THE PEOPLES' DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC OF ALGERIA MINISTRY OF HIGHER EDUCATION AND SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH

UNIVERSITY OF ALGIERS 2 ABOU EL KACEM SAADALLAH

FACULTY OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH



Investigating Students' Ability to Transfer Writing Knowledge from General English to ESP

Case study: High School of Banks' students

Thesis Submitted in Fulfillment of the Requirements for the degree of Doctorate in English Linguistics and Didactics

Submitted by: Supervised by

Mrs. Hassina BOUCHAREB Dr. BESSAI AOUDJIT Nesrine

ACADEMIC YEAR

2022/2023

Investigating Students' Ability to Transfer Writing Knowledge from General English to ESP

Board of Examiners

Prof. HAMITOUCHE FATIHA	Chairman
Dr. AOUDJIT-BESSAI NESRINE	Supervisor
Dr. ARAR SAMIRA	Internal Examiner
Prof. NEDJAI FATMA ZOHRA	External Examiner
Dr. HAMDOUD AMINA	External Examiner

Declaration

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

Date:

Signed:

Hassina BOUCHAREB

Dedication

Through this work I would like to pay a tribute to my dear departed father who wanted so much to see this work finished, he who devoted all his life to educate us, he was the father and the mother at the same time, he who prayed for me all the time till the last moment of his life,

To my mother who believed in me since my childhood, she departed very early before she could see the moment when this work is completed.

To my grandmother for her love and tenderness, to whom I would like to express all my gratitude for being present in our life.

To the soul of the people who left but they believed in me and supported me all the time: my brother and my former supervisor Prof. Mehamsadji, I dedicate this work!

Last but not least, I would like to express all my gratitude and thanks to my dear husband and children for their support and patience throughout the journey of my research.

Acknowledgements

First of all, I would like to thank Allah, Lord of the World, for helping me to complete this work and guided me to reach this stage.

I would like to express all my thanks and respect to Prof. Bensafi for accepting to supervise me after the death of my former supervisor Pr. Mehamsadji (RIP). Her encouragement has always been of great help to me during conducting this research.

I am greatly indebted to Dr. Bessai for her helpful in facilitating all the obstacles; she deserves all my gratitude and appreciation. My gratitude is also extended to the board of examiners.

I would like to thank Dr. Cherifi for her precious help in the statistics and encouragement throughout the work.

Abstract

The study aimed at investigating first year students' ability to transfer writing knowledge from General English to ESP at the Ecole Superieure des Banques (ESB)-Bouzareah. Through this study we wanted to know whether the prior knowledge of General English acquired by ESB students' allows them to write good formal letters. The number of participants was 88 who represent first year students from both Brevet Superieur de Banque (BSB) and Diplome Superieur d'Etudes Bancaire DSEB cycles. In order to achieve the aims of the study, the researcher used three tools for data collection that included a questionnaire, students' draft and an interview. The questionnaire consisted of five parts and each part collected information about different aspects of the writing program at ESB namely: 1. Personal information, 2. The Writing Program, 3. Students' assessment, 4. ESP Teachers, 5. the formal letter. The students' drafts consisted of two formal letters the students were asked to write, one at the beginning of the academic year 2018 and the second at the end of the same academic year 2019. The analysis and evaluation of the drafts concerned with organization, development, coherence, structure, vocabulary and mechanics. As for the interview, the students were asked to answer four questions in relation to formal letters' writing. The results of the study have shown the following: The ESB students showed a great dissatisfaction with all aspects of the writing program. There have been differences in needs between males and females. Besides students have a great deficiency in writing in all the categories of writing and their rating to their ESP teachers was relatively low. The students' rating of the different ways of assessment was also low. In general, the results of the study have shown that the students need help in all the aspect of writing especially ESP writing. The researcher at the end of this research suggested some recommendations to the people concerned.

List of Abbreviations

- BSB: Brevet Superieur de Banque
- DSEB: Diplôme Superieur d'Etudes Bancaires
- *EAP*: English for Academic Purpose
- ESP: English for Specific Purposes
- EFL: English as a Foreign Language
- *EL*: English Language
- *ELT*: English Language Teaching
- ESB: Ecole Superieure de Banques
- *GE*: General English
- *L1* : First language
- L2: seconde Language
- MHESR: Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research
- SWW: Second World War
- TESOL: Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages

List of Tables

No.	Table Title	Page
1.	The Difference Between Curriculum and Syllabus	55
2.	Framework of ESP Evaluation by Hutchinson and Waters	62
3.	Traits measured by various rubrics used in standardized ESL/EFL Tests (Haswell, 2007: 8)	97
4.	Some Written Genres Studied in ESP Research	103
5.	Sample of ESB Students	123
6.	Sample Distribution according to Sex and Percentage	123
7.	First and Second Draft Scores of BSB Students	140
8.	First and Second Drafts' Scores of DSEB Students	142
9.	Descriptive Statistics of Students' Rating for Both BSB and DSEB	143
10.	Results of T-test for BSB and DSEB Students' Draft	144
11	The Results of One Way ANOVA Test for BSB Students' First Draft	145

