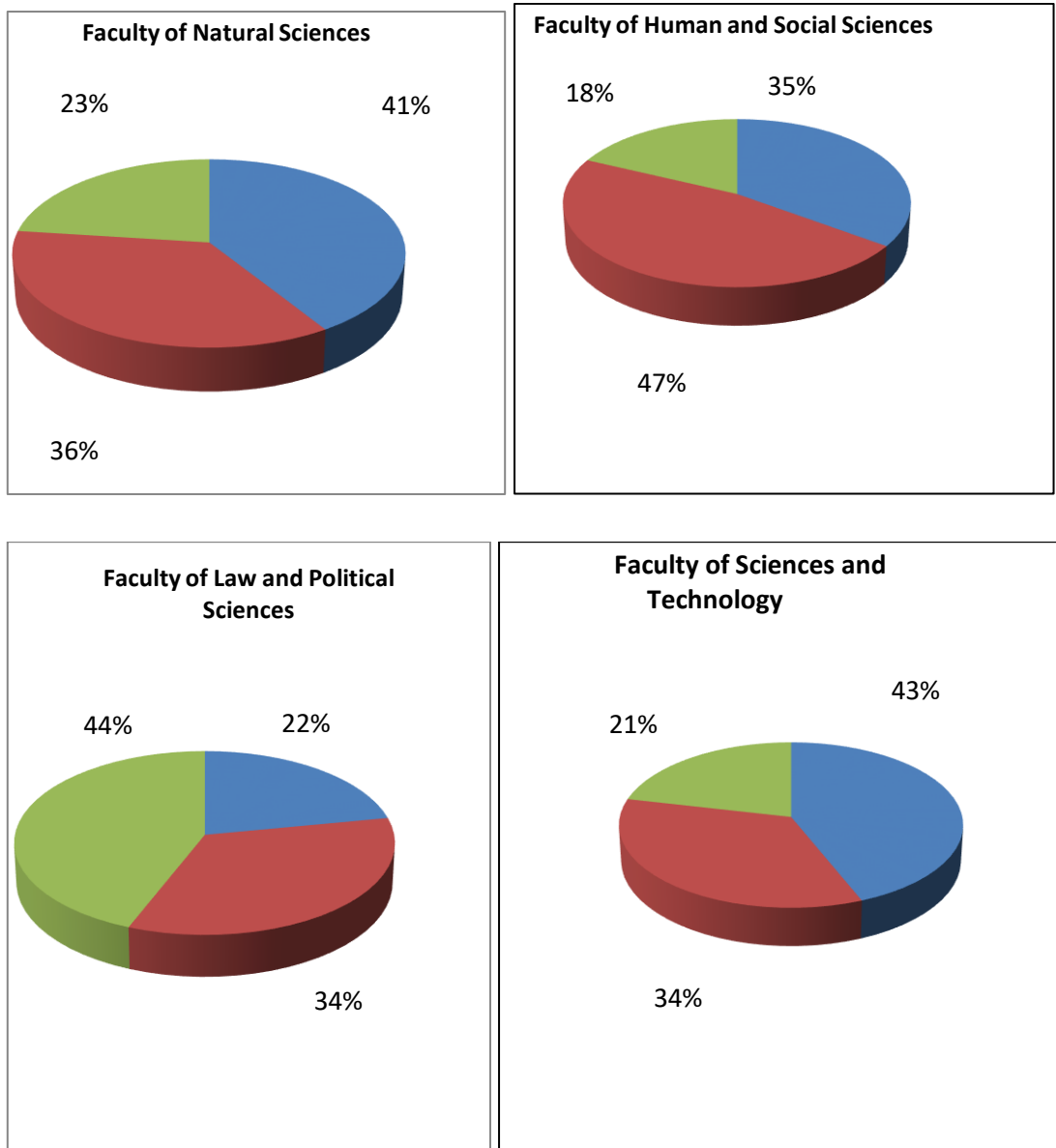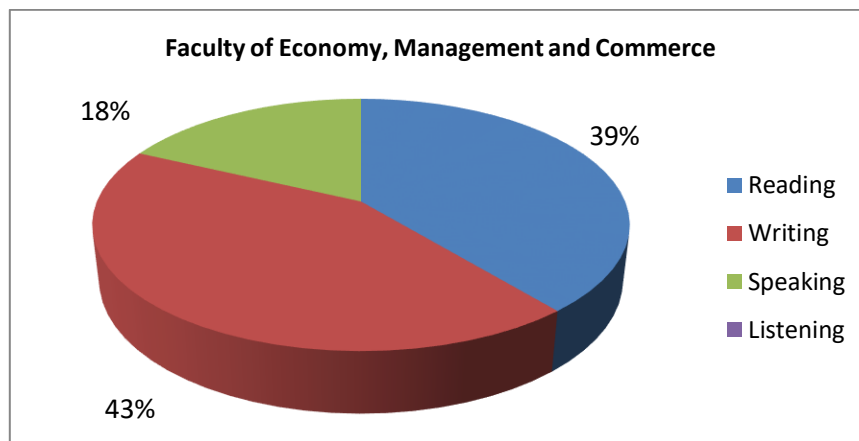
In class, the students were not exposed at all to authentic English as no audio materials were used to practice and develop listening skill. As for speaking skill, it was limited to the simplest discussions (questions/ answers), no group discussions were organized to give the students opportunity to express themselves in English and gain confidence to use it.

On the whole, the weaknesses observed in the ESP courses are:

• Old-fashioned way of teaching based on a grammatical/ structural approach.

• Do not cover the four macro skills.

• Lack of communicative activities.

• The approach is a teacher-centered not a learner-centered.

• A limited choice of text types. English is taught through a detailed analysis of these texts (in these cases, the specialism is indicated only in the vocabulary)

• A lack of teaching materials

• Classes with large students number (sometimes 3 groups are merged into one large group).

4.1.4 Teachers' Difficulties

The researcher could list some difficulties that teachers faced when they conducted their ESP classes:

• Difficulty in explaining vocabularies and concepts related to students' field (especially at the faculty of Law and Political Sciences, Faculty of Natural Sciences and Faculty of Sciences and Technology).

• Difficulty in maintaining classroom discipline. Learners who were not motivated often talked to each other ignoring the presence of the teacher.

• Difficulty in giving teacher feedback. Because of the huge number of students in the class, the teacher could not correct the exercises to all the students.

4.1.5 Learners' Difficulties

Through examining their verbal answers in the activities, the researcher noticed that the learners faced serious problems in dealing with English being it spoken or written form. The major difficulties lie in:

• **Grammar:** the learners faced difficulties in constructing correct sentences making wrong use of tenses, auxiliaries and prepositions.

• **Vocabulary:** the learners faced difficulties in understanding vocabularies in the texts which they asked the teacher to translate into Arabic language, and most of them used French and Arabic equivalents for the words that they didn't know when they talked.

• **Phonology:** the learners faced problems in pronouncing new technical terms which they tended to pronounce in French.

Though classroom observation provided the researcher with interesting data about the ESP teaching/learning situation, the researcher was aware that observing a limited number of teachers and learners was not sufficient to claim the findings for the setting in a broader context. The researcher felt the necessity

to get more in-depth information which ESP teachers and learners themselves could reveal; administering a questionnaire for them was of a paramount importance. The next sections discuss the findings of the teachers' and learners questionnaires in more detail.

4.2 The Results of Teachers' Questionnaire

18 teachers returned the questionnaire. The table below shows the number of questionnaires distributed and returned in each faculty:

Table 4.1

Number of Teachers' Questionnaires distributed and Returned in each Faculty

Faculty	Specialty	Distributed	Returned
Economy, Management & Commerce	Economy	2	1
	Management	1	1
	Commerce	1	1
	Finance & accounting	2	2
Law& Political Sciences	Political Sciences	1	1
Human& Social Sciences	Human Sciences History	2	2
	Media & communication	2	2
	Islamic Sciences	1	1
	Social Sciences	1	1
Natural Sciences	Biology	3	2
	Agricultural Sciences	2	1
Sciences& technology	Sciences& technology	4	2
	Computing & Mathematics	2	1
Total		24	18

After data were analyzed by SPSS software, the following results were obtained:

Background information: the first part of the questionnaire aimed to gather general information about the ESP teachers under study such as: status, occupation, qualification, ESP teaching experience and whether teachers received any formal training before teaching it.

The next table summarizes teachers' responses to Q1, Q2, Q3, Q4 and Q5.

Table 4.2

Teachers' Background Information

Faculty	N	Status		Occupation		Qualification		
		Full-time	Part-time	Teacher of English	Teacher of specialty	L	M	D
Economy,Management& Commerce	5	1	4	4	1	1	3	1
		20%	80%	80%	20%	20%	60%	20%
Law&Political Sciences	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	0
		0%	100%	100%	0%	100%	0%	0%
Human& Social Sciences	6	0	6	6	0	2	4	0
		0%	100%	100%	0%	33.3%	66.7%	0%
Natural Sciences	3	1	2	2	1	1	2	0
		33.3%	66.7%	66.7%	33.3%	33.3%	66.7%	0%
Sciences& technology	3	1	2	2	1	1	2	0
		33.3%	66.7%	66.7%	33.3%	33.3%	66.7%	0%

The table shows that the majority of ESP teachers were part-time teachers and held license or master degree in English.

At the faculty of Economy, Management and Commerce, there were five teachers. Four of them were part-time teachers of English; three of them had

master degree and the other license degree. Only one teacher was full-time teacher; he was subject teacher and had doctorate degree.

At the faculty of Law and Political Sciences, there was only one teacher. She was part-time teacher of English and had master degree.

At the faculty of   Human and Social Sciences, there were six teachers. All of them were part-time teachers of English. Four of them had master degree in English and two had license degree.

At the faculty of Natural Sciences, there were three teachers. Two of them were part-time teachers of English. One of them had master degree and one had license degree. The other teacher was subject teacher. He was full-time teacher and held magistére degree.

At the faculty of Sciences and technology, there were three teachers as well. Two of them were part-time teachers of English. One of them had master degree and one had license degree. The other teacher was full-time subject teacher and had magistére degree.

Q6: How many years have you been teaching ESP?

Table 4.3

Teachers' ESP Teaching Experience

Options	Economy, Management &Commerce		Law & political Science		Human& Social Sciences		Natural Sciences		Sciences & Technology	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
0-2 Novice	4	80	0	0	4	66.7	2	66.7	2	66.7
3-10 Intermediate	1	20	1	100	1	16.7	1	33.3	1	33.3

>10 Highly experience	0	0	0	0	1	16.7	0	0	0	0

Regarding teachers' experience in ESP, Ericson et al. (1991) categorized teachers under three main groups: novice, intermediate and highly experienced. Teachers' responses demonstrated that at the faculty of Economy, Management and Commerce four teachers were novice and one had intermediate experience. The teacher at the faculty of Law and Political Sciences had intermediate experience. At the faculty of Human and Social Sciences four teachers were novice, two were intermediate and one teacher was highly experienced. Two teachers were novice and one was intermediate at the faculty of Natural Sciences. Two teachers were novice and one was intermediate at the faculty of Sciences and technology as well.

Q7: Have you had any specialized training before teaching English for Specific Purposes?

Table 4.4

ESP Teachers' Training

Options	Economy, Management & Commerce		Law & political Sciences		Human& Social Sciences		Natural Sciences		Sciences & Technology	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
No	5	100	1	100	6	100	3	100	3	100
Yes	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

All the teachers were not formally trained to teach ESP. The reason for the lack of ESP teacher training in Algeria is the absence of ESP tradition in this country. There are no available training courses, nor workshops and seminars

that introduce ESP practitioners to the theory and practice of ESP to prepare them for their prospective job. According to Valdes (1986), a good "command of the target language is a necessity but not sufficient condition" (p.103) . ESP teachers should undertake a specialized training where other areas such as needs analysis, syllabus design, material production and specialized language 'terminology' are carefully addressed.

Having high proportion of novice teachers across the five faculties apparently had a negative effect on the quality of ESP teaching. Those teachers who had a limited teaching experience and who received no ESP training were often unable to cater for their learners' needs.

Q8: Would you classify the following language components and skills in terms of the number of activities you devote to each in the ESP course? Please, rate them on scale from 1 (most used) to 6 (less used).

Table 4.5

Teachers' Ranking of Language Components and Skills at the Faculty of Economy, Management and Commerce

Language components/Skills	1		2		3		4		5		6	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Vocabulary	3	60	2	40	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Grammar	2	40	3	60	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Writing	0	0	0	0	1	20	3	60	1	20	0	0
Reading	0	0	0	0	3	60	1	20	0	0	1	20
Listening	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	20	0	0	4	80
Speaking	0	0	0	0	1	20	0	0	4	80	0	0

At the faculty of Economy, Management and Commerce, teachers ranked vocabulary the first as it received the higher proportion (60%), Grammar came in the second rank (60%), then reading (60%) in the third rank, writing in the

fourth (60%),   speaking (80%) in the fifth rank ,and at last listening (80%) was the sixth.

Table 4.6

 Teachers' Ranking of Language Components and Skills at the Faculty of Law and Political Sciences

Language components/ Skills	1		2		3		4		5		6	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Vocabulary	1	100	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Grammar	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	100	0	0
Writing	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	100	0	0	0	0
Reading	0	0	0	0	1	100	0	0	0	0	0	0
Listening	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	100
Speaking	0	0	1	100	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

At the faculty of Law and Political sciences, vocabulary, speaking, reading, writing, grammar and listening were classified respectively.

Table 4.7

 Teachers' Ranking of Language Components and Skills at the Faculty of Social and Human Sciences

Language components /Skills	1		2		3		4		5		6	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Vocabulary	4	66.7	2	33.3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Grammar	0	0	1	16.7	2	33.3	2	33.3	1	16.7	0	0
Writing	0	0	0	0	3	50	3	50	0	0	0	0
Reading	2	33.3	3	50	0	0	1	16.7	0	0	0	0

| Listening | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 6 | 100 |
| Speaking | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 16.7 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 83.3 | 0 | 0 |

At the Faculty of Human and Social Sciences, they were classified in the following order: vocabulary, reading, grammar, speaking and at last listening.

Table 4.8

Teachers' Ranking of Language Components and Skills at the Faculty of Natural Sciences

Language components/ Skills	1		2		3		4		5		6	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Vocabulary	0	0	0	0	2	66.7	0	0	1	33.3	0	0
Grammar	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	100	0	0	0	0
Writing	1	33.3	2	66.7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Reading	2	66.7	1	33.3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Listening	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	100
Speaking	0	0	0	0	1	33.3	0	0	2	66.7	0	0

Teachers of the Faculty of Natural Sciences ranked reading ,the first; writing, the second; vocabulary, the third; grammar, the fourth; speaking, the fifth and listening was the last one.

Table 4.9

Teachers' Ranking of Language Components and Skills at the Faculty of Sciences and Technology

Language components/ Skills	1		2		3		4		5		6	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Vocabulary	1	33.3	2	66.7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Grammar	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	33.3	2	66.7	0	0
Writing	0	0	0	0	2	66.7	1	33.3	0	0	0	0
Reading	2	66.7	0	0	1	33.3	0	0	0	0	0	0
Listening	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	100
Speaking	0	0	1	33.3	0	0	1	33.3	1	33.3	0	0

At the Faculty of Science and Technology, reading was ranked the first; vocabulary, the second; writing, the third; speaking , the fourth; grammar, the fifth and listening was the sixth.

It is clear from the results that speaking and listening are not given enough attention by teachers which resulted in low performance of learners in these skills.

Q9: Is there any ESP syllabus (course outline) provided to you by your department?

Table 4.10

Teachers' Use of ESP Syllabus

Options	Economy, Management & Commerce		Law & political Sciences		Human& Social Sciences		Natural Sciences		Sciences & Technology	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
No	5	100	1	100	6	100	3	100	3	100
Yes	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

Teachers' answers to this question revealed that all the teachers across the five faculties were not provided with ESP syllabus to follow in their teaching. Without definite ESP syllabus, ESP teachers rely on their own knowledge to make decisions about the content of the ESP course and to design suitable teaching materials which represent a big challenge for teachers; especially, those who are new in the field , having limited experience in ESP teaching and received no formal training in course design.

Q11: Which of the following materials and technical aids do you use in your English for Specific Purposes classes?

Table 4.11

Materials Used by Teachers in the ESP Class (Faculty of Economy, Management and Commerce)

Materials	Used		not used		provided by University		private resource		not available	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
ESP textbooks	1	20	4	80	0	0	1	20	4	80
audio tapes	1	20	4	80	0	0	1	20	4	80

| video tapes | 0 | 0 | 5 | 100 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 100 |
| Computers | 0 | 0 | 5 | 100 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 100 |

Regarding the materials that teachers use in their courses, only one teacher at the faculty of Economy, Management and Commerce reported that he/she used ESP textbooks and audio tapes and were private resources.

Table 4.12

Materials Used by Teachers in the ESP Class (Faculty of   Law and Political Sciences)

Materials	Used		not used		provided by University		private resource		not available	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
ESP textbooks	0	0	1	100	0	0	0	0	1	100
audio tapes	0	0	1	100	0	0	0	0	1	100
video tapes	0	0	1	100	0	0	0	0	1	100
Computers	0	0	1	100	0	0	0	0	1	100

The teacher at the faculty of Law and Political Sciences said that she didn't use any of these materials .

Table 4.13

Materials Used by Teachers in the ESP Class (Faculty of   Human and Social Sciences)

Materials	Used		not used		provided by University		private resource		Not Available	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
ESP textbooks	1	16.7	5	83.3	0	0	1	16.7	5	83.3
audio tapes	0	0	6	100	0	0	0	0	6	100
video tapes	0	0	6	100	0	0	0	0	6	100
Computers	0	0	6	100	0	0	0	0	6	100

At the faculty of Human and Social Sciences, only one teacher reported that he/she used ESP textbooks and were private resources.

Table 4.14

Materials Used by Teachers in the ESP Class (Faculty of Natural Sciences)

Materials	Used		not used		provided by University		private resource		not available	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
ESP textbooks	0	0	3	100	0	0	0	0	3	100
audio tapes	0	0	3	100	0	0	0	0	3	100
video tapes	0	0	3	100	0	0	0	0	3	100
Computers	0	0	3	100	0	0	0	0	3	100

Table 4.15

Materials Used by Teachers in the ESP Class (Faculty of Sciences and Technology)

Materials	Used		not used		provided by University		private resource		not available	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
ESP textbooks	0	0	3	100	0	0	0	0	3	100
audio tapes	0	0	3	100	0	0	0	0	3	100
video tapes	0	0	3	100	0	0	0	0	3	100
Computers	0	0	3	100	0	0	0	0	3	100

None of the materials was used at the faculty of Natural Sciences and Sciences and Technology faculty.

The results revealed that the institutions provide no teaching materials and audio / visual aids to the ESP teachers.

Q12: Do you work together with teachers of specialty to decide about the content of the English for Specific Purposes (ESP)course and prepare appropriate teaching materials?

Table 4.16

Language Teachers' Collaboration with Content Teachers

Options	Economy, Management & Commerce		Law & political Sciences		Human& Social Sciences		Natural Sciences		Sciences & Technology	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
a lot	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

not too much	1	20	0	0	1	16.7	0	0	0	0
not at all	4	80	1	100	5	83.3	3	100	3	100

When the ESP teachers were asked if the co-operate with their colleagues of specialty to make decisions about the content of the   English for Specific Purposes (ESP) course and   choose relevant teaching materials,   (80%) of teachers at the faculty of Economy, Management and Commerce replied that they did not collaborate with them at all and (20%) replied not too much. The teacher at the faculty of Law and Political Sciences responded by not at all. (83.3%) said not at all and (16.7) said not too much at the faculty of Human and Social Sciences. In both faculties of Natural Sciences and Sciences and Technology, all the teachers responded that they did not co-operate with them at all.

Q13: What issues and difficulties do you face in teaching English for Specific Purposes (ESP)?

Table 4.17

Issues   and   Difficulties   ESP   Teachers   Faced   at   the   faculty   of   Economy, Management and Commerce

Difficulties	F	%
a-Lack of familiarity with specific vocabularies and concepts of students' specialism	2	40
b-Difficulty in choosing relevant course content	3	60
c- Difficulty in designing appropriate teaching materials	3	60
d- Difficulty in learners' assessment	2	40
e- Difficulty in giving teacher feedback	1	20

f-Lack of ESP text books	3	60
g-Lack of teaching resources (audio/ visual aids, language lab, etc)	3	60
h-Large number of students in the class	2	40
i-Lack of motivation on the part of students	4	80
j-Students' low competence in general English	4	80
k-Limited class time	2	40

(40%) of teachers at the faculty of Economy, Management and Commerce claimed that they faced difficulties with specific vocabularies and concepts of their students' specialism. (60%) faced difficulty in course content selection. (60%) faced difficulty in designing appropriate teaching activities. (40%) faced difficulty in learners' assessment and (20%) in giving feedback. (60%) complained about the lack of ESP textbooks and (60%)   about the lack of teaching resources and facilities. (40%) claimed that they faced difficulties due to large number of students' in class, (80%) due to students' low motivation , (80%) due to students' poor level in English and (40%) due to limited class duration.

Table 4.18

Issues and Difficulties ESP Teachers Faced at the faculty of Law and Political Sciences

Difficulties	F	%
a-Lack of familiarity with specific vocabularies and concepts of students' specialism	1	100
b-Difficulty in choosing relevant course content	0	0

c- Difficulty in designing appropriate teaching materials	0	0
d- Difficulty in learners' assessment	1	100
e- Difficulty in giving teacher feedback	1	100
f-Lack of ESP text books	1	100
g-Lack of teaching resources (audio/ visual aids, language lab, etc)	1	100
h-Large number of students in the class	1	100
i-Lack of motivation on the part of students	1	100
j-Students' low competence in general English	1	100
k-Limited class time	1	100

At the faculty of Law and Political Sciences, the teacher claimed that she faced issues regarding understanding specific vocabularies and concepts of her students' specialty, students' assessment, giving feedback, lack of ESP textbooks, lack of teaching resources and facilities, large number of students' in class, students' low motivation ,students' poor level in English and limited class duration.

Table 4.19

Issues and Difficulties ESP Teachers Faced at the faculty of Human and Social Sciences

Difficulties	F	%
a-Lack of familiarity with specific vocabularies and concepts of students' specialism	1	16.7
b-Difficulty in choosing relevant course content	2	33.3

c- Difficulty in designing appropriate teaching materials	3	50
d- Difficulty in learners' assessment	1	16.7
e- Difficulty in giving teacher feedback	1	16.7
f-Lack of ESP text books	1	16.7
g-Lack of teaching resources (audio/ visual aids, language lab, etc)	6	100
h-Large number of students in the class	5	83.3
i-Lack of motivation on the part of students	6	100
j-Students' low competence in general English	6	100
k-Limited class time	3	50

At the faculty and Human and Social Sciences, (16.7%) of the teachers faced difficulty with specific vocabularies and concepts of their students' specialism. (33.3%) faced difficulty in course content selection and (50%) in teaching materials design. (16.7%) faced difficulty in learners' assessment and (16.7%) in giving feedback. (16.7%) complained about the lack of ESP textbooks and (100%) about the lack of teaching resources and facilities. (83.3%) claimed that they faced difficulties due to large number of students' in class, (100%) due to students' low motivation , (100%) due to students' poor level in English and (50%) due to limited class duration.

Table 4.20

Issues and Difficulties ESP Teachers Faced at the faculty of Natural Sciences

Difficulties	F	%
a-Lack of familiarity with specific vocabularies and concepts of students' specialism	2	66.7
b-Difficulty in choosing relevant course content	2	66.7
c- Difficulty in designing appropriate teaching materials	3	100
d- Difficulty in learners' assessment	1	33.3
e- Difficulty in giving teacher feedback	2	66.7
f-Lack of ESP text books	3	100
g-Lack of teaching resources (audio/ visual aids, language lab, etc)	3	100
h-Large number of students in the class	1	33.3
i-Lack of motivation on the part of students	3	100
j-Students' low competence in general English	3	100
k-Limited class time	1	33.3

Teachers' answers at the faculty of Natural Sciences revealed that (66.7%) of the teachers faced difficulty in understanding specific vocabularies and concepts of their students' specialism, (66.7%) in course content selection ,   (100%) in teaching materials design, (33.3%)in learners' assessment , (66.7%) in giving feedback, (100%) due to lack of ESP textbooks , (100%)   because of lack of teaching resources and facilities, (33.3%) due to large number of students' in

class, (100%) due to students' low motivation , (100%) due to students' poor level in English and (33.3%) due to limited class duration.

Table 4.21

Issues and Difficulties ESP Teachers Faced at the faculty of Sciences and Technology

Difficulties	F	%
a-Lack of familiarity with specific vocabularies and concepts of students' specialism	2	66.7
b-Difficulty in choosing relevant course content	2	66.7
c- Difficulty in designing appropriate teaching materials	2	66.7
d- Difficulty in learners' assessment	2	66.7
e- Difficulty in giving teacher feedback	1	33.3
f-Lack of ESP text books	2	66.7
g-Lack of teaching resources (audio/ visual aids, language lab, etc)	3	100
h-Large number of students in the class	1	33.3
i-Lack of motivation on the part of students	1	33.3
j-Students' low competence in general English	2	66.7
k-Limited class time	1	33.3

At the faculty of Sciences and Technology (66.7%) of the teachers faced difficulty in understanding specific vocabularies and concepts of their students'

specialism, (66.7%) in course content selection ,(66.7 %) in teaching materials design, (66.7%)in learners' assessment , (33.3%) in giving feedback, (66.7%) due to lack of ESP textbooks , (100%)   because of lack of teaching resources and facilities, (33.3%) due to large number of students' in class, (33.3%) due to students' low motivation , (66.7%) due to students' poor level in English and (33.3%) due to limited class duration.

Q14: Please add here any suggestions/ recommendations that you think would improve the teaching / learning of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) at Higher Education in Algeria

   Regarding teachers' recommendations to improve ESP teaching/ learning, a teacher at the faculty of Natural Sciences recommended that there should be more consideration towards the ESP teacher and ESP course in terms of time and teaching materials. Two other teachers, one at the faculty of Economy, Management and Commerce and another at the faculty of Human and Social Sciences, stated that the University should provide teachers with a syllabus to follow for teaching and audio/visual aids. The teacher at the faculty of Law and Political Sciences suggested that there should be a language laboratory especially reserved for the ESP course to enable the learners to practice their language skills.

4.3 The Results of Students' Questionnaire

   Among 364 questionnaires that were issued, 313 were obtained valid.

Q1: Faculty

   The table below summarizes the number of questionnaires distributed and obtained valid in each faculty.

Table 4.22

Number of Students' Questionnaires Distributed and Obtained Valid in each Faculty

Faculty	Distributed	Returned	Canceled	Valid
Economy, Management & Commerce	99	83	4	79
Law & Political Sciences	7	7	0	7
Human & Social Sciences	113	102	3	99
Natural Sciences	65	60	0	60
Sciences & Technology	80	69	1	68

Q2: What kind of vocabulary do you want to learn?

Table 4.23

Types of Vocabularies Students Need to Learn

Types of vocabulary	Economy, Management & Commerce		Law & political Sciences		Human& Social Sciences		Natural Sciences		Sciences & Technology	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Daily-life vocabularies	7	7.9	2	28.6	5	5.1	4	6.7	2	2.9
Specialized vocabularies	16	18	1	14.3	24	24.2	30	50	35	51.5
Both	66	74.2	4	57.1	70	70.7	26	43.3	31	46.6

At the faculty of Economy, Management and Commerce, (7.9%) of the students needed to learn daily-life vocabularies, (18%) specialized vocabularies and (74.2%) both.

At the faculty of Law and Political, (28.6%) of the students needed daily-life vocabularies, (14.3%) specialized vocabularies and (57.1%) both.

At the faculty of Human and Social sciences, (5.1%) of the students needed daily-life vocabularies, (24.2%) specialized vocabularies and (70.7%) both.

At the faculty of Natural Sciences, half of the students (50%) needed specialized vocabularies, (6.7%) daily-life vocabularies and (43.3%) both.

At the faculty of Sciences and Technology, the majority of the students (51.5%) needed to learn specialized vocabularies, (2.9%) daily-life vocabularies and (46.6%) both.

Q3: Do you think you still need to learn grammar (rules of the language)?

Table 4.24

 Students' Responses towards Learning Grammar

Options	Economy, Management & Commerce		Law & political Sciences		Human& Social Sciences		Natural Sciences		Sciences & Technology	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
No	29	32.6	1	14.3	28	28.3	22	36.7	31	45.6
Yes	60	67.4	6	85.7	71	71.7	38	63.3	37	54.4

When the students were asked if they still need to learn grammar, (32.2%) replied no and (67.4%) replied yes at the faculty of Economy, Management and Commerce.

At the faculty of Law and Political Sciences, (14.3%) of the students responded by no and (85.7%) responded by yes.

At the faculty of Human and Social Sciences, (71.7%) of the students replied yes and (28.3%) replied no.

At the faculty of Natural Sciences, (63.3%) of the students replied yes and (36.7%) replies no.

At the faculty of Sciences and Technology, (54.4%) of the students responded by yes and (45.6%) responded by no.

The results show that a big number of students still need to master grammatical rules and   learn general vocabularies needed for everyday life which can be explained by the fact that the majority of ESP learners are not competent enough in General English.

Q4, Q5, Q6 and Q7 aimed to gather information about students' academic purposes for learning English.

Please rate the following purposes according to their importance in your academic studies: not important/ important/ very important

Table 4.25

Students' Academic Needs at the Faculty of Economy, Management and Commerce

Academic purposes	not important		Important		very important	
	F	%	F	%	F	%
Reading skill						
a- To widen your vocabulary, mainly terms related to your field of study.	0	0	37	41.6	52	58.4
b-To develop your Knowledge in your field of study.	2	2.2	41	46.1	46	51.7

c-To write exposés .	5	5.6	57	64	27	30.3
Listening skill						
a- To be able to understand the content of lectures.	0	0	53	59.6	36	40.4
b- To be able to understand audio and visual materials related to your field of study.	3	3.4	38	42.7	48	53.9
c- To be able to understand oral presentations in conferences and seminars.	4	4.5	37	41.6	48	53.9
Speaking skill						
a- To be able to ask questions (for clarification, information, etc).	2	2.2	45	50.6	42	47.2
b- To be able to answer questions, give opinions, agree, disagree, etc.	0	0	42	47.2	47	52.8
c-To be able participate in group discussions/ debates related to your study field.	4	4.5	37	41.6	48	53.9
d- To be able to make oral presentations.	6	6.7	48	53.9	35	39.3
Writing skill						
a- To be able to summarize an idea.	8	9	57	64	24	27
b- To be able to write an idea using your words and style.	2	2.2	42	47.2	45	50.6
c- To be able to take notes when listening to lectures, to audio materials or when reading a text.	4	4.5	49	55.1	36	40.4
d- To perform written tasks in class (paragraphs, essays, exposés, etc).	0	0	48	53.9	41	46.1
e-To be able to write research papers to participate in seminars and conferences.	6	6.7	51	57.3	32	36

In reading skill, the students of Economics rated the need to learn specialized vocabularies and the need to develop knowledge in their field as very important for their academic studies as they recorded (58.4%) and (51.7%) respectively. They rated the need to write exposés as important; it recorded (64%).

Regarding listening skill, they rated the need to understand A/V materials related to their field and the need to understand oral presentations in seminars and conferences as very important, as both recorded (53.9%) , and the need to understand lectures as important (59.6%).

As speaking is concerned, they rated the need to answer questions and the need to participate in discussions related to their field as very important, (52.8%) and (53.9%) respectively, and the need to ask questions and to make oral presentations as important, (50.6%) and (53.9%) respectively.

In writing skill, they rated the need to be able to write an idea using their own word and style as very important (50.6%), and they rated the need to summarize an idea, the need to take notes, the need to write paragraphs and essays and research papers as important; they recorded (64%), (55.1%), (53.9%) and (57.3%) respectively.

Table 4.26

Students' Academic Needs at the Faculty of Law and Political Sciences

Academic purposes	not important		Important		very important	
	F	%	F	%	F	%
Reading skill						
a- To widen your vocabulary, mainly terms related to your field of study.	0	0	7	100	0	0
b-To develop your Knowledge in your field of study.	0	0	6	85.7	1	14.3

c-To write exposés .	0	0	4	57.1	3	42.9
Listening skill						
a- To be able to understand the content of lectures.	0	0	3	42.9	4	57.1
b- To be able to understand audio and visual materials related to your field of study.	0	0	2	28.6	5	71.4
c- To be able to understand oral presentations in conferences and seminars.	0	0	3	42.9	4	57.1
Speaking skill						
a- To be able to ask questions (for clarification, information, etc).	0	0	1	14.3	6	85.7
b- To be able to answer questions, give opinions, agree, disagree, etc.	0	0	1	14.3	6	85.7
c-To be able participate in group discussions/ debates related to your study field.	0	0	2	28.6	5	71.4
d- To be able to make oral presentations.	0	0	0	0	7	100
Writing skill						
a- To be able to summarize an idea.	0	0	2	28.6	5	71.4
b- To be able to write an idea using your words and style.	0	0	2	28.6	5	71.4
c- To be able to take notes when listening to lectures, to audio materials or when reading a text.	0	0	0	0	7	100
d- To perform written tasks in class (paragraphs, essays, exposés, etc).	0	0	1	14.3	6	85.7
e-To be able to write research papers to participate in seminars and conferences.	0	0	1	14.3	6	85.7

In reading skill, the students at the faculty of Law and Political Sciences rated the need to learn specialized vocabularies (100%), the need to develop knowledge in their field (85.7%) and the need to write exposés (57.1%) as important for their academic studies.

As for listening skill, they rated the need to understand lectures' content (57.1%), the need to understand A/V materials (71.4%) and the need to understand oral presentations in conferences and seminars (57.1%) as very important.

Regarding speaking skill, the respondents rated the needs to ask question (85.7%), to answer questions (85.7%), to take part in discussions related to their field (71.4%) and to be able to make oral presentations (100%) as very important.

Concerning writing skill, they rated the needs to be able to summarize texts (71.4%), to express their ideas using their own words and style (71.4%), to be able to take notes (100%), to write paragraphs and essays (85.7%) and to write research papers to participate in seminars and conferences (85.7%) as very important.

Table 4.27

Students' Academic Needs at the Faculty of Human and Social Sciences

Academic purposes	not important		Important		very important	
	F	%	F	%	F	%
Reading skill						
a- To widen your vocabulary, mainly terms related to your field of study.	0	0	47	47.5	52	52.5
b-To develop your Knowledge in your field of study.	0	0	41	41.4	58	58.6
c-To write exposés .	7	7.1	59	59.6	33	33.3

Listening skill						
a- To be able to understand the content of lectures.	0	0	46	46.5	53	53.5
b- To be able to understand audio and visual materials related to your field of study.	6	6.1	54	54.5	39	39.4
c- To be able to understand oral presentations in conferences and seminars.	4	0	39	39.4	56	56.6
Speaking skill						
a- To be able to ask questions (for clarification, information, etc).	1	1	43	43.4	55	55.6
b- To be able to answer questions, give opinions, agree, disagree, etc.	0	0	51	51.5	48	48.5
c-To be able participate in group discussions/ debates related to your study field.	3	3	45	45	51	51
d- To be able to make oral presentations.	4	4	56	56.6	39	39.4
Writing skill						
a- To be able to summarize an idea.	6	6.1	75	75.8	18	18.2
b- To be able to write an idea using your words and style.	0	0	50	50.5	49	49.5
c- To be able to take notes when listening to lectures, to audio materials or when reading a text.	4	4	55	55.6	40	40.4
d- To perform written tasks in class (paragraphs, essays, exposés, etc).	0	0	47	47.5	52	52.5
e-To be able to write research papers to participate in seminars and conferences.	3	3	59	59.6	37	37.4

In reading skill, the students at the faculty of Human and Social Sciences rated the need to learn specialized vocabularies (52.5%) and to develop knowledge in their field (58.6%) as very important, and the need to write exposés (59.6%) as important.

In listening, they rated the need to understand the content of lectures (53.5%) and the need to understand oral presentations (58.6%) as very important, and they rated the need to understand A/V materials (54.4%) as important.

In speaking, they rated the needs to ask questions (55.6%) and to participate in debates related to their field (51%) as very important and to answer questions (51.5%) and to be able to make oral presentations (56.6%) as important.

In writing skill, they rated the need to write paragraphs and essays (52.5%) as very important and the needs to write summaries (75.8%), to express their ideas using their own words and style (50.5%), to be able to take notes (55.6 %) and to write research papers (59.6%) as important .

Table 4.28

Students' Academic Needs at the Faculty of Natural Sciences

Academic purposes	not important		Important		very important	
	F	%	F	%	F	%
Reading skill						
a- To widen your vocabulary, mainly terms related to your field of study.	0	0	26	43.3	34	56.7
b-To develop your Knowledge in your field of study.	0	0	29	48.3	31	51.7
c-To write exposés .	5	8.3	34	56.7	21	35
Listening skill						
a- To be able to understand the content of	0	0	34	56.7	26	43.3

lectures.						
b- To be able to understand audio and visual materials related to your field of study.	3	5	29	48.3	28	46.7
c- To be able to understand oral presentations in conferences and seminars.	5	8.3	30	50	25	41.7
Speaking skill						
a- To be able to ask questions (for clarification, information, etc).	2	3.3	33	55	25	41.7
b- To be able to answer questions, give opinions, agree, disagree, etc.	0	0	28	46.7	32	53.3
c-To be able participate in group discussions/ debates related to your study field.	5	8.3	24	40	31	51.7
d- To be able to make oral presentations.	4	6.7	35	58.3	21	35
Writing skill						
a- To be able to summarize an idea.	6	10	35	58.3	19	31.7
b- To be able to write an idea using your words and style.	2	3.3	32	53.3	26	43.3
c- To be able to take notes when listening to lectures, to audio materials or when reading a text.	4	6.7	35	58.3	21	35
d- To perform written tasks in class (paragraphs, essays, exposés, etc).	2	3.3	31	51.7	27	45
e-To be able to write research papers to participate in seminars and conferences.	5	8.3	38	63.3	17	28.3

Regarding reading skill, the students at the faculty of Natural Sciences rated the need to learn specialized vocabularies (56.7%) and to develop knowledge in

their field (51.7%) as very important, and the need to write exposés (56.7%) as important.

In listening skill, they rated the needs to understand lectures' content (56.7%), to understand A/V materials (48.3%) and to be able to understand oral presentation (50%) as important. As Speaking skill is concerned, they rated the needs to answer questions (53.3%) and to participate in discussions related to their field (51.7%) as very important, and the needs to ask questions (55%) and to be able to make oral presentations (58.3%) as important.

In writing skill, they ranked all the needs to summarize texts (58.3%), to express their ideas using their own style (53.3%), to take notes (58.3%), to write paragraphs and essays (51.7%) and to write research papers (63.3%) as being important.

Table 4.29

Students' Academic Needs at the Faculty of Sciences and Technology

Academic purposes	not important		Important		very important	
	F	%	F	%	F	%
Reading skill						
a- To widen your vocabulary, mainly terms related to your field of study.	0	0	30	44.1	38	55.9
b-To develop your Knowledge in your field of study.	0	0	28	41.2	40	58.8
c-To write exposés .	3	4.4	44	64.7	21	30.9
Listening skill						
a- To be able to understand the content of lectures.	0	0	29	42.6	39	57.4
b- To be able to understand audio and visual materials related to your field of	3	4.4	40	58.6	25	36.8

study.						
c- To be able to understand oral presentations in conferences and seminars.	4	5.9	46	67.6	18	26.5
Speaking skill						
a- To be able to ask questions (for clarification, information, etc).	0	0	38	55.9	30	44.1
b- To be able to answer questions, give opinions, agree, disagree, etc.	0	0	41	60.3	27	39.7
c-To be able participate in group discussions/ debates related to your study field.	0	0	43	63.2	25	36.8
d- To be able to make oral presentations.	4	5.9	38	55.9	26	38.2
Writing skill						
a- To be able to summarize an idea.	3	4.4	47	69.1	18	26.5
b- To be able to write an idea using your words and style.	0	0	38	55.9	30	44.1
c- To be able to take notes when listening to lectures, to audio materials or when reading a text.	4	5.9	43	63.2	21	30.9
d- To perform written tasks in class (paragraphs, essays, exposés, etc).	0	0	31	45.6	37	54.4
e-To be able to write research papers to participate in seminars and conferences.	6	8.8	42	61.8	20	29.4

In reading skill, the students at the faculty of Sciences and Technology rated the need to learn specialized vocabularies (55.9%) and to develop knowledge in their field (58.8%) as very important, and the need to write exposés (63.6%) as important. As listening skill is concerned, they rated the need to understand lectures' content (57.4%) as very important and the need to understand oral presentation (67.6%) and to understand A/V materials (58.6%) as important. In

speaking skill, they rated the to ask questions (55.9%) and to take part in discussions related to their field (63.2%) as very important, and the needs to answer questions (60.3%) and be able to make oral presentations (55.9%) as being important. Regarding writing skill, they rated the need to write paragraph and essays (54.4%) as very important, and the needs to write summaries (69.1%) , to express their ideas using their style (55.9%), to be able to take notes (63.2%) and to write research papers (61.8%) as being important.

It is clear from the results that the students need all the four skills for their academic studies. Speaking and listening skills, though regarded as important by students, are not given enough attention by teachers.

Q8: For what purpose (s) you think you will need English in your future job?

a- To get a job within an international company in Algeria or abroad.

b-To exchange scientific/ technical/ business information.

c- To translate.

d-To read documents related to your job in English.

e-To write e-mails, administrative letters, minutes of meeting, etc.

f- To use English in telephoning.

g- To communicate with tourists.

- Other purposes?

In this question, the students were required to identify the professional purposes to which they need English for. The following table summarizes their answers:

Table 4.30

Students' Professional Needs

Options	Economy, Management & Commerce		Law & political Sciences		Human& Social Sciences		Natural Sciences		Sciences & Technology	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
A	62	69.7	4	57.1	36	36.4	31	51.7	38	55.9
B	54	60.7	5	71.4	48	48.4	28	46.7	31	45.6
C	44	49.4	3	42.9	50	50.5	17	28.3	12	17.6
D	60	67.4	6	85.7	35	35.4	27	45	37	54.4
E	55	61.8	5	71.4	48	48.5	17	28.3	21	30.9
F	38	42.7	4	57.1	28	28.3	5	8.3	10	14.7
G	47	52.8	5	71.4	33	33.3	10	16.7	0	0

At the faculty of Economy, Management and Commerce, (69.7%) of the students stated that they needed English to get a job within an international company in Algeria or abroad, (60.7%) to exchange scientific/ technical/ business information, (49.4%) for translation, (67.4%) to read documents related to job in English, (61.8%) to write e-mails, administrative letters and minutes of meeting, (42.7%) to use English in telephoning and (52.8%) to communicate with tourists.

At the Faculty of Law and Political Sciences, (57.1%) of the students needed English to get a job within an international company in Algeria or abroad, (71.4%) to exchange scientific/ technical/ business information, (42.9%) for translating, (85.7%) to read documents related to job in English, (71.4%) to write e-mails, administrative letters and minutes of meeting, (57.1%) to use English in telephoning and (71.4%) to communicate with tourists.

At the Faculty of Human and Social Sciences, (36.4%) of the students claimed that they needed English to get a job within an international company, (48.4%) to exchange scientific/ technical/ business information, (50.5%) for translation, (35.4%) to read documents related to job in English, (48.5%) to write e-mails, administrative letters and minutes of meeting , (28.3%) to use English in telephoning and (33.3%) to communicate with tourists.

At the Faculty of Natural Sciences, (51.7%) of the students needed English to get a job within an international company in Algeria or abroad, (46.7%) to exchange scientific/ technical/ business information, (28.3%) for translation, (45%) to read documents related to job in English, (28.3%) to write e-mails, administrative letters and minutes of meeting , (8.3%) to use English in telephoning and (16.7%) to communicate with tourists.

At the Faculty of Sciences and Technology , (55.9%) of the students needed English to get a job within an international company, (45.6%) to exchange scientific/ technical/ business information, (17.6%) for translation, (54.4%) to read documents related to   job in English, (30.9%) to write e-mails, administrative letters and minutes of meeting , (14.7%) to use it in telephoning.

These results in addition to the results obtained from classroom observations and teachers' questionnaire revealed that the kind of courses provided in various faculties of the University of Ghardaia do not cater for learners' needs. They are not very helpful to build learners' communicative competence which enables them to be successful in their future profession. Richards (2001) mentioned that ESP principle focuses on learners' needs since different students require different language needs, they should be taught according to those particular needs.

To design a specific ESP course, one has first to undertake a needs analysis, whereby he/she identifies what particular learners need English for. Needs analysis is "the corner stone of ESP" (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998, p.122). Therefore, the elaboration of any ESP course is mainly based on learners' needs

so that the course will be effective, beneficial and meaningful to the students in question.

Q9, Q10, Q11, Q12 required from students to indicate the type of difficulties they encounter while performing the four skills in class.

Q9: What difficulties do you face when reading English texts in class? (You can tick more than one answer)

a- I do not face any difficulties

 b- Difficulty in understanding words and collocations related to specific English

 c- Difficulty in finding the main idea and secondary ideas in the text

d- Difficulty in finding rapidly the needed information in order to answer correctly comprehension questions

-Other difficulties? (please specify)

Table 4.31

Difficulties Students faced in Reading

Options	Economy, Management & Commerce		Law & political Sciences		Human& Social Sciences		Natural Sciences		Sciences & Technology	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
A	11	12.4	2	28.6	30	30.3	12	20	24	35.3
B	57	64	4	51.7	55	55.6	33	55	41	60.3
C	32	36	3	42.9	29	29.3	24	40	19	27.9
D	51	57.3	3	42.9	37	37.4	24	40	23	33.8

At the faculty of Economy, Management and Commerce, the most problematic issue for learners was specialized vocabulary meaning (64%). Problems with vocabularies absolutely caused difficulties for them in understanding the main

ideas of the text (36%) and finding the needed information for reading comprehension questions (57.3%). Difficulties in reading comprehension may be justified by a lack of background knowledge in the field of economy but also due to a low proficiency in general English.

The same problems were identified in other faculties. At the faculty of Law and Political Sciences, the major difficulty for the students in reading was specialized vocabularies (51.7%), (42.9%) of the students faced difficulties in understanding the main ideas of the text and (42.9%) in answering reading comprehension questions .

At the faculty of Human and Social Sciences, (55.6%) of the students faced difficulties in understanding specialized vocabularies in texts, (37.4%) in answering reading comprehension questions and (29.3%) in understanding the main ideas of the text.

At the faculty Natural Sciences, (55%) of the students faced difficulties in understanding specialized vocabularies while reading texts and (40%) in understanding the main ideas of the text and answering reading comprehension questions.

At the faculty of Sciences and technology, specialized vocabulary was the major problem for the students in reading (60.3%) , (33.8%) faced difficulties in answering reading comprehension questions and (27.9%) in understanding the main ideas of the text.

Q10: What difficulties do you face while listening to English in the course ?

 a-I do not face any difficulties

b- Difficulty in understanding teacher's instructions

c- Difficulty in understanding lectures

d- Difficulty in understanding audio visual materials used by the teacher

-Other difficulties? (please specify)

Table 4.32

Difficulties Students faced in Listening

Options	Economy, Management & Commerce		Law & political Sciences		Human& Social Sciences		Natural Sciences		Sciences & Technology	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
A	17	19.1	2	28.6	47	47.5	23	38.3	30	44.1
B	49	55.1	4	57.1	37	37.4	20	33.3	27	39.7
C	49	55.1	4	57.1	40	40.4	29	48.3	37	54.4
D	8	9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

At the faculty of Economy, Management and Commerce, more than half of students (55.1%) faced difficulties to understand the content of the course and teacher's instructions. Option (d) was neglected by the majority of students; only (9%) stated that they faced difficulties in understanding audio visual materials as most of teachers did not use them in class.

At the faculty of Law and Political Sciences, (57.1%) of students faced difficulties in understanding teacher's instructions and course content.

At the faculty of Human and Social Sciences, (40.4%) of students faced difficulties in understanding course content and (37.4%) in understanding teacher's instructions.

At the faculty Natural Sciences, (48.3%) of students faced difficulties in understanding lectures content and (33.3%) in understanding teacher's instructions.

At the faculty of Sciences and technology, (54.4%) of the students faced difficulties understanding lectures content and (39.7%) in understanding teacher's instructions.

11-What difficulties do you face while speaking in class? (You can tick more than one answer)

a- I do not face any difficulties

b-Difficulty in pronouncing correct English

c- Difficulty in using appropriate terms mainly those related to my specialty

d- Difficulty in taking part in a class discussion, talking about issues related

to my specialty (giving opinion, describing, exemplifying, etc)

-Other difficulties? (please specify)

Table 4.33

Difficulties Students faced in Speaking

Options	Economy, Management & Commerce		Law & political Sciences		Human& Social Sciences		Natural Sciences		Sciences & Technology	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
A	10	11.2	1	14.3	23	23.2	13	21.7	13	19.1
B	50	56.2	4	57.1	47	47.5	26	43.3	35	51.5
C	40	44.9	4	57.1	46	46.5	26	43.3	35	51.5
D	57	64	5	71.4	58	58.6	35	58.3	50	73.5

At the faculty of Economy, Management and Commerce, (64%) of students faced difficulties to take part in classroom discussions (to express an idea, give opinion, etc), (56.2%) in pronunciation and (44.9%) in using appropriate terms (mainly related to economics).

At the faculty of Law and Political Sciences, the majority of students (71.4%) faced difficulties in taking part in discussions, (57.1%) in pronunciation and (57.1%) in using specialized vocabularies.

At the faculty of Human and Social Sciences, (58.6%) of students faced difficulties in participating in classroom discussions, (47.5%) in pronunciation and (46.5%) in using specialized vocabularies.

At the faculty Natural Sciences, (58.3%) of the students faced difficulties in participating in classroom discussions and (43.3%) in pronunciation and using specialized vocabularies.

At the faculty of Sciences and technology, (73.5%) of the students faced difficulties in classroom discussions, (51.5%) in pronunciation and (51.5%) in using specialized vocabularies.

12- What difficulties do you face when performing written tasks in the ESP course? (You can tick more than one answer)

a-I do not face any difficulties.

b- Difficulty in writing English correctly (correct spelling).

c- Difficulty in summarizing my ideas.

d- Difficulty in organizing my ideas.

e- Difficulty in using the right punctuation.

f- Difficulty in using the language of specialty to define, describe,

 compare, etc.

-Other difficulties? (please specify)

Table 4.34

Difficulties Students faced in Writing

Options	Economy, Management & Commerce		Law & political Sciences		Human& Social Sciences		Natural Sciences		Sciences & Technology	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
A	11	12.4	0	0	27	27.3	11	18.3	15	22.1
B	51	57.3	5	71.4	53	53.5	29	48.3	26	38.2
C	37	41.6	3	42.9	44	44.4	25	41.7	24	35.3
D	45	50.6	4	57.1	42	42.4	24	40	24	35.3
E	20	22.5	4	57.1	22	22.2	12	20	17	25
F	49	55.1	4	57.1	45	45.5	31	51.7	37	54.4

At the faculty of Economy, Management and Commerce, (57.3%) of students faced difficulties in spelling, (55.1%) in using specific structures related to the language of Economics, (50.6%) in writing summaries and (22.5%) in using correct punctuation.

At the faculty of Law and Political Sciences, (71.4%) of students faced difficulties in spelling, (57.1%) in using specialized language of their field, ideas organization and punctuation and (42.9%) faced difficulties in writing summaries.

At the faculty of Human and Social Sciences, (53.5%) of students faced difficulties in spelling, (45.5%) in using specialized language of their field, (44.4%) in summarizing texts , (42.4%) in ideas organization and (22.2%) in using correct punctuation.

At the faculty Natural Sciences, (51.7%) of students faced problems in using specialized language of their field, (48.3%) in spelling, (41.7%) in summarizing , (40%) in organizing their ideas and (20%) in punctuation.

At the faculty of Sciences and technology, (54.4%) faced problems in using specialized language of their field, (38.2%) in spelling, (35.3%) in organizing their ideas, (35.3%) in writing summaries and (25%) in using correct punctuation.

The above results lend support to the finding of classroom observations and teachers' questionnaire; they indicate that a great number of students are still facing serious difficulties in all language skills and are in urgent need to improve their level in English.

Q13: Is the time allocated to the English for Specific Purposes course sufficient to meet your needs?

Table 4.35

Students' Perceptions about Time Allotted to ESP

Options	Economy, Management & Commerce		Law & political Sciences		Human& Social Sciences		Natural Sciences		Sciences & Technology	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Insufficient	82	92.1	6	85.7	93	93.9	54	93.3	65	95.6
Sufficient	7	7.9	1	14.3	6	6.1	4	6.7	3	4.4

The majority of students at the faculty of Economy, Management and Commerce (92.1%)   stated that the time allocated to the ESP course was not sufficient to meet their needs and only (7.9%) said that it was sufficient.

 (85.7%) of students at the faculty of Law and Political Sciences said that the duration of the ESP course was not sufficient and the rest (14.3%) said it was sufficient.

At the faculty of Human and Social Sciences, (93.9%) claimed that the time of the ESP course was insufficient. Only (6.1%) of them said it was sufficient.

At the faculty of Natural Sciences, (93.3%) of students claimed that the time of the ESP course was insufficient. (6.7%) claimed that the time was sufficient.

(95.6%) of the students at the faculty of Sciences and Technology claimed that the time of the ESP course was insufficient, and only (4.4%) stated that it was sufficient.

Thus, vast majority of the students across the five faculties stated that the time allotted to the ESP course was insufficient. This implies that ESP instructional hours need to be reviewed. One session in the week is not sufficient to meet ESP learners' needs.

Q14: Is the English for Specific Purposes course interesting and motivating to you?

In this question, the students were asked to give their impressions about the ESP course.

Table 4.36

Students' Perceptions about the ESP Course

Options	Economy, Management & Commerce		Law & political Sciences		Human& Social Sciences		Natural Sciences		Sciences & Technology	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
No	23	25.8	1	14.3	10	10.1	11	18.3	9	13.2
To some extent	54	60.7	2	28.6	63	63.6	29	48.3	33	48.5
Yes	12	13.5	4	57.1	26	26.3	20	33.3	26	38.2

When asked if the course is interesting and motivating for them, (25.8%) of students at the faculty of Economy, Management and Commerce responded by no, (60.7%) by to some extent and (13.5%) yes.

At the faculty of Law and Political Sciences, (14.3%) of students responded by no, (28.6%) by to some extent and (57.1%) yes.

(10.1%) of students at the faculty of Human and Social Sciences responded by no, (63.6%) to some extent and (26.3%) yes.

At the faculty of Natural Sciences, (18.3%) of the students responded by no, (48.3%) by to some extent and (33.3%) yes.

At the faculty of Sciences and Technology , (13.2%) of the students responded by no, (48.5%) by to some extent and (38.2%) yes.

Q15: If not, it is because:

a-You do not understand the content of the course

b-The course does not correspond to your needs

c- You do not like the way it is taught

d-You are not interested at learning English

-Other reasons? (please specify)

The objective of this question was to identify the reasons why students lose interest in the ESP course.

Table 4.37

Reasons Why Students' lose Interest in the ESP course

Options	Economy, Management & Commerce		Law & political Sciences		Human& Social Sciences		Natural Sciences		Sciences & Technology	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
A	30	33.7	2	28.6	21	21.2	9	15	17	25
B	33	37.1	1	14.3	31	31.3	13	21.7	22	32.4

C	36	40.4	2	28.6	27	27.3	19	31.7	15	22.1
D	7	7.9	0	0	2	2	0	0	3	4.4

At the faculty of Economy, Management and Commerce, (37.1%) of the learners were not satisfied with the content of the ESP course which they claimed did not match their needs. The course most of the time ,as the researcher observed, was limited to reading a text, explaining technical terms, answering reading comprehension questions followed by a series of boring grammar activities similar to those used in general English classes . Little attention was given to communicative skills, and the traditional way of teaching (40.4%) led students to lose interest in the course . This can be related to lack of teachers training and lack of ESP culture. In fact, many researchers (Dudley Evans and ST John ,1998 ; Hutchinson and Waters, 1987) agreed that ESP practitioners should not use the same approach that is used in teaching general English because the two are different in their goals and objectives. Other students (33.7%) claimed that they did not understand the content of the course. This can be explained by their poor English background . (7.9%) of the students said that they were not interested at learning English.

The same issues existed in other faculties. At the faculty of Law and Political Sciences, (28.6%) of the students did not understand the content of the course, (14.3%) said that the content of the course did not match their needs and (28.6%) did not like the way of teaching.

At the faculty of Human and Social Sciences, (21.2%) did not understand the content of the course, (31.3%) claimed that the content of the course did not match their needs, (27.3%) did not like the way it was taught and (2%) were not interested at learning English.

(15%) of the students at the faculty of Natural Sciences did not understand the content of the course, (21.7%) stated that the content of the course did not match their needs and (31.7%) did not like the way of teaching.

At the faculty of Sciences and Technology, (20.7%) of the students did not understand the content of the course, (32.8%) said that the content of the course did not match their needs and (19%) did not like the way of teaching.

Q16: According to you ,what are the weaknesses in the current English for Specific Purposes course, if any?

a- Over emphasis on grammar of language.

b-Lack of emphasis on speaking skill.

c-Lack of use of technology in teaching.

d-Large number of students in class.

e- The time of the course is not appropriate.

-Other weaknesses? (please specify)

Table 4.38

Weaknesses in the ESP Course

Options	Economy, Management & Commerce		Law & political Sciences		Human& Social Sciences		Natural Sciences		Sciences & Technology	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
A	36	40.4	0	0	32	32.3	13	21.7	9	13.2
B	57	64	2	28.6	57	57.6	29	48.3	34	50
C	52	58.4	4	57.1	38	38.4	15	25	20	29.4
D	24	27	2	28.6	26	26.3	10	16.7	10	14.7
E	31	34.8	2	28.6	26	26.3	16	26.7	21	30.9

The majority of students at the faculty of Economy, Management and Commerce were not satisfied with the content of the ESP course: (64%) complained about the lack of attention given to speaking skill and (40.4%) about over emphasis on grammar activities. Another issue is lack of use of technology in class, (58.43%) of the students stated that the teachers did not make use of such software and devices. The ESP teachers claimed that they were not available. In addition, some teachers were not familiar with the use of such materials and needed training. The students (27%) considered large classes as not being comfortable environment for learning. Moreover, (34.8%) of students claimed that the time of the course was not appropriate. The course was often programmed as the last session of the day, so the learners were tired and could not concentrate.

The same problems were identified in other faculties. At the faculty of Law and Political Sciences, (28.6%) of the students complained about lack of emphasis on speaking skill, (57.1%) about the lack of use of technology in class, (28.6%) about the large sized groups and (28.6%) claimed that the time of the course was not appropriate.

At the faculty of Human and Social Sciences, (32.3%) of the students complained about the over emphasis on grammar activities, (57.6%) about the lack of communicative activities, (38.4%) about the lack of use of technology in class, (26.3%) about the large number of students in the groups and (26.3%) claimed that the time of the course was not appropriate.

 (21.7%) of students at the faculty of Natural Sciences complained about the over emphasis on grammar activities, (48.3%) about the lack of attention given to speaking skill, (25%) about the lack of use of technology in class, (16.7%) about the large number of students in the groups and (26.7%) claimed that the time of the course was not appropriate.

At the faculty of Sciences and Technology, (13.2%) of students complained about the over emphasis on grammar activities, (50%) about the lack of speaking

activities, (29.4%) about the lack of use of technology in class, (14.7%) about the large sized groups and (30.9%) claimed that the time of the course was not appropriate.

Q17: How does the teacher assess your progress in English for Specific Purposes course ?

Table 4.39

Types of Assessment Used by ESP Teachers

Types of assessment	Economy, Management &Commerce		Law & political Sciences		Human& Social Sciences		Natural Sciences		Sciences & Technology	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Continuous assessment	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
End-term assessment	89	100	0	0	99	100	60	100	64	94.1
Both	0	0	7	100	0	0	0	0	4	5.9

Table 4.40

Forms of Assessment Used by ESP Teachers

Forms of assessment	Economy, Management &Commerce		Law & political Sciences		Human& Social Sciences		Natural Sciences		Sciences & Technology	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Continuous assessment										
Oral	0	0	7	100	0	0	0	0	4	5.9
Written	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Both	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
End-term assessment										

Oral	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Written	89	100	7	100	99	100	60	100	68	100
Both	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

When asked about the methods of evaluations that teachers use to assess their progress in ESP, all the respondents at the faculty of Economy, Management and Commerce stated that their teachers adopted a written end term exam.

At the faculty of law and Political sciences, all the students stated that their teacher used both oral continuous assessment and end-term written exam to evaluate them.

At the faculty of Human and Social Sciences, all the respondents admitted that teachers used written end-term exam to assess them.

At the faculty of Natural Sciences, as well, all the students expressed that their teachers used written end-term exam as a method of evaluation.

At the faculty of Sciences and Technology, overwhelming majority of the respondents (94.1%) stressed that their teachers used a written end-term exam to evaluate them. (5.9%) of the respondents said that their teacher used both written end-term exam and oral continuous assessment.

The results revealed that there is no unified system of assessment. Each teacher is responsible for setting his/her own assessment criteria and grading procedures. Most of the teachers rely on summative assessment which was conducted in the form of written examination at the end of the term. Formative (continuous) assessment which is vital in ESP is neglected. This is not surprising; the teachers who received no training in ESP assessment and with limited ESP teaching experience are not expected to be competent in this area.

Q18: What type and form of assessment do you find adequate to evaluate your progress in English for Specific Purposes ?

Table 4.41

Students' Favored Types of Assessment

Types of assessment	Economy, Management &Commerce		Law & political Sciences		Human& Social Sciences		Natural Sciences		Sciences & Technology	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Continuous assessment	19	23.3	2	28.6	23	23.2	21	35	17	25
End-term assessment	21	23.6	2	28.6	30	30.3	18	30	9	13.2
Both	49	55	3	42.9	46	46.5	21	35	42	61.8

Table 4.42

Students' Favored Forms of Assessment

Forms of assessment	Economy, Management &Commerce		Law & political Sciences		Human& Social Sciences		Natural Sciences		Sciences & Technology	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Continuous assessment										
Oral	20	22.5	3	42.9	9	9	14	23.3	10	14.7
Written	15	16.9	1	14.3	27	27.3	8	13.3	7	10.3
Both	33	37	1	14.3	33	33.3	20	33.3	42	61.8
End-term assessment										
Oral	11	12.3	1	14.3	6	6	7	11.7	5	7.4
Written	30	33.7	2	28.6	31	31.3	22	36.7	20	29.4
Both	29	32.6	2	28.6	16	16.2	10	16.7	26	38.2

At the faculty of Economy, Management and Commerce, (23.3%) of the respondents were for the use of continuous assessment, (23.6%) for end-term assessment and (55%) for both. (22.5%) of students favored oral continuous assessment, (16.9%) favored written form and (37%) both. As for end-term assessment, (12.3%) of students chose oral form, (33.7%) written and (32.6%) both.

(28.6%) of the respondents at the faculty of Law and Political sciences favored the use of continuous assessment, (28.6%) end-term assessment and (42.9%) both. As for continuous assessment, (42.9%) of students preferred oral form, (14.3%) written form and (14.3%) both. Regarding end-term assessment, (14.3%) preferred oral assessment, (28.6%) written and (28.6%) both.

At the faculty of Human and Social Sciences, (23.2%) of the respondents were for   using continuous assessment, (30.3%) for end-term assessment and (46.5%) for both. (9%) of students favored oral continuous assessment, (27%) favored written form and (33.3%) both. As for end-term assessment, (6%) of them chose oral form, (31.3%) written and (16.2%) both.

(35%) of the respondents at the faculty of Natural Sciences chose continuous assessment, (30%) end-term assessment and (35%) both. As for continuous assessment, (23.3%) of students favored oral form, (13.3%) written and (33.3%) both. While for end-term assessment, (11.7%) of students preferred oral form, (36.7%) written and (16.7%) both.

At the faculty of Sciences and Technology,   (25%) of the respondents favored the use of continuous assessment, (13.2%) end-term assessment and (61.8%) both. As for continuous assessment, (14.7%) of students preferred oral form, (10.3%) written form and (61.8%) both. Regarding end-term assessment, (7.4%) preferred oral assessment, (29.4%) written and (38.2%) both.

The results revealed that most of students agreed on the use of different assessment formats (continuous/ end-term assessment) and allocating more

speaking skill in the assessment in the ESP class. Maarouf (2013) found that using continuous assessment which provides more speaking format is helpful for ESP students' learning.

Designing the assessment into several particular formats which is not following the traditional format is related to the notion of alternative assessment. As revealed in Kavaliauskienė et al. (2007a) and Carrión & Chavarría (2012), alternative assessment is applied based on students' needs or students' assessment preferences identified in the needs analysis. Besides traditional testing, ESP teachers can use various forms of alternative assessment including: essays, performance assessment, oral presentations, demonstration and portfolios, etc. Alternative assessment is considered preferable for the ESP class since it is authentic and mirrors students' real professional contexts (Eni & Prizilya, 2015).

Q19: Do you think the assessment procedures that your ESP teacher uses reflect your real language skills?

Table 4.43

Students' Opinions about Assessing their Language Skills

Options	Economy, Management & Commerce		Law & political Sciences		Human& Social Sciences		Natural Sciences		Sciences & Technology	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
No	17	19.1	1	14.3	10	10.1	6	10	19	27.9
Partially	60	67.4	3	42.9	68	68.7	41	70	42	61.8
Yes	12	13.5	3	42.9	21	21.2	12	20	7	10.3

At the faculty of Economy, Management and Commerce, (19.1%) of students responded by no , (67.4%) by partially and (13.5%) yes.

At the faculty of Law and Political, (14.3%) of students responded by no , (42.9%) by partially and (42.9%) yes.

At the faculty of Human and Social Sciences (10.1%) of students responded by no , (68.7%) by partially and (21.2%) yes.

At the faculty of Natural Sciences (10%) of students responded by no , (70%) partially and (20%) yes.

At the faculty of Sciences and Technology (27.9%) of students responded by no , (61.8%) partially and (10.3%) yes.

Q20: Do the assessment procedures used by your ESP teacher assess your professional communicative skill (the ability to use English effectively to perform communicative tasks in future profession such as to speak in public, make oral presentations, hold meetings and conduct negotiations, write professional e-mails, meeting minutes, repots, etc) ?

Table 4.44

Students' Opinions about Assessing their Communicative Skill

Options	Economy, Management & Commerce		Law & political Sciences		Human& Social Sciences		Natural Sciences		Sciences & Technology	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
No	51	57.3	3	42.9	52	52.5	37	61.6	42	61.8
Partially	32	36	3	42.9	42	42.4	20	33.3	23	3.8
Yes	6	6.7	1	14.3	5	5.1	3	5	3	4.4

At the faculty of Economy, Management and Commerce, more than half of the respondents (57.3%) replied no, (36%) partially and only (6.7%) said yes.

At the faculty of Law and Political Sciences, (42.9%) of students responded by no, (42.9%) partially and (14.3%) yes.

At the faculty of Human and Social Sciences, (52.5%) of students responded by no, (42.4%) partially and only (5.1%) responded by yes.

At the faculty of Natural Sciences, (61.6%) of students responded by no, (33.3%) partially and (5%) yes.

At the faculty of Sciences and Technology, (61.8%) of students responded by no , (33.8%) partially and (4.4%) yes.

The results revealed that the methods of assessment used by ESP teachers were inadequate. Very often they assessed language knowledge not communicative competence. As Douglas (2000) conveyed, assessment in ESP is communicative. It addresses "the ability to perform particular communicative tasks" (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p. 144) which might include typical expressions produced by physicians when they examine a patient, a travel agent giving advice to a customer or a financial analyst making a presentation on a country's economy. This "degree of specificity" (Chapelle & Brindly, 2002, p.201) makes ESP assessment different from assessment for general purposes.

Chapelle and Brindly explained that assessing language without reference to a particular context of language use refers to assessment for general purposes while assessing the language to see if learners are able to produce accurate and adequate performance in a specific area of language refers to the assessment of ESP. Elder (2016) stressed that authenticity is of paramount importance in ESP assessment and refers to the degree of similarity or even sameness between the test tasks and the communicative tasks that learners need to perform in professional situations, in other words, target situations (Douglas, 2000).

ESP teachers, being unfamiliar with the principles of assessment in ESP, relied on assessment of basic knowledge skill in a traditional manner which is not considered as a realistic, valid and authentic assessment of the professional skill (Chen, 2019). Therefore, training ESP teachers regarding how to assess students is crucial.

4.4 Discussion of the Findings

This section discusses the findings of the study. In doing so, the research questions were revisited and addressed according to the findings gathered through different research tools. Results from researches made in similar areas are also added to the discussion in order to provide to a constant comparison with the existing data.

As stated earlier in the introduction of this research, the study was grounded on the following research questions:

Q1: Do ESP courses provided at various institutions of the University of Ghardaia meet learners' needs?

Q2: What are the major issues and difficulties that ESP teachers face?

Q3: What are the major issues and difficulties that learners face in ESP?

4.4.1 Findings in relation to Q1

Data collected through classroom observations and questionnaires revealed that ESP courses provided at the University of Ghardaia are far from being satisfactory and do not correspond to learners' needs. The traditional grammar translation method and non communicative activities are still prevailing in ESP classes. As the researcher observed that teaching is teacher- centered instead of being learner-centered.

The content of the ESP course most of the time is limited to reading texts followed by a series of grammar activities; as a result, the students gradually become de-motivated and bored.

Though all the students agreed that the four skills are important and should be developed all together, speaking and listening skills are not given enough attention by ESP teachers. The students stated that they need listening to understand their lectures in class, to understand A/V materials related to their field or attending seminars and conferences, but no activities are used in class to

practice and develop this skill. Speaking skill is limited to simplest questions/answers interactions. No group discussions are organized to give opportunity to students to express themselves in English and gain confidence to use it .In this context, a question that seems worth asking: how can students develop oral fluency/ accuracy if they have no chance to use it in similar real life contexts? Especially, when leaving in a country where English is nowhere used apart the classroom.

4.4.2 Findings in relation to Q2

The results obtained from teachers' questionnaire confirmed the information gathered during classroom observation. It seems that no matter which specialty they teach, all ESP teachers face the same issues and problems:

• **Absence of ESP syllabus:** in the Algerian ESP context, there is a total absence of an ESP syllabus. ESP teachers are left on their own to design their courses from the scratch. This represents a serious problem for most of them. Bouderssa (2018) claimed that ESP teachers hold different prospective and beliefs about ESP. This is reflected in their teaching practices.

Farbady (2005) stated that the solution for this is to equip ESP teachers with necessary knowledge about theory and developments in the area of ESP. When teachers are made aware of the necessary theory and practices related to ESP teaching, this may produce a sense of uniformity in their teaching since their knowledge, attitudes, beliefs and methods in ESP will be less questionable. ESP teachers and subject specialists all over the country should team up and work together nationwide to create a national ESP curriculum based on insightful deep needs analysis of learners from different workplaces and on which clear specifications about course content, course objectives, evaluation criteria and teaching methodologies are made.

• **Lack of ESP training:** in Algeria, there is a scarcity of ESP practitioners as there is no concept of establishing ESP training institutions that can produce

highly qualified ESP practitioners. As a result, general English teachers are hired by higher education institutions to teach ESP courses.

The majority of these teachers carry no formal training in specialized courses, so they find themselves confronting several challenges related to ESP syllabus and course design, teaching methodology, students' evaluation and so on. All researchers interested in assessing the progress of ESP as a component of ELT agree that "one of the most constraining factors to this progress is the lack of "specialized teacher- training" (Swales, 1985, p. 214). Effective ESP teacher training programs are highly recommended if we want ESP to flourish and work for the students.

• **Lack of specialist knowledge:** sometimes ESP practitioners encounter issues regarding specific vocabulary items or concepts related to their students' field of study. To solve this problem, Dudley Evans (1998) suggested that the ESP instructor can consult with a subject specialist when developing materials or encountering a problem with the subject area. Self –education such as reading ESP journals, content area textbooks and media reports is also an effective way to obtain the specialist knowledge. According to Dudley Evans (1997) and Robinson (1991), the students can be valuable subject informants as well because they are often more knowledgeable about their subject field than the teacher. ESP teachers need not to feel embarrassed about being ignorant and should feel comfortable in learning from and with their students.

• **Poor English background of students**: one of the biggest problems for ESP practitioners is learners' poor level of English proficiency. Other than few learners in the class, most of the learners have very low understanding of general English. This makes the ESP practitioner's job more demanding and challenging, as he/ she has first to build basic general English foundation and then to work on skills.

The issue of poor English background is not just confined to Algerian settings. Many researchers (Abdulaziz et al., 2012; Zohrabi, 2005; Gatehouse, 2001;

Palacios, 2007) in different countries of the word have reported that this issue exists. Abdulaziz et al. (2012) stated that students poor English background can be related to several reasons: exam oriented GEP courses, lack of competent teachers and good materials and students' habits of taking GEP.

Palacios (2007) suggested that one way of resolving this issue is to encourage communication between secondary EGP school teachers and the tertiary ESP teachers to share experiences, discuss existing issues and find out possible ways of solving them. Gatehouse (2001) solved this issue by referring students with poor EGP background to their peers for clarification and help.

• **The demanding task of course design:** In majority of cases, ESP teachers are not specialists in the students' field of study and with no ESP syllabus, designing a course that meets students' needs and interests is a big challenge for most of them; especially, those new in the field and who have no training in areas as course design and needs assessment. It is difficult for them to decide about which topics to include in the course and choose relevant teaching activities to their respective students. To solve this problem, ESP teachers need to educate themselves to obtain specialist knowledge in the content area they are teaching by reading ESP journals, content area textbooks and media reports and take help from internet, specialist colleagues and experts.

• **Lack of teaching resources and facilities:** ESP teachers claimed that audio/ visual materials are needed for the ESP class, but they are not provided by the institutions. Ibrahim (2009) recommended that ESP practitioners make use of modern technologies or at least include audio/ visual aids and multimedia according to the needs of the students in order to make them learn better and to enhance their motivation.

• **Lack of ESP textbooks:** ESP teachers are not provided by any ESP textbook to help them in their teaching. Generally, most of teachers select texts related to students specific field from internet or reading books and teach them. Most often, these texts have related exercises that follow them which makes it an easy

task for the ESP teacher. In most ESP classes, no activities that aim at developing students communicative skills like debating, individual/ group presentations, problem- solving situations and so on can be found.

Today, there are a variety of ESP textbooks for different specialism available in the market. Most of these textbooks include a variety of communicative exercises that teachers can use in their classrooms. Higher education institutions need to provide ESP teachers with such textbooks to give them an idea about the types of activities that they need to use and help them in doing their job.

• **Large classes:** due to shortage of ESP teachers and huge number of students, some administrators combine several groups into one large class and assign a teacher to teach them. This brings up other issues, for instance, inability of the teacher to maintain classroom discipline and to conduct classroom activities, learners' lack of understanding, a lack of students' motivation and a lack of proper students' evaluation. Abudlaziz et al. (2012) offered different strategies to deal with this issue such as: asking for extension in time duration, dividing large classes into smaller sections and arranging separate classes for them, taking help from good students in group work, assigning homewoks, giving feedback by grouping similar issues together and assigning pair work activities.

• **Lack of students' motivation**: the majority of ESP teachers complained about lack of student motivation in their classrooms. Rather than few learners participating in the class,   most of learners were not interested in the ESP course. When the teacher gave them a task to do, they were talking with each other or doing homeworks of other subjects. There are many reasons for lack of learners' motivation, for instance, many learners do not understand the content of the ESP course because of their low proficiency of English, the big number of learners in the class and for many other learners, the ESP subject is secondary subject which they have to study in order to graduate. Abdulaziz et al. (2012) suggested several solutions to deal with this issue such as: good lesson planning, bringing about a variety in class activities, rearranging seating positions of the

students for different activities, negotiating and describing the importance of English language learning to them, giving individual consultation to students and conducting pair work activities instead of group work.

• **Students' evaluation:** ESP teachers claimed that they face difficulty in assessing learners in their classes. This can be related to several reasons: lack of teacher training, unavailability of proper guidelines for evaluation, big number of learners and short time duration of the class. Abdulaziz et al. (2012) proposed several solutions to cope with this issue like opting for objective type questions in examination, conducting peer evaluation or whole class evaluation and asking institutions for provision of proper guidelines for evaluation.

• **Lack of collaboration between language teachers and subject specialists**: ESP teachers often face difficulty in understanding specific terminologies and concepts related to students' field of specialism. In teaching English for biology, for example, there are some words which have a specific meaning and cannot be translated without appropriate conceptual understanding. In such complicated setting, English teachers cannot work independently and require a closer cooperation with specialists to remove ambiguity. The subject specialist who is more familiar with subject content will definitely assist the English teacher in choosing relevant content and designing suitable teaching activities . More efficient and fruitful ESP courses can be produced if content teachers and ESP teachers work together.

• **Insufficient instruction hours:** the time allocated to the ESP course sometimes creates issues for ESP practitioners. There are several reasons to this: evaluation of large classes, feedback to large classes, no time estimated for needs analysis, etc. Abdulaziz et al. (2012) offered several ways to tackle this issue: to increase class duration, to reduce the number of students per class and feedback and evaluation be given in the form of groups. Johns (1990) proposed that a resource bank of pooled materials be made available to all ESP practitioners. This according to him will be time saving.

4.4.3 Findings in relation to Q3

The results of the study also revealed that ESP learners face a lot of problems and difficulties:

• **Poor English background**: the results of the study revealed that a large number of students are not competent enough in English. As a result,   they face serious difficulties in all language skills; speaking, writing, listening and reading. In this case, as suggested by Tsao et al. (2008) , teachers need to caution their students not to rely on classroom instruction.   They should motivate them to make more use of the valuable learning resources outside the classroom (multimedia English teaching programs on CD-Rom, the radio, TV or the internet) and integrate multi-media activities in their teaching. It is most urgent to raise learners' awareness and let them realize that the toughest task in learning English lies in neither vocabulary nor grammar, neither in speaking nor writing, but in whether they themselves are armed with strong motivation and determination.

• **Time allocation**: among the main features of the learning context, allocating time is very crucial. It is important in the sense that designing any language course or syllabus is based on how many hours are allocated to achieve the determined goals and objectives of the course. In Algerian universities, one session (1h & 30m) per week is devoted to the English course. Besides, English module is taught as a semesterial module in some departments (as department of biology, economy, science and technology, etc). It is not sufficient to ensure the required proficiency and enable learners to use English fluently in their field of study or future professions. What worsens more the situation is that the English course is not given much importance by administrative holders in timetabling . The English course is often scheduled late in the afternoon when learners are exhausted and cannot concentrate.

• **Group size:** the problem of large classes is an issue for both teachers and learners**.** Crowded classes lead to noise and teacher inability to maintain

classroom discipline which make it difficult for learners to concentrate and understand their lessons.

• **Teaching materials:** although a great deal of language teaching materials such as: multimedia means and audio visual materials are available in the market today   , most of Algerian universities still rely on traditional and simple ones e.g. the board and handouts. The absence or non use of the necessary materials such as laboratories and audio visual aids has dramatically affected the quality of the act of teaching and resulted in the lack of motivation on the part of learners.

• **Teaching methodology:** learners argued that the designed ESP courses which focus on teaching specific terminology and grammatical structures do satisfy their needs in the language. As a result, most of the students are not highly motivated to learn English and if they attend the English courses, they do for the sake of exams. They stated that they need English to communicate and share thoughts with other professionals from English speaking countries. For most of them, the kind and quality of courses offered to them do not help them to achieve this aim.

Conclusion

In this chapter, the researcher has attempted to present and discuss the findings gathered through different research tools. Based on these findings, the researcher will suggest a set of recommendations to improve ESP teaching and learning in the next chapter.

CHAPTER V

SUGGESTION AND

RECOMMENDATIONS TO PROMOTE

ESP TEACHING AND LEARNING

Introduction

In the light of the results obtained presented in chapter four, in this final chapter, the researcher has attempted to present some, hopefully, useful suggestions and recommendations which may help to improve ESP teaching and learning within Algerian University in general and the University of Ghardaia in particular. As it has not been possible for the investigator to deal with all the issues, some suggestions have been afforded to open doors for further research.

5.1 Pedagogical Recommendations

To address the difficulties and problems identified in the study, the following recommendations are suggested:

5.1.1 Sufficient Administrative Concern towards the ESP Course and ESP Teachers

ESP teaching in our country is in a chaotic state due to two main factors: implicit   teaching aim and insufficient teaching syllabus. There are no ESP syllabi with clear specifications about course content, course objectives, evaluation criteria and teaching methodologies. Moreover, because of lack of ESP teachers, higher education institutions rely heavily on hiring part-time teachers.

Those teachers, especially who are new in the field of ESP teaching and with very limited knowledge about students' specialism, are left on their own to design their courses from the scratch (no teaching syllabus and no ESP textbooks). The government should think of a radical solution to solve this problem. For example, ESP training institutions could be established to provide universities with enough qualified full- time ESP teachers. In addition, they must be implemented with ESP textbooks and audiovisual aids. In all higher education institutions, there must be some rooms

equipped with computers, data show and internet reserved specially for the ESP course (language labs).

It is evident that one session (90m) per week is not enough to meet all the ESP course aims. There should be at least two sessions per week or more according to students' needs. Administrative holders should pay more consideration to the ESP course and ESP teachers in timetables. Moreover, the ESP course should have a coefficient similar to other specialty modules to give the module importance and more consideration from the part of students.

5.1.2 Training ESP Teachers
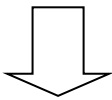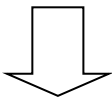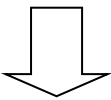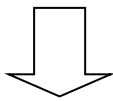
Though there has been increasing demand for ESP courses, ESP teacher education has been neglected. According to Mahapatra (2011), most countries do not have well-established training programs for ESP teachers, and ESP is often found to be taught by teachers trained for General English teaching. The shortage of qualified ESP teachers is more serious in Algeria because ESP teaching came to Algeria very late . Effective ESP teacher training programs are highly recommended in order to provide educational institutions with sufficient ESP teachers and help teachers overcome their ESP teaching challenges.

In an ESP setting, besides their role as language teachers, ESP practitioners need also to be a course designers and material providers, collaborators, researchers and evaluators (Dudley Evans & St John, 1998).

Koné (2007) contrasted between GE teachers training and ESP teacher

training:

Table 5.1

GE Teacher Training Vs ESP Teacher Training

GE	ESP
Grammar and language structures required for fluency in daily conversations	Language in context for fluency in professional/ academic conversations
Qualifications of GE teachers	Qualifications of ESP teachers
Communicative competence in social settings Ability to impart language knowledge Ability to use ready- made syllabus or text books	Communicative competence in professional/academic settings Ability to impart field-specific language knowledge Analyze learners' language needs Make special material preparation Design and evaluate a field-specific syllabus Understand subject concepts encoded in field- specific texts
GE teacher training	ESP teacher training
Linguistic competency ELT pedagogic competence	Field- specific linguistic competency EEP pedagogic competence Basic content Knowledge

Note. Reprinted from Developing a Theoretical Framework for ESP Teacher Training in Vietnam by H. Pham and B.T. Ta, 2016, The Asian ESP Journal, 12 (1) , p. 73.

Koné (2007) claimed that teaching ESP requires additional skills and knowledge in comparison with GE teaching. Such skills and knowledge he referred to as 'ESP teacher competence' which consists of field-specific language competency, basic multi disciplinary knowledge and ESP pedagogic competence. ESP training, according to Koné , should consists of two basic main components: ESP methodology and ESP acquisition (Pham & Ta , 2016).

Figure 5.1

The Components of ESP Training
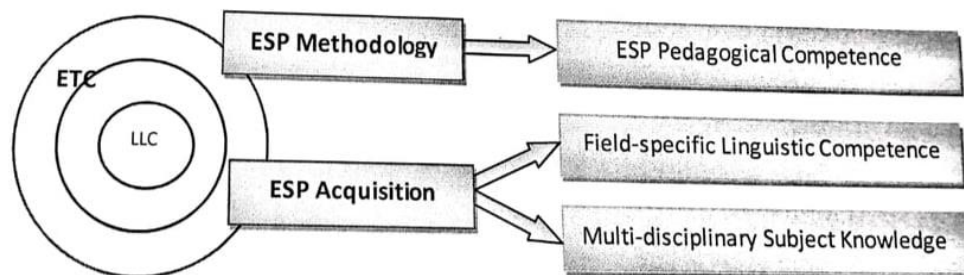
Note. Reprinted from Developing a Theoretical Framework for ESP Teacher Training in Vietnam by H. Pham and B.T. Ta, 2016, The Asian ESP Journal, 12 (1) , p. 76.

The objective of ESP Methodology is to provide trainees with ESP pedagogic competence:

(i) To provide trainees with some knowledge in Applied Linguistics.

(ii) To provide trainees with theoretical and practical knowledge in ESP.

(iii) To give trainees the opportunity to design teaching materials and evaluate them in the classroom

(iv) To teach trainees how to evaluate teaching materials on the market.

(v) To teach trainees how to assess the language needs of students in technical education and to teach them how to plan courses relevant to their needs.

For ESP acquisition, ESP trainees are regarded as learners who already have English proficiency but little subject knowledge. It aims to equip them with both field-specific linguistic competency and basic multi- disciplinary knowledge.

According to Richards and Farrell (2005), training can be designed either to prepare teachers who will teach for the first time, 'pre-service training', or those teachers who will engage in a new assignment. Therefore, effective pre-service programs should be established to train ESP prospective teachers. Untrained ESP staff could be trained and encouraged to participate in seminars, workshops and ESP conferences to update their knowledge about recent ESP researches.

5.1.3 Needs Analysis Should Be the Basis of ESP Syllabus and Course Design

Needs analysis is ''the corner stone of ESP'' (Dudley Evans & ST John, 1998, p.122). Designing any ESP course should be based on learners' needs so that the course will be effective, beneficial and meaningful for the students in question. Needs analysis involves compiling information both

on the individuals who are to learn a language and on the use which they are expected to make of it when they have learned it (Ritcherich, 1983) . It gives answers to questions such as who will learn the language, why, where and when the language is learned. Moreover, it determines the skills needed in the target situation in order to develop learners' skills to communicate effectively.

The concept of needs analysis is new for course designers in our country. Needs analysis has not been considered in ESP syllabus design. There must be an academic body or an institution responsible for ESP development in which both ESP practitioners and subject specialists team up and work together nationwide to create a national ESP curriculum based on insightful deep analysis of learners' needs from different workplaces and on which clear specifications about course content, course objectives, evaluation criteria and teaching methodologies are made. In recent years, a number of researchers across the country have been interested in ESP learners' needs of different fields and new forms of assessment. These findings should not remain on theory level and have to be exploited to produce ESP syllabi of high quality.

5.1.4 Use of New Forms of Assessment

ESP does not and cannot only include needs as the point of departure to design the right content and to adopt the right methodology for the course, but it also takes the needs as a point to see if learners have achieved what they have been planned to achieve (Douglas, 2013). At this point, assessment in ESP requires a deeper understanding and more careful consideration for needs analysis from different perspectives. According to Dudley Evans and St John (1998), assessment does not stand alone, but occupies a prominent place in the ESP process, giving the ESP teacher a wealth of information on the effectiveness and quality of teaching and

learning. Eni and Prisilya (2015) stated that designing well- measured assessment is as important as designing good materials.

Undoubtedly, assessment is one of the most important aspects of ESP teaching and learning. In educational institutions, assessment has two main objectives: (i) to measure the extent to which the goals or the outcomes of a particular programme of learning are achieved i.e. to make summative assessment and (ii) to provide instructional feedback to help learners progress (Egbert & Shahrokni, 2018).

Assessment is referred to as summative and formative. Summative assessment aims to record the learners' achievement at the end of a period of study (Fulcher, 2010; Knight, 2004) or that contributes to student's grade in a course, module, level or degree. Formative assessment, on the other hand, occurs during learning to provide learners with feedback on their progress and alert the teacher to any aspects of the course that may need adjustment. It can be defined as a frequent, interactive assessment of learners' progress and understanding to identify learning needs and adjust teaching appropriately (William, 2011). It is an ongoing process teachers and students engage in while focusing on the learning goals, reviewing where the current work is in relation to the goals and taking action to achieve these goals (Brookhart, 2010). Thus, formative assessment is designed to promote students' learning unlike summative assessment that is primary carried out for grading, ranking and certifying competence purposes (Brookhart, 2010).

In higher education institutions in Algeria, summative assessment is still the dominant mode of evaluation. ESP teachers are not well-equipped with knowledge, skills and understanding of assessment principles in their teaching context. Teachers mostly administer end-term course exam to evaluate students' information retention.

Formative assessment is vital for ESP learning. It provides learners with advice on how to maintain and improve their progress (Knight, 2004). Besides conventional forms of assessment, ESP teachers can use various forms of alternative assessment including essays, performance assessment, oral presentations, demonstration and portfolios, etc. Alternative assessment helps learners develop self- directed learning, Shareef (2017) stated that ''the key features of alternative assessment are active participation of learners in evaluation of their own performance and the development of reflective thinking'' (p.3). Using such forms of assessment and communicating the purpose of assessments with students may result in an increase in students' achievements and motivation. Therefore, training teachers on assessment principles and how to use various types of assessment in class will definitely contribute to enhance ESP teaching and learning in this country.

5.1.5 Collaboration with Subject Specialists

One solution to the problem of lack of specialist knowledge by language teachers in ESP, often quoted in the literature, is to adopt a team teaching approach, whereby the English teacher works in tandem with a field specialist (Dudley Evans & St John, 1998). Team teaching has many other names used by researchers such as co- teaching, co-enrollment, co-operative teaching or collaborative teaching (Carpenter el al., 2007).

On a more general level, team teaching ''consists of two or more teachers sharing, to some degree, responsibility for a group of students''(Wenger & Hornyak, 1999, cited in Hanusch et al., 2009, p.68). How this is applied may differ in a variety of contexts ; Anderson and Speck (1998) stated that some see teams as being responsible only for instruction, while others see them as being involved in all aspects of course development. For example, Gurman (1989) defined team teaching as ''an approach in which two or more persons are assigned to the same students at

one time for instructional purpposes''(cited in Hanusc et al., 2009, p.68). While Kaseva et al (2006) defined it as a collaborative and '' pedagogical method in which teachers of the same or of different subject areas co-operate in the planning, realisation and further development of an educational course, programme, etc'' (cited in Renau, 2015, p.38)

Dudley Evans and St John (1998) used the term collaboration ''when there is some integration between specialist studies or activities and the language'' (p.16). According to them ''the fullest collaboration is where subject expert and a language teacher team teach classes'' (p.16). Dudley Evans and St John distinguished three different stages upon which this joint work can take place: cooperation, collaboration and team teaching.

At the first stage, cooperation, the ESP teacher takes the initiative to enquire about the students' field of specialism to design appropriate program of study. The Specialist, as Jordan (1997) maintained, acts as an informant on what goes on in the subject discipline. The second step, that of collaboration, witnesses a more direct involvement of the subject teacher to validate the syllabus content by devising common materials. Finally, the third stage, team teaching, implies a stricter conjoined work in the classroom where each educator provides his/ her own expertise in the field.

Teaching partnership can function in different ways depending on the particular context. Sandholtz (2000) identified three team-teaching configurations: (1) two or more teachers loosely sharing responsibility; (2) team-planning, but individual instruction; and (3) joint planning, instruction, and evaluation of the learning experience. Maroney (1995) and Robinson and Schaible (1995) proposed six models of team teaching ; team teaching usually involves a combination of these models dependent on the particular teachers and learners (Ranau, 2015).

Table 5.2

Models of team teaching

Model	Features
Traditional team teaching	Teachers actively share the instruction of content and skills to all students.
Collaborative teaching	-Team teachers work together in designing the course and teach the material not by the usual monologue, but rather by exchanging and discussing ideas and theories in front of the learners. -The course uses group learning techniques for the learners, such as small-group work and student-led discussion
Complementary team teaching/ Supportive team teaching	One teacher is responsible for teaching the content to the students, while the other teacher takes charge of providing follow-up activities on related topics or on study skills.
Parallel Instruction	Class is divided into two groups and each teacher is responsible for teaching the same material to his/her smaller group.
Differentiated split class	Dividing the class into smaller groups according to learning needs. Each educator provides the respective group with the instruction required to meet their

	learning needs.
Monitoring Teacher	One teacher assumes the responsibility for instructing the entire class, while the other teacher circulates the room and monitors student understanding and behaviour.

Note. Reprinted from Team Teaching in the University: Description of a Collaborative Experience the Computer Engineering and the English Depatment by M.L Renau , 2015, International Journal of Language and Applied Linguistics, 1 (2) , p. 37.

Teaching English language at tertiary level is closely hooked with subject contents and it is unrealistic to detach language from content or to teach the language in isolation (Lee, 2008). Understanding or being aware of what students are studying, their needs and the subject discourse definitely helps the ESP teacher in course design and the selection of teaching materials. This is best achieved if the English language teacher takes the initiative to gather information from the specialists in the field, and both parties are involved in deeper joint work at a later stage. As Dudley Evans and St John (1998) pointed out Subject-specific work is often best approached through collaboration with subject specialists.

Much of the literature (Dudley Evans & St John, 1998 ; Carpenter, 2007 ; Anderson & Speck, 1998 ; Hanusch et al., 2009 ; Renau, 2015 ; Lee, 2008) does affirm that working with teachers of other subjects at different levels is generally challenging, exciting and beneficial to English language teachers. Through their experience of teaching together in the same course, faculty members from different disciplines have first hand contact with ideas distant from their own disciplinary training, learn about modern

technology and recent developments in teaching methodology. They also have a chance to improve their own teaching by observing and interacting with a colleague in the classroom. Outside the classroom, they have the opportunity to exchange ideas about how to refine their teaching, and they advance in their research interests by means of close contact with colleagues from other disciplines working on related questions. All this in return maximizes productivity, improves student learning and facilitates personal professional development.

Team teaching also promotes students learning and creates a 'richer' learning environment; Anderson and Speck (1998) argued that team teaching has many benefits. "According to the literature, team teaching encourages multiple perspectives, promotes dialogue/ increased participation, and improves evaluation/feedback. What is quite amazing about all these benefits is that they crop up in disparate teaching situations in which various teaching strategies are employed." (p. 673). According to them:

• Team teaching encourages multiple perspectives.

•Team teaching can promote dialogue leading to increased student participation.

•Team teaching can improve evaluation/ feedback of students' performance.

Theoretically, team-teaching is a very positive model for promoting ESP teaching situation. However, in practice, it can have some disadvantages for teachers. Buckley (2000) summarized these shortcomings in the following points:

• Some faculty members fear that they will be expected to do more work for the same salary.

 • Team-teaching makes more demands on time and energy.

• There will be inevitable inconvenience in rethinking the course.

• Discussions can be draining, even exhausting, from the constant interaction with peers. Group decisions are slower to make.

Therefore, to succeed in this task, a number of essential elements, which have been discussed elsewhere (see, for example, Jordan, 1997 ; Dudley Evans & St John ,1998 ; Buckley ,2000 ; Richards & Farrell ,2005), should be assured :

• Willingness to collaborate on the part of both sets of staff.

• Patience.

• Mutual respect, together with openness and flexibility.

• Clear demarcation as to where their respective responsibilities lie.

• Awareness of each other's conceptual apparatus and teaching Approach.

• Members must arrange mutually agreeable times for planning and evaluation sessions.

• An interest in the foreign language.

• Response by faculty and administrators (time release and rewards, setting common goals among parties and institutionalizing collaboration).

5.1.6 Collaboration with Learners

In the ESP class, the learners are often more acquainted with knowledge of their specialist field than the teacher himself/ herself. Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) stated that "the teacher is not in the position of being the 'primary knower' of the carrier content of the material" (p.13). According to Bell (2002), ESP teachers are "on a more equal playing field with their students" (Antony, 2007, p.3). The teacher undoubtedly knows more about the language through which meaning is negotiated, but the students often have a greater understanding of the core concepts of their subject matter. In

this situation, researchers such as Anthony (2007), Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) and Hutchinson and Waters (1987) suggested that a successful ESP course can be best approached through collaboration between teachers and learners in instruction.

In this approach, the teacher is a partner and the student plays the role not only as a learner but also a provider of knowledge and information because his/her expertise in the subject area (Para, 2015). According to Anthony (2007), ESP teachers can learn much about the target core concepts by listening to views of their students, and with their vast knowledge of English, they can help learners develop different skills and communicative abilities. This approach will also enable teachers to know more closely about their learners' needs and will boost learners' self-confidence and increase their motivation towards English learning (Safakis, 2003). As Anthony (2007) noted:

> Once students realize they can make a valuable contribution
> in the classroom, they soon begin to emphatically contribute
> to the class and ultimately become a major contributing
> factor of a more successful course. (p.3)

 Kenneddy and Bothilo (1984) stated that the match between language and subject content rises students' motivation to learn.

5.1.7 ESP Practitioners Acting as Active Action Researchers

ESP teaching started very late in our country and is lacking further theory studying. With absence of effective training programs, ESP practitioners need to update their knowledge base about on- going research in the field of ESP and engage themselves in various professional development activities.

Carrying out individual research is an effective way for developing teachers' skills. For teachers, the primary reason for doing research is to become more effective teachers (Potocka & Sierocka, 2013). When teachers engage in research and make their pedagogical choices based on the evidence they have gathered in the process of research, this would bring effective results to their teaching and their students' learning (Potocka & Sierocka, 2013).

Research contributes to more effective teaching, not by offering definitive answers to pedagogical questions, but rather providing insights into teaching and learning process (Mckay, 2006) .Through acting as active action researchers, ESP practitioners can get better insights about their learners' needs. They can reach more innovative theories and approaches and offer practical solutions to other ESP practitioners working in similar contexts and facing similar problems.

According to Master (1997), ESP teachers need to involve themselves in self-training programs based on detailed needs analysis of ESP learners. One important reason for teachers' failure in designing effective instructional programs may be the variety of learners' needs, which cannot be covered in restricted training courses (Ghafournia & Sabet, 2014). In other words, participating in ESP training programs cannot prepare language teachers to act as highly qualified ESP practitioners in many actual instructional settings. Even skillful ESP teachers are sometimes unable to deal with learners' needs in the area of business full of different clients (Boswood & Marriott, 1994) .This means that ESP teachers need to be flexible and adapt their teaching according to their actual teaching experiences and their learners' needs rather than being stuck to theoretical suggestions (Ghafournia & Sabet, 2014) .

ESP teachers should be innovative and constantly explore and evaluate their own teaching practices to make necessary adjustments to meet their

learners' needs. In conducting action research, the teacher begins by asking a well-defined question related to the effectiveness of his/her teaching or his/her students' learning (identifying the problem). He/she then gathers preliminary data to better understand the problem and to make it more focused before coming up with an action plan. After the action is carried out, the teacher evaluates the outcome to see whether change or adjustment is necessary.

The following figure illustrates the different steps that teachers as researchers go through when conducting action research:

Figure 5.2

The Cycle of Action Research
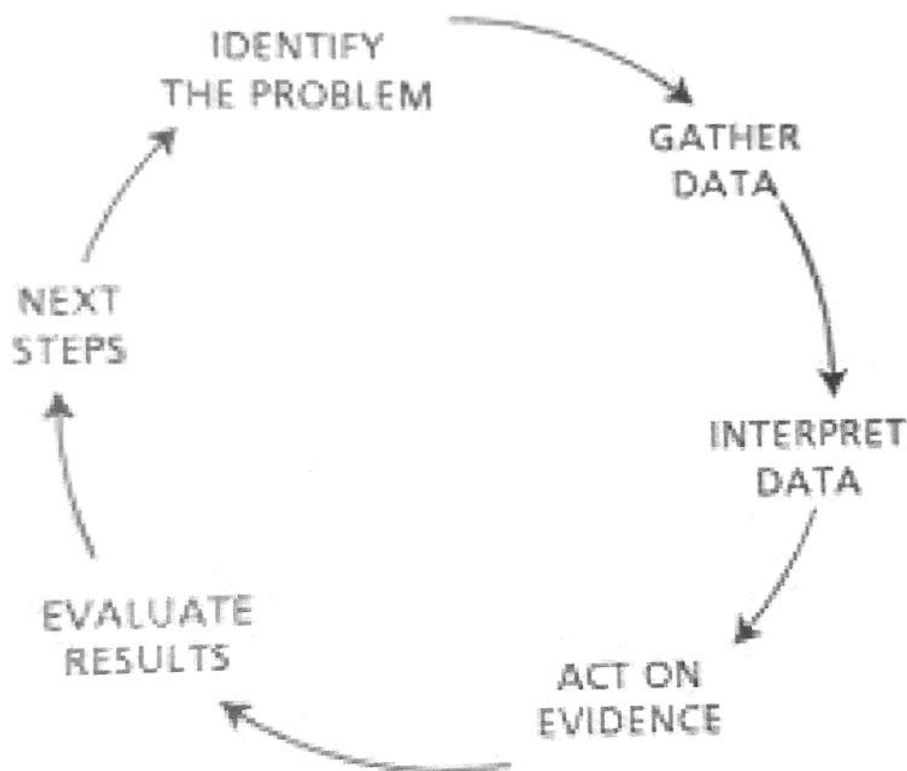
Note. Reprinted from Action Research by E. Ferrance, 2000, p. 9. Copyright 2000 by Brown University.

Although teachers' self training programs cannot substitute ESP training programs, they can lead to effective teaching and learning results.

5.1.8 Communicative Approach to ESP Teaching

The ultimate aim of the ESP subject is to enhance learners' language abilities in order to communicate effectively and be successful in their future professions or studies. Some ESP teachers believe that their main job is to teach specific vocabularies of a given job or a profession, but the ESP teaching approach implies teaching language as a skill and as a means of communication. Communication skills become the basic part of language learning content. Development of students' skills to communicate their ideas and thoughts is the most important outcome of studying English. Pei-long (2011) reported that "the successful language teaching is which focuses on communicative proficiency rather than mastery of sentence structures" (p.459). It means that language in use is the best approach for students to develop communicative competence.

The communicative approach to language teaching (CLT) is used worldwide and has proved its efficiency. The communicative approach is based on the concept of teaching language by providing a realistic context for language practice. In this respect, it is important to activate learners' interests, awareness, confidence and autonomy in learning by employing communicative activities. A host of research studies have proved that the use of non- communicative activities and techniques as asking questions to the text and doing exercises monotonously cause boredom in the classroom. The students have high motivation attitudes towards problem solving activities, discussion/ debate activities, presentations, reading and listening for specific information, etc.

In communicative language teaching the role of the teacher and the student, the content of the lessons and the material are very different from those of the traditional class and learning routine of structural approaches

(Savignon, 1983).   Richards (2006) proposed the following principles underlying CLT:

1. Engaging in interaction and meaningful communication facilitates language learning.

2. Effective classroom learning tasks provide learners the opportunities to extract meaning, expand their language, notice how language is used and take part in meaningful interpersonal exchange.

3. Meaningful communication occurs when learners' processing content is relevant, purposeful, interesting and engaging.

4. Communication is a comprehensive process that often calls upon the use of several language skills or modalities.

5. Language learning is facilitated both by activities that involve inductive or discovery learning of language rules as well as those involving language analysis and reflection.

6. Language learning is a gradual process that involves creative use of language and trial and error. Although errors are a normal product of learning , the ultimate goal of learning is to be able to use the new language both accurately and fluently.

7. Learners develop their own routes to language learning, progress at different rates and have different needs and motives to language learning.

8. Successful language learning involves the use of effective learning and communication strategies.

9. The role of the teacher in the language classroom is that of a facilitator, who creates a classroom climate conductive to language learning and provides opportunities for learners to use and practice the language and to reflect on language use and language learning.

10.   The classroom is a community where learners learn through collaboration and sharing.

This means that the emphasis is not entirely on teaching but rather on the learning process and learners' contribution to the methodology, making it a learner-centered approach.

Task Based Learning, Problem Based Learning and Project Work

are some communicative approaches. Adopting one of them or a combination of them can be very effective in the ESP class.

5.1.8.1 Task Based Learning (TBL)

Task Based Learning (TBL) is an approach to language teaching based on the use of authentic language to complete meaningful tasks in the target language. The term task has been defined differently by many researchers. Prabhu (1987) described task as "an activity which required learners to arrive at an outcome from given information through some process of thought and which allowed teachers to control and regulate that process" (p.24).

Nunan (1989) stated that a task is "a piece of classroom work which involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is primarily focused on meaning rather than form" (p. 10). Willis (1996) stressed that a task is "goal oriented activity in which learners use language to achieve real outcome" (p.53). Ellis (2003), on the other hand, defined a task as a work plan that involves a pragmatic processing of language, using the learners' existing language resources and attention to meaning, and resulting in the completion of an outcome which can be assessed for its communicative function. According to him, a task has four main characteristics:

1. A task involves a primary focus on (pragmatic) meaning.

2. A task has some kind of 'gap'. (Prabhu (1987) identified the three main types: information gap, reasoning gap, and opinion gap.)

3. The participants choose the linguistic resources needed to complete the task.

4. A task has a clearly defined, non-linguistic outcome.

Willis (1996) proposed TBL framework consisting of three main steps: pre-task, task cycle and language focus.

1) Pre- task

In pre-task phase, the teacher introduces the class to the topic and the task activating topic- related words and phrases. The teacher can use pictures, posters, demonstrations and recordings to prepare his learners for the topic.

2) Task cycle

During the task phase, the learners complete the task in pairs or in small groups while the teacher monitors from distance. One of the pairs performs their discussion in front of the class. Then, the teacher helps to correct the completed tasks in oral or written form.

3) Language focus

At this stage, the learners examine and discuss specific features of any listening or reading text which they have looked at for the task, or the teacher may conduct some form of practice of specific language features which the task has provoked.

Though there is a divergence of views among proponents of task-based language teaching in relation to the core principles of TBLT, Swan (2005)

highlighted   a set of characteristics on which there is a general agreement:

• Instructed language learning should mainly contain naturalistic language use and the activities are related to meaning rather than language.

• Instruction should be learner-centered rather than teacher-centered.

• As totally naturalistic learning does not normally give rise to target-like accuracy, engagement, therefore, it is essential to promote the internalization of formal linguistic elements while keeping the perceived benefits of a natural approach.

• This can be best achieved by offering opportunities by focus on the form, which will attract learners' attention to linguistic components as they emerge incidentally in lessons whose main focus is on meaning or communication.

• Communicative tasks are particularly suitable devices for this approach.

• More formal pre- or post- task language study may be beneficial. It can make contribution to internalization by leading or maximizing familiarity with formal characteristics during communication.

• Traditional approaches are unproductive and unsuitable; especially, where they require passive formal instruction and practice isolated from communicative work.

Kavaliauskienê (2005) mentioned some of the advantages of TBL:

• There is no language control in production stage.

• Learners use their language knowledge and resources.

• Learners experiment with language during task completion.

• Learners communicate and collaborate during activities.

• Target language emerges from learners' needs.

• TBL offers reflection on language usage.

Willis and Willis (2007) suggested different types of tasks that can be implemented with the students in class:

1. Listing: brainstorming, fact finding, games based on listing (quizzes, memory and guessing).

2. Ordering and sorting: sequencing, ranking ordering, classifying.

3. Matching: matching words and phrases to pictures

4. Comparing: finding similarities and differences, graphic organizers.

5. Problem solving: logic problem prediction

6. Creative tasks: posters, survey fantasy.

7. Sharing personal experiences.

5.1.8.2 Problem Based Learning (PBL)

Problem Based Learning is a teaching method in which complex real world problems are used as the vehicle to promote students learning of concepts and principles as opposed to direct presentation of facts and concepts (Duch et al., 2001). PBL can promote the development of critical thinking skills, problem solving abilities and communication skills. It can be incorporated to any learning situation.

Barrows (2000) claimed that learning is discovery-based and that process of trying to achieve a successful outcome develops learners' problem solving skills and prepares them for world of work.

Barron (2002) reported an example of PBL used with science students taking English for Academic (EAP) course at a university in Hong Kong. The instructors decided on a science problem in Hong Kong and the

students were required to prepare a poster that would be assessed by both science and EAP teachers. The results of the study revealed that the majority of the students enjoyed group work and problem solving. The posters were of high quality. Barron stated the benefits of that problem based task in the following:

• Generativity (the students used both Cantonese and English to generate knowledge).

• Personal relevance (they integrated scientific discourse and language to solve the problem).

• Personal autonomy (they chose the problem and developed ownership of it).

• Active engagement (they made posters and collaborated both inside

and outside the classroom).

• Reflectivity (they became independent in the way they seek knowledge

and present it).

• Integration (they shared concepts and ideas across disciplines).

5.1.8.3 Project Work

Haines (1989) described project work as multi-skill activities which focus on themes rather than on specific language tasks and identified four types of projects: information and research projects, survey projects, production projects and performance/organizational projects. Sheppard and Stoller (1995) stated that whatever the project type, they have a common emphasis on student involvement, collaboration and responsibility. They are similar to cooperative learning and task-oriented activities but they differ is in their scale; projects require learners to work together for several days or weeks inside and outside the classroom.

Sheppard and Stoller (1995) claimed that project work is effective in ESP settings because it "creates a need to communicate, an information gap" (p.13). Some of its advantages that it involves authentic language use, authentic tasks, focus is on language at discourse level (rather on sentence level) and is learner centered. According to them:

> Once attention is off linguistic forms and on the task …students begin to pool their resources to make themselves understood and to understand their interlocutors. On the cognitive level, … they make use of what they know in real time. If topics and tasks can be identified that require real communication in vocationally appropriate contexts around relevant subject matter, then the learning process is aligned more closely with students' long term communication needs. (p.13)

Ho and Krookall (1995) reported a successful project work involving 21 freshmen on BA English for Professional Communication (EPC) at a University in Hong Kong along with 26 other students teams from different countries. The project lasted seven weeks with several weeks and several more weeks of preparation. The project was simulation; each team of students was given the role of a particular nation and the students had to negotiate with other country-teams the text of an international treaty on how the world's ocean resources should be managed. This required the preparation of policy statements, position papers and various drafts of the treaty. Ho and Krookall stated that the project was very effective; it fostered learners' autonomy and raised their motivation.

5.1.9 Creating Motivating Learning Environment

Another important feature that should be considered in ESP courses is creating a learning environment. The first step for achieving learning setting goals and objectives is creating a positive learning atmosphere in the classroom because it helps reinforcing teaching / learning process and supports students in their work (Bracaj, 2014). Creating positive learning atmosphere in class is closely linked with motivation (Bracaj, 2014). Several research studies carried out in different parts of the world have proved that motivation is important and a necessary determinant for language learning. Learners with high levels of motivation and a positive attitude regarding the learning environment are often willing to communicate and thus learn the language more effectively and successfully (Altalib, 2019). Teachers cannot make someone motivated, but they can create motivating environments.

Daniel (2010) pointed out the significant role that motivation plays in learning and provides suggestions of how to keep learners motivated in the classroom. According to her, students feel motivated when they have knowledge about what they need to accomplish (autonomy), knowledge that their teachers care about and are committed to class (relatedness) and a belief that they can do what is being asked from them (competence). When the students have control over their choices, thoughts and actions, they are more likely to learn the material or fulfill the task because they feel it is their choice.

Eggen and Kauchak (2010), on the other hand, stated that there are four variables for creating motivating environment: order and safety, success, challenge and task comprehension. Order and safety means that the teachers have to make the classroom a comfortable place for learning working together with students for achieving the goals; teachers need to involve learners in making the class rules and designing particular assignments.

Success means that teachers need to develop learners' belief in their ability or what is also called self-efficacy. Teachers need to make students think and learn independently by giving them open-ended questions and examples which relate with their prior knowledge and help them to reflect on their own progress.

Sometimes teachers need to give their students challenging tasks to motivate them and encourage them trying and searching the way to solve the problem itself.

The last variable, task comprehension, means that teachers have to explain to their students the purposes and objectives of the tasks. This will increase their awareness about what they are supposed to be leaning and an understanding of why the task is important and worthwhile.

Eggen and Kauchak also noted that teachers need to instruct, praise, influence, guide and inspire their students. They also have to keep in positive attitude, be cheerful and open-minded.

5.1.10 Promoting Translation in the ESP Class

There are many opposing views in the literature concerning the use of native language (L1) in EFL and ESP classrooms. The negative view about the use of L1 and translation activities in the EFL classroom dates back to the grammar translation method which resulted in students unable to speak fluently after having studied the language for a long time. For this reason, translation was regarded "uncommunicative, boring, pointless, difficult and irrelevant" (Duff, 1994 as cited in G. Kavaliauskienë & L. kaminskienë, 2007b, p.132).

However, recent research (Atkinson,1993; Cook, 2001; Ross, 2000 ; Xhemaili, 2013) has demonstrated that the use of L1 can result in positive effects and facilitates language learning process. Indeed, studies proved that the use of translation activities involving L1 input material and various

translation tasks with non-native English learners increased their motivation for communicative activities and fostered acquisition of new language resources.

Harmer (2001) pointed out that students use their mother tongue in the classroom if they are linguistically unable to understand some vocabulary terms for a specific task. "when we learn a foreign language we use translation almost without thinking about it" (p.131). Teachers thus should understand that translation is a natural thing to do in language learning, and code switching between L1 and L2 is regarded as a natural development. "No one is in any doubt that students will use their L1 in class, whatever teachers do or say" (Harmer, 2001, p.133). Students understand better certain elements of grammar or vocabulary when compared with L1 (Chirobocea, 2018). As a result, rejecting translation in language classes is not a solution, nor a guarantee for the improvement of language acquisition (Matioli, 2004); it seems to create a stressful situation to great many students (Karimian & Talebine Jad, 2013) especially since it is the learners' preference to use it (Atkinson, 1987).

Translation can be useful with learners at beginner level or intermediate level for presenting the meaning of new lexical items or expressions, in activities based on translation for the development of fluency in L2, for discussing classroom methodology and for giving rules of usage in order to facilitate learning process (Dedrinos, 2006) .

On contrary to the traditional belief, translation is seen as a communicative act;   Fernández- Guerra (2014) stated that "TILT [translation in language teaching] can expose FL students to various text types, register styles, contexts, etc that resemble the way language is used in real-life for communicative purposes" (p.155). Translation as a technique requires the use of authentic materials, is interactive, learner-centered and

promotes learner autonomy which are important qualities in ESP (Mahmoud, 2006).

According to Atkinson (1993), the advantages of using translation activities are that they lead learners to think about meaning not just manipulate forms mechanically, allow learners to think comparatively, encourage them to take risks and are a real life activity.

Translation is useful to compare grammar, syntax, word order, vocabulary and this helps learners activate language usage (Kavaliauskienë & kaminskienë, 2007). As Ross (2000) pointed out:

> The real usefulness of translation in the EFL classroom lies
>
> in exploiting it in order to compare grammar, vocabulary, word
>
> order and other language points in English and the students'
>
> mother- tongue. The areas where differences occur range from
>
> relatively small points such as 'false friends' ,through sizeable
>
> areas such as tense systems, to more complex fields such as
>
> contrastive rhetoric.

By understanding the differences while doing contrastive analysis, the learners will acquire more knowledge of the target language (Ross, 2000). Translation activities can be used for various purposes: cooperation among learners, reinforcement of recently explained items of grammar or vocabulary, checking for sense and development of learning strategies (Atkinson, 1987). They can also enhance physical attributes such as memory and cognition contributing to the improvement of learning. As stated by Ali (2012), translation "can be used as cognitive, memory, affective, communicative, and compensatory learning strategy to boost

learning effects" (p.430). Translation practice promotes both analytic and synthetic thinking, developing the "skills of circumlocution, paraphrase, explanation, and simplification" (Atkinson, 1987, p.245) and facilitating the learner's adaptation to various linguistic instances (Chirobocea, 2018, p.71).

When it comes to ESP, translation can "be very helpful when accurate equivalence as well as work on authentic texts are required for the learners' needs" (Chirobocea, 2018, p.71). Such activities may be very helpful for the students after they graduate and work in field of their choice as they will have a set of common phrases to that domain as well as skills needed to face new linguistic challenges in their future professional life.

Many researchers offer various examples of how translation can be used in class. Some suggest matching words, translating and giving L1 equivalents of simple terms and expressions or translation of definitions of terms (Kic-Drgas, 2014). Others propose consolidation translations (Atkinson, 1993) for grammar such as the progressive aspect, comparatives or false friends (Ross, 2000) or error correction through translation (Atkinson, 1993). Translation activities could be integrated within reading/ listening comprehension activities and tasks and later within the language production activities. For example, comparing different translations of the same text (Atkinson, 1993), translation as post-reading activity (Mahmoud, 2006) or back translation (Zhang & Gao, 2014) see L1 ,which consists of one group translating a text from L1 into L2 then giving the translation to a different group to translate it back into L1 followed by an analysis of the differences that occur and discussing why. Translation is helpful for leaning new terminology , and students understand better grammar issues when these are explained and practiced in comparison with L1(Chirobocea, 2018). Xhemaili (2013) in a study conducted with students of law and public relation in an Albanian university reported that ESP learners had a high preference to use L1 which facilitated their comprehension of what

was going in the class, made them comfortable when getting lost and helped them to learn English easily. The students were able to understand difficult concepts, guess meaning from context and learn new vocabularies.

In conclusion, we can say that translation can be very beneficial in ESP teaching and learning process. However, it is worth mentioning   that translation should not only be used as a teaching tool, it should be developed and emphasized for its own sake as it is often considered as the fifth language skill alongside with the other four basic skills .

5.1.11 Raising Learners' Autonomy

So many efforts have been made by scholars and educators to substantiate the effectiveness of learner-centred approach in foreign language teaching/ learning. Hutchinson and Waters (1987), among many others, stressed the significance and role of learners in designing and implementing the ESP course. They believe in creating a life-long and self-dependent learner rather than restricting the learning process to the classroom setting. ESP learners must learn how to identify their own learning needs and identify sources for addressing those needs, in such   a way they become responsible for their own learning.

Holec (1981) defined autonomy as "the ability to take charge of one's own learning" (p.3). Dickinson (1987) described it as "a situation in which the learner is totally responsible for all the decisions concerned with his or her learning and the implementation of those decisions" (p.11). Littlewood (1999) distinguished between two levels of autonomy: proactive autonomy and reactive autonomy . Proactive autonomy refers to learners setting their own objectives and taking charge of all aspects of their learning. Reactive autonomy, on the other hand, "does not create its own directions but once a direction has been initiated enables learners to organize their resources autonomously in order to reach their goal" (p.75).

Omaggio (1978) proposed several criteria for the autonomous learner:

1-Autonomous learners have insights into their own learning styles and strategies;

2-Take an active approach to the learning task at hand,

3-Students are willing to take risks, i.e. to communicate in the target language at all costs;

4-They are good guessers;

5-Attend to form as well as content, that is, place importance on accuracy as well as appropriacy;

6-They develop the target language into a separate reference system and are willing to revise and reject hypotheses and rules that do not apply;

7-They have a tolerant and outgoing approach to the target Language.

(Cited in Wenden, 1998, p. 41-42)

Dickinson (1995) cited several research studies which suggest that "motivation to learn and learning effectiveness can be increased in learners who take responsibility for their own learning, who understand and accept that their learning success is the result of effort" (p.168). One of the studies cited by Dickinson is that investigating the links between intrinsic motivation and autonomy. The results of that investigation revealed that learners who are intrinsically motivated to do an activity want to do it for its own sake rather than due to external pressures (i.e. extrinsic motivation) such as exams, for example. Deci and Ryan (1985) claimed that self-determination leads to intrinsic motivation and ,further,   that intrinsic motivation leads to effective learning.

According to Holec (1981), the ability of taking charge of one's own learning is not inborn and therefore "(it) must be acquired either by 'natural' means or (…) by formal learning, i.e. in a systematic, deliberate way" (p.3). Therefore, the main task of ESP teachers is to help their students to become autonomous, i.e. to teach/ train them how to learn. Dam (2001) conveys that "the teacher is expected to provide a learning environment where the learners are given the possibility consciously to be involved in their own learning and thus become autonomous learners" (p.49).

Ryan and Powelson (1991) stated that autonomy can develop most effectively in an interpersonal environment that provides it with support. They suggested that a facilitating environment for autonomy should include the following elements:

• Concrete support through the provision of help and support.

• Personal concern and involvement from significant others.

• Opportunities for making choices.

• Freedom from a sense of being controlled by external agents.

Marchese (1998), as cited in Jeffries and Hugget (2010), stated that preparing the learners to be autonomous, the teacher has to provide them with learning activities that:

• Require the application of higher-order thinking skills.

• Mirror the tasks that learners will face in the real world.

Harmer (2001), on the other hand, provided some ways by which the

teacher can promote autonomous learning:

•**Learner training**: teachers can train students to promote different learning strategies to solve problems and offer them different learning-style alternatives in order to choose the most appropriate ones for each learner.

• **Homework**: learners' self reflection about different activities enhances considerably the learning process. However, the teacher has to be careful not to bore his learners with too much or complicated tasks and use activities that promotes students' autonomy in an interesting way.

• **Keeping 'learning journals'**: teachers can invite their learners to keep journals or diaries writings about their learning experience which may reflect their positive or negative attitudes about their lectures.

To sum up, ESP teachers need to help their learners play active role in the learning process and acquire the knowledge and skills they need to reach their learning objectives and be capable of independent learning rather than simply waiting for the teacher to provide them with information.

5.1.12 The Use of ICT in the ESP Classroom

In this current digital world, technological devices have become an important part of our life tasks. Due to their facilitating role, they are used in all domains of life and professional settings including education. Information and communication technologies (ICT) consist of a wide range of "hardware, software, network and media used for collecting, storing, processing, transmitting and presenting information (voice, data, text and image) as well as related services (Talebian et al., 2014).

For Sarkar (2012), ICTs can be divided into two components: information and communication infrastructure (ICI) and information technology (IT). The first refers to physical telecommunications system and network (cellular, voice, mail, radio and television), and the second refers to

hardware and software of information collection, storage and presentation. According to UNESCO (2002) as cited in Talebian et al. (2014):

> ICT now permeates the education environments and underpins the very success of the 21st century education. ICT also adds value to the process of learning and to the organization and management of learning institutions Technologies are a driving force behind much of the development and innovation in both developed and developing countries. (p.301)

Hence, good command of ICT use and mastery of English language are two main factors for the production of successful highly qualified members for of the global market place. In this regard, all ESP teachers are recommended to update their teaching methods and tools according to the perpetual growth of ICTs.

ICT in higher education can be used in different areas such as: developing course materials, delivering and sharing content, communication between teachers and learners and the outside world, preparation and presentation of lectures, academic research, administrative support and student enrolment (Mandal & Mete, 2012 as cited in Talebian et al. 2014)

The advantages of ICTs are of course enormous. ICTs not only facilitate the teaching and learning process but also increase the speed of transferring knowledge from one person to another. Teachers and learners can communicate and share lessons and information knowledge with each other within the same university or with people outside the university from other universities in different parts of the world.

In the field of educational research, by using internet and its technology (e.g. email, World Wide Web, File Transfer Protocol, Usenet and Talenet)

researchers, students and teachers are able to exchange research findings and documents rapidly and effectively.

In developed countries, all colleges and universities are connected to internet. They have created a virtual library system providing electronic cataloguing, electronic inter-library loan and electronic circulation functions to ease access to documentation and increase students' participation. In Algeria, many university libraries have not yet benefited from the facilities provided by ICT. The need for a virtual library system has become a most urgent necessity in the Algerian universities.

Technology can help teachers to enhance traditional way of teaching; making teaching more fun and enjoyable, increase active participation in the learning process which is hard to achieve in a traditional lecture environment and keep students more engaged and motivated. Students can develop practical skills that they will need to be successful in the future as how to make research on internet, learning to differentiate reliable from unreliable sources on internet, using world and excel Microsoft office, creating presentations on power point, writing emails, etc.

Internet has also created a new system of education, e-learning system or computer assisted learning or computer instruction. It   is "an electronic mode of knowledge sharing and transmition, which may not involve physical contact between teacher and student" (Talebian et al. , 2014, p. 2022). With the latter, learning is no longer confined to schedules and timetables.

The teachers can make their lectures available into electronic content or online courses. The students can have access to the materials at any time when the teacher being online or offline. They can do their tasks and send them to their teachers to give them feedback. The teachers can also assess the progress of their students and test them using on the e-learning platform. In Algeria, e-learning is still in its infancy. However, with Covid19 crisis,

all universities in the country have adopted e-learning   system to save on the amount of physical   contact between   staff and   students ,yet many challenges remain unsolved.

Most universities in Algeria lack ICT infrastructure such as computers, hardware and software and internet access. In addition, most of the teachers are unfamiliar with ICTs and the application of computing in the teaching/ learning process.

Tertiary-level administrators should look beyond the state for investment in ICT; banks and other enterprises could be encouraged to see the development of ICT in higher education as investment targets (Idowu & Esere, 2013). With adequate funding of the government and private institutions, there would be adequate provision of the required ICTs infrastructure and Facilities. Moreover, there should be effective ICT education programs for staff, students and researchers at universities to promote a wide range of usage at all levels of education.

5.1.13 Use of Authentic Materials

Authenticity has been pointed to by various researchers as a relevant feature in ESP methodology. Authentic materials are those taken from the real world not primarily created for pedagogical reasons. Such materials are particularly important for communicative purposes since they provide a realistic context for tasks that relate to learners' needs. Authentic materials can be greatly useful in problem-solving, role play, simulation, gaming tasks, etc.

Authentic materials can be classified into three types:

1. Authentic audio visual materials: are materials that the learner can see and hear at the same time which provide audios, pictures and notions that make the learner perceive the exact intended meanings such as: TV shows,

documentaries, online videos, weather forecasts, advertisements, interviews, etc.

2. Authentic visual materials: are materials that can be seen; for example: pictures, drawings, post cards, maps, etc.

3. Authentic printed materials: include written materials like magazines, news paper articles, emails, reports, brochures, etc.

Authentic materials are very helpful in the ESP classroom, they can help the learners acquire new expressions and vocabularies and interact with the language the way it is used in a real context. According to Berardo (2006), the advantages of using authentic materials are:

• Having positive effect on students' motivation.

• Exposing students to real language.

• Increasing knowledge about another culture.

• Relating more closely to students' needs.

• Supporting a more creative approach to learning.

Guariento and Morley (2001) argued that authentic materials are significant since they intensify and increase learners' motivation. Kilickaya (2004) stated that authentic materials increase and develop learners' motivation because such materials offer students a feeling that they are learning the real language. Otte (2006) as cited in Belaid and Murray (2015) also indicated that students' motivation develops through using such materials in language classrooms.

Thanajaro (2000) noted that the use of authentic videos in ESL or EFL classrooms has a positive effect on learners' motivation to learn the language; the specific facts shown in the authentic videos such as: the

images, the language used in the video and the content create a different environment in the classroom which is motivating for the learners.

Another significant point concerning authentic materials is that they foster language acquisition. According to Brinton (1991), authentic materials foster language acquisition; they help the learner to realize the relationship between language learnt and language used in real situations. Gebhard (1996) viewed authentic materials as a way to 'contextualize' language learning. When the lessons are centered on comprehending a menu or a weather TV report , students tend to focus more on content and meaning.

Gilmore (2007) claimed that authentic videos offer a rich input and potential to develop learners' communicative competence. Gastro (2009) stated that videos can be an effective tool for language learning since they are created by native speakers which help EFL learners to learn a lot of expressions or collocations and grammatical forms that they can use to interact with other people in different life contexts. Ting Hang (2008), in a study he conducted, reported that the participants of his research benefited from the visual part of the video which helped them to self-analyze their performance and thus become autonomous learners.

Wegener (2008) supported the use of authentic texts in ESP classrooms. According to him there three functions that authentic texts serve in ESP classes:

> First, inviting authentic materials from the learners' work
> environment to the classroom the teacher offers assistance
> (…) Second, the ESP teacher always looks for texts that are
> as close to the learners' target situations in their jobs as
> possible (…) Third, authentic texts serve as sources of

information for the teacher and may already be collected

during the needs analysis period. (p.137)

Lin (2004) also emphasized the use of authentic texts in language classrooms. Richards (2001) noted that authentic texts facilitate language learning provided that they are used in communicative way. The communication which takes place in class must simulate as much as possible the communication observable in the real world.

Blagojevic (2013) stated that in order to an adequate and professional selection of the texts which are included in an ESP coursebook, it is necessary to undertake several analyses that which will help in this process:

1) The needs analysis of students' specific academic discipline which includes analysis of students' actual and anticipated needs in relation to the ESP course objectives.
2) The analysis of students' prior knowledge of a language.
3) The analysis of students' prior knowledge of a discipline.

Hardling (2007) recommended the use of authentic materials and provided some guidelines for ESP practitioners for the approach they need to take and some dos and don'ts as follows:

• Think about what is needed.

• Understand the nature of your students' subject area.

• Identify language needs in relation to the subject.

• Use contexts, texts and situations from the students' subject area.

• Exploit authentic materials that students use in their specialism.

• Make tasks as authentic as well as the texts.

• Motivate your students with variety, relevance and fun.

• Try to take the classroom into the real world that the students inhabit, and bring their real world into the classroom.

However, there are some criteria that ESP teachers should take into consideration to select the appropriate materials to suit their learners' needs. Berardo (2006) suggested three main criteria "suitability of content, exploitability and readability" (p.62).

Suegni (2009) provided more criteria that ESP teachers should consider when selecting materials:

• Authenticity: the materials should serve communicative goals.

• Accessibility: the material should be easy to the learner to understand and

suitable for the teacher.

• Appropriateness: they should suit the learner age, level, needs and interests.

• Applicability: they should suit the teaching context and make the objectives attainable.

5.1.14 Teaching Grammar in ESP

Grammar and vocabulary are two main components in language learning. Grammar is concerned with the meanings and functions of grammatical structures and contributes to producing sentences. The ability to perform grammatical knowledge in language skills, e.g. reading, listening, writing or speaking, is necessary in ESP teaching. Therefore, it is important to give grammar its share in ESP teaching, but this doesn't mean to devote the whole lesson to teaching grammatical forms, as the researcher observed in some ESP classes.

Ellis (2005) stated that proficiency in ESP requires that the learner acquires a rich repertoire of formulaic expressions and knowledge of

grammatical rules.   Grammar not only helps the learner to construct accurate sentences but also to use various structures to express thoughts in ESP communication occasions (Chen, 2016).

Unfortunately, a big number of ESP learners are low level students with little and unsatisfactory knowledge of general English. As a result, they encounter difficulties in expressing their ideas in class. ESP teachers must teach grammar to help students improve their language skills. ESP courses are meant to develop learners' communicative skills to enable them to use English effectively in their future job or in real life situations. Teachers need to teach grammar as part of other skills. Grammar should be 'a master skill' that facilitates competence in all skills : reading, writing, listening and speaking (Savage et al., 2010). As Chen (2016) put it, ESP teachers need to make a balance between grammar and communication. Students should be taught how to use the English structures and specific vocabularies and to correct their mistakes.

According to Setiawan and Augostina (2022), in order for the teaching of grammar to be effective, grammar should be taught communicatively in the context in which it occurs. Spada (1997) claimed that when learners are exposed to grammatical forms through formal instruction in a communicative way, their awareness of the forms as well as their accuracy improves and becomes more long-lasting. Teaching grammar has impact in all the four skills.

Teaching grammar communicatively means increasing learners' ability to communicate effectively using grammar forms. Grammar rules often seem boring because they are taught separately from the larger context in which language is used. Traditional approaches to grammar teaching focused on teaching grammar at sentence level. Sentence level grammar refers to parts of speech such as: tenses, phrases, clauses and word order. However, current approaches to grammar instruction recognize that it is

important to teach grammar in context. A communicative grammar lesson gives the students the opportunity to practice the target language.

Different types of communication tasks can be used to teach grammar communicatively such as: role plays, games, discussion activities, etc. Dekeyser (1988) stated that communicative activities are important because they allow the learner to practice the target language feature under real operating conditions. They are also enjoyable, the students like them, and they increase their motivation.

Language experts debate weather teaching grammatical features explicitly or implicitly. Some believe that grammatical points should be taught explicitly, that is in deductive way. The students are taught the rules, and then they apply these rules when they use the language .Others think that they should be taught implicitly or inductive way. The students are not taught grammatical rules directly but are left to discover or induce the rules from their experience of using the language.

Consciousness-raising is another related aspect to teaching grammar in context. Consciousness-raising means making learners aware of the properties of a certain grammatical feature by highlighting them or helping learners to notice them in some way (Ellis, 2015). For example, while teaching passive forms to a science class, the Consciousness-raising might start with requiring students to identify all the passives in the model text. The students read the text and then circle every instance of the passive voice. Once students have identified passives in the model text, instruction could move on to meaning. The teacher could ask questions such as: what does it mean when a writer has chosen to use the passive voice in this context? how is the passive voice used? and so on.

Whatever the way used to teach grammatical features, the learners should have the opportunity to practice them in the way they are used in real life situations.

5.1.15 Teaching Vocabulary in ESP

Vocabulary plays a major role in any language acquisition. In ESP, vocabulary is very important for learners, it is the basis they will require in their future careers. Mohan and Van Naerssen (1997) stated that knowledge of specific vocabulary helps learners to understand better their area of specialism as it broadens their knowledge.

> The specialist language of a discipline is intrinsic to students'
> learning of disciplinary knowledge; students need to show their
> understanding of concepts, concepts, relations between phenomena,
> etc by incorporating the specialist language and terminology of
> their discipline into their writing accurately. They also need to
> adopt the specialist language in order to make meaning and
> engage with disciplinary knowledge.
>
> (Cited in Chirobocea-Tudor, 2018, p.172)

It also helps learners to read journals in English, have access to websites and applications in English, communicate with peers from other countries and exchange ideas in their field (Chirobocea-Tudor, 2018).

ESP vocabulary can be simply defined as terms that relate to a particular area of study or a professional use (Coxhead, 2013 as cited in Chirobocea-Tudor, 2018). Basturkmen (2006) classified vocabulary into two types:

"A common core of general language …   referred to as 'basic' language" and "no common core of language preexisting to varieties" (Basturkmen, 2006, p.16-17).

Nation (2001), after an extensive research on vocabulary acquisition, distinguished four categories of vocabulary: high frequency words, academic words, technical words and low frequency words (Chirobocea-Tudor, 2018).

The high frequency words are the most frequent 2000 words of English. Micheal West (1953) called these words general service vocabulary because they were in use (service) whatever the language was being used to do. These words include function words (articles, pronouns, propositions, conjunctions and numerals) and common content words (nouns, verbs, adjectives).

Academic words include 570 words that have a wide range of use in academic texts such as: scientific articles, books and textbooks. The list is not restricted to a specific discipline.

Technical words refer to words used by people working in a particular field or subject area. They cover 5% of the running words in specialized texts.

Low frequency words are those words that are rarely used in the language.

ESP, in theory, is taught to learners that are at intermediate level proficiency. Therefore, ESP focuses on technical vocabulary; namely those which have specialized meanings and differ from one subject area to another or academic vocabulary that learners often meet while reading academic publications   .However, ESP teachers should not ignore high frequency vocabulary or consider them already dealt with by previous teachers as without them there is no understanding of highly scientific or technical texts (Chirobocea-Tudor, 2018).

According to Ur (2009), regardless of these distinctions between basic and specialized language, the basics of what needs to be taught in terms of

vocabulary are always the same: form (spelling and pronunciation), grammar (verb forms, plural of nouns, etc), collocations (combination of words), aspects of meaning (denotation, connotation, appropriateness and meaning relationships (synonyms, antonyms, hyponyms, superordinates) and translation) and word formation (prefixes, suffixes, compound words). In ESP, most of these aspects are important. Wu (2014) insisted that understanding word formation is fundamental for ESP learners because it helps them to recognize and memorize vocabulary more effectively.

In science, for instance, it is necessary to spell words correctly; most of scientific vocabulary are of Latin and Greek origin and have complicated spelling. The learner needs also to be able to choose the appropriate synonym in a given context and to use the correct preposition. If one proposition is wrongly used in an experiment description, for example, it may alter the outcome of the experiment by other researchers who try to replicate it. It is also important to know affixes and suffixed to form nouns, verbs, adjectives, etc. The misspelling or incorrect choice of words suggests lack of specialism (Chirobocea-Tudor, 2018). That's why, vocabulary acquisition is vital in ESP.

Different methods can be useful for teaching vocabulary in ESP such as: lexical approach, task based, PPP, audio-lingual approach or the communicative approach. The ESP teacher can use one methodology or mix more than one. Learners often learn new vocabularies when they are doing exercises that focus on developing language skills.

Xhaferi (2009, 2010) stated that continuous exposure to specialized vocabulary is an effective way for learners to acquire new words.

According to Xhaferi:

> It is difficult to learn words especially ESP words because they …are not encountered very often. Vocabulary acquisition is incremental in nature and this means that words are not learned instantaneously but they are learned over a period of time. The number of words learned depends on numerous exposure to a particular word (p.232)

Simple exposure to specific terminology is not enough, "practice activities for revision, consolidation and reinforcement are the one that make the difference" (Chirobocea-Tudor, 2018, p.177).

A wide range of vocabulary learning activities can be applied in the ESP classroom such as: cross words puzzles, matching games, fill in gaps, multiple choice, etc.

1) Multiple choice tasks

In multiple choice tasks, the students are asked to select only correct answers from a list.

• **Choose the word that correctly complete each sentence**

1. The ……………encouraged people to buy Shoo-Fly Bug Reppellent.

 a. advertisement

b. editorial

c. amendment

2. The ……………policy promised to pay for the losses.

a. commercial

b. insurance

c. jury

3. The trail of John Peter Zenger was a victory for freedom of ………..

a. fraud

b. press

c. consumer

4. An editorial expresses the writer's …………on the topic.

a. opinion

b. deposit

c. panic

5. The advertising agency had a clever ……….for promoting the new soda.

a. strategy

b. gazette

c. policy

6. They hoped to …..….customers to buy the beverage.

a. tedious

b. entice

7. The reporter will ……..his report on Bigfoot with photographs and eyewitness accounts.

a. infer

b. substantiate

c. make

2) Matching

The students are asked to match the terms with their definitions, pictures, abbreviations, etc.

• Match each word with its definition

a. **Humiliiation**

b. **Army**

c. **Treason**

d. **Conbatant**

e. **To track**

f. **Stealing**

g. **Scorn**

h. **Gun**

i. **Victory**

j. **Munitions**

k. **Cadet**

1. A strong feeling of disrespect.

2. Helping an enemy against one's country.

3. The act of stealing something.

4. Military forces of a country which fight on land.

5. Winning a battle or a war.

6. Making somebody feels ashamed because of his foolishness or weakness.

7. A person who fights.

8. Military weapons and stores.

9. A fight or a struggle.

10. A weapon that fires bullets or shells from a metal tube.

11. An armed group of soldiers.

12. To follow the signs of something or somebody.

13. A young person training to become an officer in the police or armed forces.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13

• **The names of many government and financial agencies are better known by abbreviations. FBI, for example is the abbreviation for the Federal Bureau of investigation. Write a letter by each number to match an abbreviation with the correct agency.**

1………**FDIC**   a. Federal Communication Commission

2………**FICA**   b. Food and Drug Administration

3………**FAA**   c. Federal Deposit Insurance Cooperation

4………**DEQ**   d. Federal Insurance Contributions Act

5………**FDA**   e. Saving and Loan

6………**S&L**   f. Federal Trade Commission

7………**IRS**   g. Federal Aviation Administration

8………**FEMA**   h. Federal Emergency Management Agency

9………**FCC**   i. Department of Environmental Quality

10……..**FTC**   j. Internet Revenue Service

3) Fill in gaps

The students are given a text or a set of sentences containing some blanks and they are asked to find the right words to complete it.

• **Fill in the gaps with appropriate words from the list below**

hazardous ,emissions , threat , human-made, soils, sources, smoke, chemical, natural sources, air, globally, manufacturing.

Air pollution is a familiar environmental health hazard. We know what we're looking at when brown haze settles over a city, exhaust billows across a busy highway, or a plume rises from a smokestack. Some air pollution is not seen, but its pungent smell alerts you. It is a major……. to global health and prosperity. …….. pollution, in all forms, is responsible for more than 6.5 million deaths each year …… , a number that has increased over the past two decades. Air pollution is a mix of hazardous substances from both ………and…... .Vehicle ……, fuel oils and natural gas to heat homes, by-products of ……. and power generation, particularly coal-fueled power plants, and fumes from …….. production are the primary ……. of human-made air pollution. Nature releases ……….. substances into the air, such as…… from wildfires, which are often caused by people; ash and gases from volcanic eruptions and gases, like methane, which are emitted from decomposing organic matter in……..

4) Cross words puzzles

A puzzle consisting of a grid of squares and blanks into which words crossing vertically and horizontally are written according to clues.

• **Solve the crossword puzzle with the unscrambled words that complete the sentences**

MEDEER ………………   ARECNSN…………………

CREBRUHO…………….   IDTBE……………………….

PETROMUC……………   SLIMNAJOUR………………
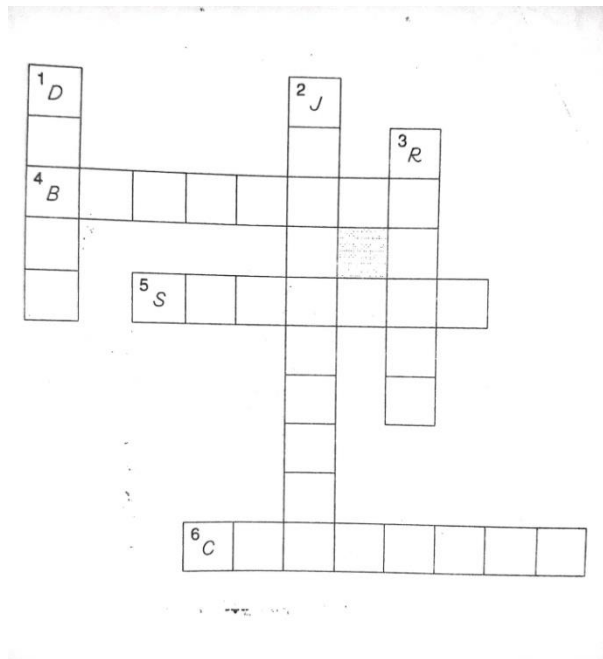
Across

4. A colorful four-page

…….described the

features of the hotel.

5. The clerk ran each

item under a ………

to check its price.

6. Modern businesses

often use a …….. to

keep track of payroll

and purchases.

Down

1. When customers

Write a check, it

appears as a………

against their bank

account.

2. Students who

want jobs as news

reporters often take classes

in …………..

3. Winners of the drawing

can…….. their tickets for the prizes.

Translation to L1 is another useful technique for ESP vocabulary learning. Translation helps with spelling, usage, choosing accurate equivalence of technical terms, etc (Chirobocea-Tudor, 2018). The learners can be offered some technical words, definitions or short paragraphs and asked to translate them from or into their mother language.

Translate the text into Arabic language

Colonialism in Algeria was deeply rooted. It originated in 1830 from a desperate attempt by Charles X, the reigning French monarch to save his dynasty by forcing the coastal states of North Africa to stop interfering with French maritime trade. When in the midst of interaction, the Dey of Algiers (the Ottoman administrative official) literally smacked the French consul

with a fly whisk, the Paris regime had a convenient pretext for massive military reprisal…

Algeria was decreed a colony of settlement, like South Africa. The fact that the Paris government legalized the conquered territory as an integral part of France, subjected Algeria to a particularly intense form of colonialism that consciously and methodologically sought to disrupt the existing balance to insure the undisputed supremacy of European minority.

Originally, Algeria's fertile lands attracted large numbers of European settlers (estimated over one million by 1960), but their material appetites were whetted more by the discovery of oil…

(From Small States and International Mediation: The Case of Algeria)

All the above exercises can be very helpful in the ESP class .The students enjoy them; they raise their interest in the course and increase their motivation.

5.2.16 Developing Language Skills

The results of the study revealed that the four language skills are all important and should be developed altogether; however, ESP teachers put more emphasis on reading and writing while little attention is given to listening and speaking. ESP learners need English to fulfill a wide range of objectives such as: reading scientific articles, participating in seminars and conferences, writing research papers, emails, reports, communicating with their foreign peers in different parts of the world, etc. To achieve these objectives, they have to develop their competence in the four skills: listening, reading, writing and speaking. Hence, it seems worth to shed light on how to teach the four skills and expose some strategies and techniques for an efficient learning process. Some suggestions of different activities have been offered so far in order to motivate students to participate in class and develop their language skills.

5.1.16.1 Teaching Reading

Most researchers believe that reading comprehension is the most important skill in ESP. ESP students need to read a lot of articles and textbooks only available in English to get more information about their subject area. As McDonough (1984) pointed out, "English is the language of textbooks and journals" (p.70). Reading also helps ESP learners to learn new vocabulary related to their field and reinforces the development of other skills; writing, speaking and listening.

Teaching reading following the communicative approach parameters involves pre-reading, while- reading and post- reading activities.

1) Pre-reading activities

Pre-reading activities are exercises done before reading to prepare for the act of reading. Pre-reading activities help the students think about what

they know about the topic and predict what they are going to read. Estes (1999) pointed out that teachers need to guide pre-reading in the way to clarify some vocabulary, key concepts and appropriate conceptual framework which is explained during the reading activity. Estes also stated that "the teacher can make explicit links between prior knowledge and important information into the text" (p.25). This task facilitates students' acquisition of new knowledge.

Once the students are conscious about what they are going to read or what they want to know after reading, they will be able to guide themselves along reading and focus their attention on the purpose of reading (Ruiz de Guerrero & Arias Rodríguez, 2010). Brown (2001) highlighted the following types of reading skills:

• Skimming: fast reading to get the main idea.

• Scanning: fast reading to get specific information.

• Extensive reading: reading longer text often for pleasure with the emphasis on overall meaning.

• Intensive reading: reading short texts for detailed information.

2) While- reading activities

While or during- reading activities are defined as activities that help students to focus on aspects of the text to understand it better. Teachers should teach their students different reading strategies that they need for text comprehension.

Ur (1996) suggested the use of the following strategies while reading:

1. Making predictions: it helps students to predict what the text is about in order to integrate knowledge that facilitates comprehension.

2. Making selections: students need to learn to identify relevant information in the text (e.g. people, dates, important events, etc).

3. Integrating prior knowledge: the schemata that have been activated in the pre-reading phase should be called upon to facilitate reading.

4. Re-reading: sometimes students need to reread the text to find relevant information.

5. Making use of context or guessing: students should be encouraged to analyze the context to guess the meaning of new words in the text.

6. Breaking words into their component parts: the students should be taught to analyze words composition to guess the meaning of words.

7. Reading in chunks: students should be encouraged to read groups of words together which increases their speed in reading and facilitates understanding.

8. Paraphrasing: it helps students to interpret and verify information.

9. Monitoring: monitoring or evaluating comprehension helps students to verify the goals of reading.

3) Post- reading activities

Post reading activities help students understand texts further through critically analyzing what they have read.

Some examples of post reading activities:

1. Group discussion: it helps students focus the information they did not understand.

2. Summarizing (oral or written): it permits students to point out the main information from the text.

3. Questioning (oral or written): it helps students to identify relevant information and clarify doubts.

4. Filling charts: it is useful to highlight relevant information and visualize the whole text.

5. Completing a text: it permits students to go beyond the text with their own understanding.

6. Listening to or reading other related materials: it helps students to complement the information and have a wide view about the topic.

7. Role play: this activity, guided by the teacher, permits students to use the words and structures they have learned.

5.2.16.2 Teaching Listening

The act of communication includes hearing, on the one hand, and speaking, on the other. Hearing or listening is the ability to identify and understand what others are saying. This involves the speaker's accent or pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary and grasping his/her meaning

(Anatol'Enva Sura, 2013). An able listener is capable of doing these four actions simultaneously.

Willis (1981) proposed a series of micro skills of listening which she called enabling skills; they include: predicting what people are going to talk about, guessing unknown words or phrases without panicking, using one's own knowledge on the subject, identifying relevant points, rejecting irrelevant information, retaining relevant points (summarizing, note taking), recognizing discourse markers, recognizing cohesive devices, understanding different intonation patterns and uses of stress which give clues to meaning and social setting and understanding inferred information.

McDonough and Shaw (1993) explained that a listener as a processor of

language has to go through three processes using different skills:

1) Processing sound using perception skills

 Listeners segment the stream of sound and detect word boundaries, connected forms, vocabulary, sentences, stress on longer words and its effects on the rest of other words, the significance of intonation and other language features, changes in pitch, tone, and speed of delivery, key words, cohesive devices, etc.

2) Processing meaning using analysis skills

As they listen, listeners categorize the received speech into sections, identify redundant material, keep hold of chunks of sentence, think and use language data to predict what the speaker may be going to say and accumulate information in the memory and organize them avoiding immediate too much detail.

 3) Processing Knowledge and context using synthesis skills

Listeners activate their linguistic knowledge and contextual information to guess, organize and confirm meaning from the context.

Successful listening involves the integration of all these component skills.

The aim of teaching listening comprehension is to help ESP learners cope with real life situations such as: listening to announcement, participating in a meeting or seminar, taking part in face-to-face or a telephone conversation, etc. Listening comprehension also helps learners to consolidate their grasp of vocabulary and structures and complement the other language skills.

1) Pre-listening activities

Some tasks learners do before listening in order to prepare for listening. These activities have various purposes including pre-teaching or activating vocabulary, predicting content and generating interest in the topic.

Pre-listening tasks include discussion questions, vocabulary learning, prediction tasks and brainstorming the topic.

2) While-listening activities

While-listening activities directly relate to the text and learners are asked to do them during or immediately after listening.

Some of recommended while-listening activities:

1. Comparing: to compare passage with prediction in pre-listening.

2. Listen and do activities: students are given instructions and show comprehension by physical movements, completing a task, etc.

3. Filling in gaps: students are given a transcript and asked to fill in blanks as they listen to the passage.

4. Multiple choices: students read questions before they listen to the passage, and then they select the correct answer out of three or four options.

5. Repetitions: students are asked to repeat short phrases or recorded utterances.

6. Paraphrasing: students are asked to concentrate on certain sentences and paraphrase them.

7. Sequencing: students are asked to right order of a series of events, pictures, steps of an experiment, etc.

8. Information transfer: students interpret the information in the passage to grids, maps, lists, pictures, etc.

9. Information search: students listen to a passage and take notes to answer particular questions.

10. Detecting differences and mistakes: students listen to two passages and try to find differences or mistakes.

3) Post-listening activities

Post-listening activities consist of tasks which main aim is to help students reflect on their own listening experience. Post-listening tasks require the use of speaking and writing skills since learners are expected to use the language creatively.

Some examples of post-listening activities:

1. Discussions: the teacher can involve his/her students in a short discussion about the topic.

2. Problem solving: learners listen to all the information relevant to a particular problem and then set themselves to solve it.

3. Summarizing: the teacher can check understanding by asking students to summarize the information they heard, this can be done orally or in writing.

4. Writing a short composition: the teacher can ask students to write a short essay based on the information given in the listening passage.

5. Disappearing dialogue: the teacher can erase parts of the dialogue and ask students to fill in the blanks with phrases or sentences they remember or other phrases or sentences that might fit perfectly into the dialogue.

6. Information exchange: students listen to different passages about a certain topic and are asked to share the information with each other.

5.1.16.3 Teaching Writing

Writing is the central activity of institutions (Hyland, 2013). In all professions, writing is the basic means for administrative letters, emails, meeting minutes, reports, etc. It is also the means for exchanging knowledge and information such as writing articles, research papers, etc.

Therefore, whatever their purpose for learning the language (academic or professional), ESP learners need to master writing skills.

The types of texts and lexis that learners are expected to use in particular fields vary enormously (Hyland , 2013) . For example, the structure and lexis of a scientific experimental report are completely different from the ones used in a business letter or a medical report. Therefore, ESP writing instruction is based on a study of the texts that students will need in their target contexts.

According to Hyland (2013), three main approaches are generally applied in teaching writing: text-based, content-based or consciousness-raising approaches. Text-based instruction is based on texts as the framework for teaching. Its principle is to make learners master the use of text types occurring most frequently in specific contexts. Context-based

instruction, on the other hand, focuses on subject content as a carrier of language rather than a focus on language itself. The instruction focuses on particular themes from students' target situation. Finally, consciousness-raising approach is an approach which aims at making learners aware of the important features of an authentic discourse. Consciousness-raising activities draw learners' attention "to the language features, make them notice the features, use them to restructure their interlanguage system, and subsequently use these attended features to produce a stretch of discourse on their own" (Djiwandono, 2011, 659-660).

Grammar, vocabulary, organization and language features are four basic skills on writing (Rohiyatussakinah & Oktaviana, 2018). Language experts suggested that the process of teaching writing can be organized into three steps: pre-writing, while-writing and post-writing.

1)Pre-writing activities

Pre-writing activities prepare learners for a final writing task. The aim of these activities is to activate learners' prior knowledge on the topic, generate information they can use in their paragraphs and raise their interest in the topic.

There are several interesting activities that students can do before they write their topic:

1. Asking questions: asking questions can be done to generate ideas on a specific topic.

2. Discussions: the teacher and his/her learners can discuss issues related to the topic they are going to write about. The aim of these discussions is to elicit from learners words, phrases or sentences they can use in their paragraphs.

3. Note taking: taking notes can be done to get important data or information about the topic. The teacher can ask students to read about the topic, conduct interviews, search in internet, etc.

4. Brainstorming: in brainstorming activity, learners are asked to write down everything that comes to their minds about the topic. They can write words, phrases or sentences paying no attention to spelling and grammatical mistakes or ideas organization. They keep writing until they run out of ideas.

5. Outlining: an outline means making a plan for the essay or paper. When writing an essay for example, learners are asked to write their thesis statement, topic sentences, concluding sentence, main ideas and details and examples to include for each main idea. Doing this will help them to organize their ideas and it becomes easier for them to develop their essays.

6. Writing based on pictures: writing can be very interesting if it accompanied with pictures. For example, learners can be asked to describe the different steps of a scientific experiment based on given pictures.

7. Making a list: students can make a list of the arguments and details they want to include if they are going to write an opinion paragraph for example.

8.Comparing/contrasting: before writing a compare/contrast essay, learners are asked to organize their ideas according to the similarities and differences of the things, in a chart for example, to get ideas.

2) While-writing activities

Once the learners are ready to write, the teacher guides them to complete the next steps in the process including writing drafts, revising, self-editing and expanding.

3) Post-writing activities

Post-writing activities help learners to reflect on and revise their work based on feedback from their peers or the teacher.

Some of post-writing activities:

1. Reading aloud the piece of writing: reading aloud permits learners to pay attention to the words they have chosen e.g. word missing or misused, verb wrong tense, etc.

2. Group critiques: the teacher can assign students into groups and make them edit each other's works. For example, one of the students read his/her work then the rest students in the group comment on the work and discuss any area he/she could improve on.

3. Line editing: students can work in pairs to find any mistakes (e.g. spelling or grammatical) in the works they have written.

4. Editing rubric: the teacher can create a checking list for his/her to follow in revising their work. The list may include check for spelling, grammar, punctuation, linking words, topic sentences, organization of ideas, etc.

5.1.16.4 Teaching Speaking

Speaking is regarded as a vital skill for learning any language. Speaking plays a central role to communicate intentions and purposes to other people (Alihusni et al., 2018). However, it is believed to be the most challenging skill to master. Being complex in its nature, as Brown (2004) stated, speaking involves such key components as:

• Grammar

• Pronunciation

• Vocabulary

• Comprehension

• Fluency

 • Functional language

Teaching speaking means successfully make the learner able to deliver the oral message to the hearer without any confusion to the grammar mistake, limitation of vocabulary and to be able to observe the social and cultural rules (Ramadhani, 2017).

ESP learners need to be able to communicate and exchange information in English with peers in their future professions or in other academic settings such as attending conferences or participating in a debate related to their field. However, the findings of the study revealed that a large number of ESP learners are unable to speak in English though they studied it for more than five years at middle and high school. ESP teachers, on the other hand, neglect to teach oral production and stimulating their learners to talk.

In ESP, the learners must be given the opportunity to speak English in the classroom as much as possible taking into account the specifics of their specialty and job related skills to be acquired. To be a fluent in a foreign language requires much self-confidence and more practice to develop speaking abilities. Therefore, ESP teachers need to make their classrooms a safe place for learning and stimulate their learners to express their ideas and opinions freely.

According to Lee and Van Patten (2003), techniques of teaching speaking can be balanced by three methods:

1) Language input

a- Content-oriented input: it focuses on information given by the teacher such as pre-teaching vocabulary or listening material.

b- Form-oriented input: it focuses on ways of using language including the accuracy of linguistic competence, discourse competence, sociolinguistic competence and strategic competence.

2) Structured output

It focuses on correct form. The students may give the responses, but the responses have been introduced by the teacher before.

3) Communicative output

It focuses on doing tasks. The teacher stimulates his/her students to speak by creating video, completing task, developing travel plan, etc.

Language experts proposed a wide range of activities that teachers can

use to promote speaking:

1. Drills: exercises where students practice and repeat the same thing several times. They focus on teaching grammar structures and vocabulary.

2. Discussion activities: they are the kind of activities that give learners chance to speak freely and express themselves.

3. Problem solving activities: activities where learners can discuss a topic or a problem and express possible solutions.

4. Gap information activities: activities in which learners are supposed to work in pairs. One of the students has the information and the other does not know it. They try to share the information.

5. Interviews: students can conduct interviews on selected topics with various people. The teacher may provide students with a rubric so that they know what type of questions they can ask or path to follow, but learners should prepare their own interview questions. After interviews, each learner presents his/her study to the class. The learners can also interview each other in class.

6. Role plays: in role plays activities, each learner acquires a personality or interprets a character. The teacher gives information to the learners about their roles and the situation. For a class of medical students, for example, the teacher can tell a student "You are David, you go to the doctor and tell him what happened last night" (Harmer, 1984)

7. Simulations: they are like role plays, but they are more elaborate. In simulations, learners can bring items to the class to create a realistic environment. For example, if a student is acting a journalist, he/she can bring a camera, microphone and so on.

5.2 Suggestions for Further Research

Despite the insightful findings brought about by the present investigation, they cannot be assumed to generalize to other contexts. Further studies are needed to gather data from different universities nationwide which may more or less ensure generalization of the findings. This study focused mainly on ESP learners' academic needs, only one question in students' questionnaire dealt with learners' professional needs. Other studies including specialists working in different fields would be helpful to get more insightful information about learners' various professional needs. Alternative assessment methods that teachers could use in their ESP classes are also worth investigating. All these issues need to be explored by researchers, ESP teachers and subject specialists to be able produce ESP syllabi of high quality and make ESP teaching more efficient.

Conclusion

In this concluding chapter, the researcher has attempted to, hopefully, provide some useful recommendations that may help both prospective ESP teachers and those who are engaged in different ESP teaching situations better cope with the requirements of their target situations and promote ESP teaching and learning in Algerian universities.

It is of principle importance to mention that these proposed recommendations cannot be considered if they remain only theoretical. Practice then is almost needed. By training ESP teachers and incorporating the findings of action research, ESP would have a prosperous future in our country.

GENERAL CONCLUSION

General Conclusion

In today's world, efficient command of English has become a necessary tool for professional as well as personal development of each individual in the global community. Therefore, ESP has gained a great demand of people speaking different languages. This is reflected in the number of universities providing ESP courses in different parts of the world.

Algeria, like many other developing countries, strives to promote the status of English. ESP courses are offered in all Algerian universities nationwide. However, it seems that these courses need to be reviewed; ESP teachers and learners always complain about students' low level in English and poor achievements. Therefore, this piece of research is an attempt to look at the major reasons lying behind such negative outcomes with the hope to provide useful solutions to overcome these hindrances.

The observation data revealed that traditional way of teaching based on grammatical/ structural approach is still dominant in ESP classes (University of Ghardaia). Some teachers believe that their main job is to teach specific vocabularies of a particular field or profession, but the underlying aim of ESP is to make the learners able to use the language correctly and appropriately to achieve communicative goals. Non-communicative activities and techniques as asking questions to the text and doing exercises monotonously cause boredom in the class. Learners need to use language to communicate for real reasons: to explain an idea, make suggestions, etc. In this respect, ESP teachers need to raise learners' interests, confidence and autonomy in learning by employing communicative classroom activities such as: problem solving activities, discussion/ debate activities, presentations, reading and listening for specific information, etc. Such communicative classroom activities provide a realistic context for language practice and could help learners to build their language proficiency.

The questionnaires obtained from the ESP learners and needs analysis outcomes showed that learners need English to perform various communicative tasks such as:

• Participating in discussions and debates related to their field.

• Reading different documentation related to their field.

• Making oral presentations.

• Understanding video materials.

• Using English for various professional purposes (meetings, e-mails and telephoning).

• Using English for academic writing.

Thus, ESP courses which should aim at developing the four integrating skills: reading, speaking, listening and writing. Unfortunately, the types of ESP courses provided by teachers do not correspond to learners' needs. Effective ESP teaching and learning can only be achieved when teachers are aware of their learners' needs. However, most of Algerian ESP teachers (not to say all) do not carry needs analysis assessment before they start teaching ESP. So, it is necessary to gain insight into study needs of ESP learners and design ESP syllabi based on the needs of those particular learners.

The results of the study also revealed that ESP teachers and learners face a lot of challenges and difficulties that hinder successful teaching and learning of ESP. The main problems that ESP teachers face are:

• Lack of ESP training.

• Absence of ESP syllabus.

• Lack of content knowledge in students' specialism.

• The demanding task of course design (syllabus, material development, evaluation).

• Lack of ESP textbooks.

• Lack of teaching resources and facilities.

• Students' low level of language proficiency.

• Lack of students' motivation.

• Large number of students in class.

• Lack of collaboration between ESP teachers and subject specialists.

• Insufficient time allocated to the ESP course.

The main problems that ESP learners face are:

• Low level of language proficiency. They encounter serious problems at different levels: grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, sentence structure among others.

• Lack of specialized terminology of their field of study.

• Lack of motivation.

• Limited hours of instruction.

• Inappropriate timing of the ESP course.

The researcher has suggested several pedagogic recommendations to cope with the problems identified in the study end enhance ESP teaching/ learning:

• Teacher training programmes should be launched for untrained ESP teaching staff which will enlighten them with theory and practice of ESP.

• Organize workshops and seminars on ESP to help teachers and raise their awareness about the latest developments in ESP.

• Designing and implementing   national ESP syllabi based on deep analysis of learners' needs and on which clear specifications about course content, course objectives, evaluation criteria and teaching methodologies are made.

 • Implementing communicative approaches to ESP teaching.

• Use of authentic materials and ICTs in the ESP class.

• Raise learners' autonomy to take responsibility of their own learning and to use available language learning resources outside the classroom to improve their English proficiency.

• ESP practitioners need to train themselves to improve their teaching. ESP practitioners should keep themselves update with on- going research in the field of ESP and incorporate the findings of this research into their own situations.

• ESP instructional hours should be increased.

• More collaboration between language teachers and subject specialists in our universities.

   It is hoped that the proposed suggestions and recommendations would help both prospective teachers and those engaged in different ESP teaching situations better cope with the requirement of their target situations and improve ESP teaching/ learning situation in Algeria.

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APPENDICES

APPENDICES

Appendix A : Classroom observation sheet

CLASS OBSERVATION SHEET

Date _____
Observer _____
Class teacher _____
Institution _____
Major (Faculty) _____

Year of studies _____
Number of students present _____
Aims of the lesson as expressed by the teacher _____

Time	Activity		
	Talking time	Teacher	
		Student	
	Interaction patterns	Teacher – student	
		Student – student	
		Individual work	
		Pair work	
		Group work	
		Whole- class work	
		Mingling	
	Error correction	Immediate	
		Delayed	
		By students	
		No correction	
	Materials	Textbook	
		Handout	
		Audio	
		video	
		Authentic materials	
		Other	
	Skills developed	Listening	
		Speaking	
		Reading	
		Writing	

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Appendix B: Teachers' Questionnaire

University of Algiers 2

Faculty of Letters and Languages

Department of English

Dear colleagues,

This questionnaire is part of a doctorate research. It intends to find out the major challenges and difficulties that teachers face in teaching English for Specific Purposes (i.e. English for Management, Finance and Economics, English for Science and Technology, English for Legal Purposes, English for Social Sciences, etc). It is anonymous, and the information you will provide is strictly confidential and will be used only for research purposes. Please complete this questionnaire as your opinion will be highly appreciated.

For further questions or inquiries you may e-mail the researcher at:

 sartoriosiham@hotmail.fr

Thank you for your answers, insightful comments and suggestions!

Sincerely,

S. SARTORIO

Please, fill in the blanks with appropriate information or tick (√) the appropriate box.

1-Faculty:……………………………………………………………………

2-Department you teach in **:** …………………………………………………

3-Status :   Full- time teacher   ☐   Part- time teacher   ☐

4-Occupation **:**   Teacher of English ☐   Teacher of specialty   ☐

5- Qualification :   License ☐   Magister/ Master ☐   Doctorate ☐

6- How many years have you been teaching English for Specific Purposes (ESP) ?

a- 0- 2   ☐

b- 3-10   ☐

c- More than 10 years   ☐

7-Have you had any specialized training before teaching English for Specific Purposes (ESP) ?

   Yes ☐   No   ☐

- If yes, please specify

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

8-Would you classify the following language components and skills in terms of the number of activities you devote to each in the ESP course. Please rate them on scale from 1 (most used) to 6 (less used).

a- Vocabulary ☐

b-Grammar   ☐

c-Writing   ☐

d-Reading   ☐

e-Listening   ☐

F-Speaking   ☐

9- Is there any ESP syllabus (course outline) provided by your department?

Yes ☐ No ☐

10-If yes, are you satisfied with the content of the ESP syllabus given to you?

Yes ☐ No ☐

-If not, why?

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11-Which of the following materials and technical aids do you use in your English for Specific Purposes classes?

Types of materials	Used	Not used	Provided by University	Private resource	Not available
a-ESP textbooks					
b-Audio tapes					
c-Video tapes					
d-Computers					
Other (please specify)					

12-Do you work together with teachers of specialty to decide about the content of the English for Specific Purposes (ESP)course and prepare appropriate teaching materials?

a-A lot ☐

b-Not too much ☐

c-Not at all ☐

13- What issues and difficulties do you face in teaching English for Specific Purposes (ESP)? (you can tick more than one)

a-Lack of familiarity with specific vocabularies and concepts of students'

   specialism ☐

b- Difficulty in choosing relevant course content ☐

☐

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c- Difficulty in designing appropriate teaching materials

d- Difficulty in learners' assessment <!-- checkbox -->

e- Difficulty in giving teacher feedback <!-- checkbox -->

f- Lack of ESP text books <!-- checkbox -->

g- Lack of teaching resources (audio/ visual aids, language lab, etc) <!-- checkbox -->

h- Large number of students in the class <!-- checkbox -->

i-Lack of motivation on the part of students <!-- checkbox -->

j-Students' low competence in general English <!-- checkbox -->

k-Limited class time <!-- checkbox -->

-Other difficulties? (please specify)

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14- Please add here any suggestions/ recommendations that you think would improve the teaching / learning of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) at Higher Education in Algeria

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Appendix C: Students' Questionnaire

University of Algiers 2

Faculty of Letters and Languages

Department of English

Dear students,

This questionnaire is part of a doctoral research project. It aims to find out about the difficulties that learners face in English for specific purposes (ESP) Courses (i.e. English for Management, Finance and Economics, English for Science and Technology, English for Legal Purposes, English for Social Sciences, etc).

You are kindly invited to answer the following questions. To help you answer frankly and honestly, your name will not appear in the questionnaire, and the information you will provide is strictly confidential and will be used for research purposes exclusively. Please answer all the questions because leaving a question without an answer means that the sheet is useless.

If you have any question about this research, you may e-mail the researcher at :

sartoriosiham@hotmail.fr

Thank you very much for your co-operation!

Sincerely,

S. SARTORIO

Please, tick (√) the appropriate box.

1-Faculty :

a- Faculty of Economy, Management and Commerce ☐

b- Faculty of Law and Political Sciences ☐

c- Faculty of Human and Social Sciences ☐

d- Faculty of Natural Sciences ☐

e- Faculty of Sciences and Technology ☐

2- What kind of vocabulary do you want to learn?

a- Vocabulary needed in daily life ☐

b- Specialized vocabulary of your field of study ☐

c - Both of them ☐

3- Do you think you still need to learn grammar (rules of the language)?

Yes ☐ No ☐

4- For what academic purpose(s) do you need to develop your reading skill?

Please rate the following purposes according to their importance in your academic studies: not important/ important/ very important

	not important	important	Very important
a- To widen your vocabulary, mainly terms related to your field of study.			
b-To develop your Knowledge in your field of study.			
c-To write exposés .			

Other purposes (please specify)			

5- For what academic purpose(s) do you need to develop your listening skill ?

Please rate the following purposes according to their importance to your academic studies: not important/ important/ very important

	not important	important	very important
a- To be able to understand the content of lectures.			
b- To be able to understand audio and visual materials related to your field of study.			
c- To be able to understand oral presentations in conferences and seminars.			
-Other purposes (please specify)			

6- For what academic purpose(s) do you need to develop your speaking skill?

Please rate the following purposes according to their importance to your academic studies: very important/ important/ not important/ I don't Know

	very important	important	not important
a- To be able to ask questions (for clarification, information, etc).			
b- To be able to answer questions, give opinions, agree, disagree, etc.			
c-To be able participate in group discussions/ debates related to your study field.			
d- To be able to make oral presentations.			
-Other purposes (please specify)			

7- For what academic purpose(s) do you need to develop your writing skill ?

Please rate the following purposes according to their importance to your academic studies: very important/ important/ not important/ I don't Know

	very important	important	not important
a- To be able to summarize an idea.			

b- To be able to write an idea using your words and style.			
c- To be able to take notes when listening to lectures, to audio materials or when reading a text.			
d- To perform written tasks in class (paragraphs, essays, exposés, etc).			
e-To be able to write research papers to participate in seminars and conferences.			
-Other purposes (please specify)			

8- For what purpose (s) you think you will need English in your Future job? (You can tick more than one answer)

a- To get a job within an international company in Algeria or abroad.

b-To exchange scientific/ technical/ business information.

c- To translate.

d-To read documents related to your job in English.

e-To write e-mails, administrative letters, minutes of meeting, etc.

f- To use English in telephoning.

g- To communicate with tourists.

- Other purposes? (please specify)

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9-What difficulties do you face when reading English texts in class? (You can tick more than one answer)

a- I do not face any difficulties ☐

 b- Difficulty in understanding words and collocations related to specific English ☐

 c- Difficulty in finding the main idea and secondary ideas in the text ☐

d- Difficulty in finding rapidly the needed information in order to answer ☐
correctly comprehension questions

-Other difficulties? (please specify)

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10-What difficulties do you face while listening to English in the course ?

 a-I do not face any difficulties ☐

b- Difficulty in understanding teacher's instructions ☐

c- Difficulty in understanding lectures ☐

d- Difficulty in understanding audio visual materials used by the teacher ☐

-Other difficulties? (please specify)

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11-What difficulties do you face while speaking in class? (You can tick more than one answer)

a- I do not face any difficulties   ☐

b-Difficulty in pronouncing correct English   ☐

c- Difficulty in using appropriate terms mainly those related to my specialty   ☐

d- Difficulty in taking part in a class discussion, talking about issues related   ☐

to my specialty (giving opinion, describing, exemplifying, etc)

-other difficulties? (please specify)

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12- What difficulties do you face when performing written tasks in the ESP course? (You can tick more than one answer)

a-I do not face any difficulties.   ☐

b- Difficulty in writing English correctly (correct spelling).   ☐

c- Difficulty in summarizing my ideas.   ☐

d- Difficulty in organizing my ideas.   ☐

e- Difficulty in using the right punctuation.   ☐

f- Difficulty in using the language of specialty to define, describe,   ☐

 compare, etc.

-Other difficulties? (please specify)

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13-Is the time allocated to the English for Specific Purposes course sufficient to meet your needs?

sufficient ☐   insufficient ☐

14-Is the ESP course interesting and motivating to you? Yes ☐ No ☐

15-If not, it is because: (You can tick more than one)

a-You do not understand the content of the course   ☐

b-The course does not correspond to your needs   ☐

c- You do not like the way it is taught   ☐

d-You are not interested at learning English   ☐

-Other reasons? (please specify)

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16-According to you ,what are the weaknesses in the current English for Specific Purposes course, if any? (You can tick more than one)

a- Over emphasis on grammar of language.   ☐

b-Lack of emphasis on speaking skill.   ☐

c-Lack of use of technology in teaching.   ☐

d-Large number of students in class.   ☐

e- The time of the course is not appropriate. ☐

-Other weaknesses? (please specify)

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17-How does the teacher assess your progress in English for Specific Purposes course?

a-Continuous assessment   oral ☐ written ☐   both   ☐

b-End of term/ course assessment   oral ☐ written ☐   both   ☐

18-What type and form do you find adequate to evaluate your progress in English for Specific Purposes ?

 a-Continuous assessment   oral ☐written ☐   both   ☐

b-End of term/ course assessment   oral ☐written ☐ both   ☐

19-Do you think the assessment procedures that your ESP teacher uses reflect your real language skills?

   No ☐   partially   ☐   yes   ☐

20-Do the assessment procedures used by your ESP teacher assess your professional communicative skill (the ability to use English effectively to perform communicative tasks in future profession such as to speak in public, make oral presentations, hold meetings and conduct negotiations, write professional e-mails, meeting minutes, repots, etc) ?

   No ☐   partially   ☐   yes   ☐

Appendix D :   Arabic Version of Students' Questionaire

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جامعة الجزائر 2

كلية الآداب و اللغات

قسم اللغة الإنجليزية

أعزائي الطلبة:

تحية طيبة و بعد،

فيما يلي بعض الأسئلة التي تتعلق بمشروع بحث لرسالة دكتوراه بهدف دراسة الصعوبات و المشاكل التي يواجهها الطلبة في دروس الانجليزية المتخصصة (الانجليزية للعلوم الإنسانية و الإجتماعية، الانجليزية للعلوم السياسية، الانجليزية لعلوم الاقتصاد،الخ).

أرجو منكم أن تتفضلوا بالإجابة على أسئلة هذه الإستبانة بكل صدق و أمانة و موضوعية وتأكدوا أعزائي الطلبة أن هذا الإستبيان كما تلاحظون لا يحمل هوياتكم و أسمائكم و المعلومات التي ستقدمونها ستعامل بسرية تامة و لن يتم اطلاع أي طرف عليها خلاف الباحث لاستخدامها لأغراض الدراسة العلمية فقط. أرجوا منكم عدم ترك أي سؤال دون الإجابة عليه لأن ذلك يعني عدم الإستفادة من ورقة الإجابة بأكملها.

في حالة وجود أي إستفسار عن أي من أسئلة الإستبانة أو حول أي أمر يتعلق بالدراسة أنا تحت تصرفكم.

يرجى الاتصال بي عبر الايميل : sartoriosiham@hotmail.fr

شاكرين لكم حسن تعاونكم على إنجاح هذه الدراسة و متمنين لكم دوام التوفيق

.

الباحثة

س. صارطوريو

</div>

الرجاء ملء الفراغ أو وضع علامة (√) في الخانة التي تتناسب مع موقفك تجاه كل عبارة من العبارات التالية

1-الكلية:

أ -كلية العلوم الإقتصادية و التسيير و التجارة

ب - كلية العلوم الإنسانية و الإجتماعية

ج - كلية الحقوق و العلوم السياسية

د- كلية علوم الطبيعة و الحياة

ه - كلية العلوم و التكنولوجيا

2-ما نوع المفردات الإنجليزية التي تريد تعلمها؟

أ-المفردات التي تحتاجها في حياتك اليومية

ب- المفردات المتعلقة بالإختصاص

ج-الإثنان معا

3-هل تعتقد أنك لا زلت تحتاج الى تعلم النحو (قواعد اللغة الإنجليزية) ؟   نعم

4-لديك مجموعة من الأغراض الأكاديمية لتطوير مهارة القراءة باللغة الإنجليزية صنفها حسب أهميتها لديك في دراساتك الأكاديمية

مهم جدا	مهم	غير مهم	
			أ-لإكتساب المفاهيم و المصطلحات المتعلقة بإختصاصك.
			ب-من أجل تطوير معارفك في ميدان إختصاصك.
			ج- من أجل كتابة البحوث (les exposées).
			-أغراض أخرى (أذكرها)

5- لديك مجموعة من الأغراض الأكاديمية لتطوير مهارة الإستماع في اللغة الإنجليزية صنفها حسب أهميتها لديك في دراساتك الأكاديمية

مهم جدا	مهم	غير مهم	
			أ-كي تكون قادرا على فهم محتوى المحاضرات.
			ب-كي تكون قادرا على فهم تعليمات الأستاذ الشفوية.
			ج-كي تكون قادرا على فهم الأشرطة المسموعة و المرئية المتعلقة بالإختصاص.
			د-كي تكون قادرا على فهم العروض الشفوية في الملتقيات و المحاضرات.
			-أغراض أخرى (أذكرها)

6- لديك مجموعة من الأغراض الأكاديمية لتطوير مهارة التكلم باللغة الإنجليزية صنفها حسب أهميتها لديك في دراساتك الأكاديمية

مهم جدا	مهم	غير مهم	
			أ-لكي تكون قادرا على طرح الأسئلة بالإنجليزية (للتوضيح ، للإستعلام، الخ)
			ب- لكي تكون قادرا على الإجابة على الأسئلة، إبداء الرأي، الموافقة، عدم الموافقة،الخ
			ج- لكي تكون قادرا على المشاركة في الحوارات و المناقشة في المواضيع المتعلقة بإختصاصك
			د-لكي تكون قادرا على تقديم العروض الشفهية
			-أغراض أخرى (أذكرها)

7- لديك مجموعة من الأغراض الأكاديمية لتطوير مهارة الكتابة باللغة الإنجليزية صنفها حسب أهميتها لديك في دراساتك الأكاديمية

مهم جدا	مهم	غير مهم	
			أ-لكي تكون قادرا على تلخيص فكرة ما.
			ب-لكي تكون قادر على تكوين فكرة باستعمال الأسلوب و المفردات الخاصين بك.
			ج-لكي تكون قادر على تدوين الملاحظات عند الاستماع إلى المحاضرات او الأشرطة المسموعة أو عند قراءة نص ما.
			أ-أغراض أخرى (أذكرها)

8- لأي أغراض وظيفية (مهنية) تعتقد انك ستحتاج اللغة الإنجليزية في وظيفتك المستقبلية؟ **(بإمكانك الإجابة بأكثر من خيار)**

أ-للحصول على عمل في شركة أجنبية في الجزائر أو بالخارج

ب-لتبادل المعارف العلمية و التقنية و التجارية

ج-للترجمة

د-لقراءة الوثائق المتعلقة بالوظيفة بالإنجليزية

ه-لكتابة الإيمايلات، الرسائل الإدارية، تقارير الإجتماعات،الخ

و-لإستخدام الإنجليزية في المحادثة بالهاتف

ي-للتواصل مع السياح

-لأغراض وظيفية أخرى، أذكرها

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....

9-هل تواجه صعوبات عند ممارستك للقراءة في حصة الإنجليزية المتخصصة؟ **(بإمكانك الإجابة بأكثر من خيار)**

أ-لا أواجه أي صعوبات

ب- أواجه صعوبة في فهم معاني المفردات المتعلقة بالإختصاص

ج- أواجه صعوبة في إيجاد أفكار النص (الفكرة الرئيسية و الأفكار الثانوية)

د- أواجه صعوبة في الإجابة عن أسئلة فهم النص

-صعوبات أخرى، أذكرها

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10- هل تواجه صعوبات عند الإستماع إلى اللغة في حصة الإنجليزية المتخصصة؟ **(بإمكانك الإجابة بأكثر من خيار)**

أ-لا أواجه أي صعوبات

ب- أواجه صعوبة في الفهم عند الإستماع إلى تعليمات الأستاذ الشفوية

ج- أواجه صعوبة في فهم عند الإستماع إلى المحاضرات

د- أواجه صعوبة في فهم الأشرطة المسموعة المستخدمة من طرفا الأستاذ

-صعوبات أخرى، أذكرها

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11- هل تواجه صعوبات أثناء حديثك في حصة الإنجليزية المتخصصة؟ **(بإمكانك الإجابة بأكثر من خيار)**

أ -لا أواجه أي صعوبات [   ]

ب- أواجه صعوبة في نطق الإنجليزية بشكل صحيح [   ]

ج- أواجه صعوبة في معرفة المفردات المتعلقة بالاختصاص و توظيفها في مكانها المناسب [   ]

د- أواجه صعوبة في المشاركة في النقاش الخاص بالقضايا المطروحة المتعلقة بالإختصاص
(التعبير عن فكرة، إبداء رأي، الموافقة ، عدم الموافقة، الوصف، إعطاء الأمثلة) [   ]

-صعوبات أخرى، أذكرها

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12- هل تواجه صعوبات عند الكتابة في حصة الإنجليزية المتخصصة؟ **(بإمكانك الإجابة بأكثر من خيار)**

أ-لا أواجه أي صعوبات [   ]

ب- أواجه صعوبة في كتابة الإنجليزية بشكل صحيح (تهجئة الكلمة) [   ]

ج- أواجه صعوبة في تلخيص فكرة ما [   ]

د- أواجه صعوبة في تنظيم الافكار و ترتيبها [   ]

ه- أواجه صعوبة في إستعمال مفاهيم الإختصاص(كيفية الوصف، التعريف، المقارنة، إعطاء الامثلة) [   ]

-صعوبات أخرى، أذكرها

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13-هل تعتقد أن هذا الحجم الساعي المخصص لحصة اللغة الانجليزية المتخصصة كاف لتلبية رغباتك و
تطلعاتك؟   غير كاف [   ]   كاف [   ]

14-هل حصة اللغة الانجليزية المتخصصة تثير إهتمامك و محفزة لك؟
لا [   ]   نوعا ما [   ]   نعم [   ]

15-إذ كانت الإجابة لا أو نوعا ما' هذا راجع ل: **(بإمكانك الإجابة بأكثر من خيار)**

أ-أنك لا تفهم محتوى الدروس [   ]

ب-الدروس لا تتماشى مع رغباتك و تطلعاتك [   ]

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ج- لا تعجبك طريقة تدريسها ☐

د-لا يهمك أن تتعلم اللغة الانجليزية ☐

أسباب أخرى، اذكرها

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16- ماهي السلبيات التي تراها في حصة الانجليزية المتخصصة ، إن وجدت ؟ (بإمكانك الإجابة بأكثر

من خيار)

أ- التركيز الكبير على قواعد اللغة ☐

ب- قلة التركيز على المحادثة (مهارة التكلم) ☐

ج- نقص إستخدام الأستاذ للتكنولوجيا في التدريس (جهاز العرض،الأشرطة المسموعة و المرئية،

مخبر اللغات، الإنترنت) ☐

د-العدد الكبير للطلبة (إكتظاظ الفوج) ☐

ه-توقيت الحصة غير المناسب ☐

- سلبيات أخرى ، أذكرها

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17- ما هي طريقة التقييم التي يعتمدها أستاذك في حصة اللغة الإنجليزية المتخصصة؟

أ-تقييم مستمر شفوي ☐ كتابي ☐ كليهما ☐

ب-امتحان في نهاية السداسي شفوي ☐ كتابي ☐ كليهما ☐

18- ما هي الطريقة التي تراها مناسبة لتقييمك في حصة اللغة الإنجليزية المتخصصة؟

أ-تقييم مستمر شفوي ☐ كتابي ☐ كليهما ☐

ب-امتحان في نهاية السداسي شفوي ☐ كتابي ☐ كليهما ☐

19-هل طريقة التقييم التي يعتمدها أستاذ اللغة الإنجليزية المتخصصة تسمح بتقييم مهاراتك اللغوية؟

نعم ☐ نوعا ما ☐ لا ☐

20-هل طريقة التقييم التي يعتمدها أستاذ اللغة الإنجليزية المتخصصة تسمح بتقييم مهاراتك التواصلية (القدرة على استخدام اللغة الإنجليزية بشكل فعال لأداء المهام التواصلية في المهنة المستقبلية مثل التحدث أمام العامة، تقديم العروض الشفوية، عقد الإجتماعات، إجراء المفاوضات، كتابة رسائل البريد المهنية و محاضر الإجتماعات، إلخ)؟

نعم ☐   نوعا ما ☐   لا

ملخص الدراسة باللغة العربية

هدفت الدراسة الحالية إلى استكشاف الصعوبات و العراقيل التي يواجهها كل من أساتذة الإنجليزية المتخصصة و الطلبة بالجامعة الجزائرية و التي تحول دون التعلم الفعال و الأداء الجيد للطلبة في اللغة الإنجليزية. أجريت الدراسة مع عينة متكونة من 24   أستاذ للغة الإنجليزية المتخصصة و364 طالبا من كليات مختلفة بجامعة غرداية. استخدمت الدراسة أساليب مختلفة لجمع المعلومات كالاستبيانات و الملاحظة المباشرة لحصص الإنجليزية المتخصصة.أظهرت الدراسة أن أساتذة الإنجليزية المتخصصة بالجامعة لا تزال لديهم مشكلة شائكة باستخدامهم طرق تقليدية في تدريس اللغة الإنجليزية بغض النظر عن حاجات المتعلمين. أساتذة اللغة الإنجليزية المتخصصة بالجزائر، كما هو الحال في العديد من البلدان الذين يستخدمون اللغة الإنجليزية لغة ثانية كوسيلة من وسائل الاتصال و التواصل، يواجهون جملة من المشاكل و الصعوبات التي تعرقل نجاح العملية التعليمية من بينها:عدم وجود منهاج ،نقص تدريب الأساتذة، نقص موارد التدريس، نقص تحفيز الطلاب، العدد الكبير للطلبة بالأفواج و ساعات التدريس غير الكافية.أفرزت الدراسة   أن الطلبة لديهم ايضا مشاكل من بينها مستوى متدني جدا في اللغة الإنجليزية في اللغة الإنجليزية ، ساعات التدريس غير الكافية و محتوى برنامج   الإنجليزية لا يتماشى مع إحتياجاتهم و تطلعاتهم.اقترحت الباحثة بعض الحلول للتعامل مع هذه المشكلات و المعوقات من بينها إنشاء مراكز لتدريب الأساتذة و تحفيز الأساتذة للمشاركة في ورشات و ملتقيات داخل و خارج الوطن لدعم استخدام التقنيات و الأساليب الحديثة في التدريس و إعداد مناهج للإنجليزية المتخصصة مبنية على دراسات معمقة لاحتياجات الطلبة (الأكاديمية و العملية) في مختلف القطاعات و التي تحتوي شرحا مفصلا لأهداف تدريس الإنجليزية المتخصصة، محتوى الدروس، طرق التدريس و طرق تقويم الطلبة لمساعدة الأساتذة من أجل تحسين إدارتهم لصفوفهم الدراسية.

الكلمات المفتاحية: الإنجليزية لأغراض متخصصة، المشاكل، الصعوبات، الأساتذة، الطلبة.