No.	Table Title	Page
12.	The Results of One Way ANOVA Test of BSB Students' Second Draft	146
13.	The Results of One Way ANOVA Test for DSEB Students' First Draft	147
14.	The Results of One Way ANOVA Test of DSEB Students' Second Draft	148
15.	Overall Percentages of the Different Categories for BSB Students	149
16.	Overall Percentages of the Different Categories for DSEB Students	151
17.	Results of T-test of BSB students in Relation to Sex	153
18.	Results of T-test of DSEB Students in Relation to Sex	153
19.	Frequencies and Percentages of BSB Students' Responses in Relation to Teaching Vocabulary	155
20.	Frequencies and Percentages of DSEB Students' Responses in Relation to Teaching Vocabulary	156
21.	Reasons Provided by BSB and DSEB Students in Relation to the their Dissatisfaction about the Teaching of Technical Vocabulary	157
22.	Frequencies and Percentages of BSB Students' Responses in Relation to Problems of Punctuation	158
23.	Frequencies and Percentages of DSEB Students' Responses in Relation to Problems of Punctuation	158

No.	Table Title	Page
24.	Responses of BSB and DSEB Students for the Reasons provided in Relation to Problem of Punctuation	160
25.	Frequencies and Percentages of BSB Students' Responses in Relation to the use of Texts Relevant to the Banking Field	162
26.	Frequencies and Percentages of DSEB Students' Responses in Relation to the use of Texts Relevant to the Banking Field	162
27.	Reasons Provided by BSB and DSEB Students in Relation to the Use of Texts and Pieces of Writing Relevant to Banking	163
28.	Frequencies and Percentages of BSB Students' Responses in Relation to Writing about Banking	165
29.	Frequencies and Percentages of DSEB Students' Responses in Relation to Writing about Banking	165
30.	BSB and DSEB students' Reasons Related to Writing about Banking	166
31.	Frequencies and Percentages of BSB Students' Responses about the availability of the Materials Provided in the English Writing Program	168
32.	Frequencies and Percentages of DSEB Students' Responses about the availability of the Materials Provided in the English Writing Program	168
33.	Percentages of BSB and DSEB Students' Reasons for the Unavailability of the Materials Provided in the English Writing Program at ESB	169
34.	Frequencies and Percentages of BSB Students' Responses about the Appropriateness of the Materials Provided to the Level of Students	171

No.	Table Title	Page
35.	Frequencies and Percentages of DSEB Students' Responses about the Appropriateness of the Materials Provided to the Level of Students	171
36.	Reasons of the Inappropriateness of the Materials to the Level of BSB and DSEB Students	172
37.	Frequencies and Percentages of BSB Students' Responses about the Quality of the Materials Provided in the English Writing Program	174
38.	Frequencies and Percentages of DSEB Students' Responses about the Quality of the Materials Provided in the English Writing Program	174
39.	Reasons for BSB and DSEB Students' Dissatisfaction about the Quality of the Materials Provided in the English Writing Program	176
40.	Frequencies and Percentages of BSB Students' Responses about the Number of Hours Allocated to ESP Writing	177
41.	Frequencies and Percentages of BSB Students' Responses about the Number of Hours Allocated to ESP Writing	177
42.	Reasons of BSB and DSEB Students for their Dissatisfaction with the Number of Hours Allocated to ESP Writing Program	178
43.	Responses of BSB Students about the Continuous Assessment and Feedback	180
44.	Responses of DSEB Students about the Continuous Assessment and Feedback	180
45.	The Responses of BSB Students about the Summative Assessment	181
46.	The Responses of DSEB Students about the Summative Assessment	181

No.	Table Title	Page
47.	Responses of BSB Students about the Suitability of the Tests to their level	182
48.	Responses of DSEB Students about the Suitability of the Tests to their level	183
49.	BSB Students' Responses about the Relation Between Tests and the Students' Needs.	184
50.	DSEB Students' Responses about the Relation Between Tests and the Students' Needs.	184
51.	BSB Students' Responses to the ESP Teachers' Use of English	185
52.	DSEB Students' Responses to the ESP Teachers' Use of English	185
53.	BSB Students' Responses about the Knowledge Provided by the ESP Teachers Related to the Subject	186
54.	DSEB Students' Responses about the Knowledge Provided by the ESP Teachers Related to the Subject	187
55.	BSB Students' Responses for the Teaching Techniques Used by the Teachers	188
56.	DSEB Students' Responses for the Teaching Techniques Used by the Teachers	188
57.	BSB Students' Opinion about the Teachers' Objectives and the Teaching Problems	189
58.	DSEB Students' Opinions about the Teachers' Objectives and the Teaching Problems	189

No.	Table Title	Page
59.	BSB Students' Responses for the Teachers' Awareness of the Students' Individual Differences	190
60.	DSEB Students' Responses for the Teachers' Awareness of the Students' Individual Differences	191
61.	BSB Students' Responses for the Teachers' Knowledge on How to Motivate Students	192
62.	DSEB Students' Responses for the Teachers' Knowledge on How to Motivate Students	192
63.	Responses of BSB Students for the Teachers' knowledge about the Teaching of Writing Activities.	193
64.	Responses of DSEB Students for the Teachers' knowledge about the Teaching of Writing Activities	193
65.	BSB Responses for the Place of the Sender's Address in a Formal Letter	195
66.	DSEB Responses for the Place of the Sender's Address in a Formal Letter	195
67.	BSB Responses for the Place of the Date in the Formal Letter	196
68.	DSEB Responses for the Place of the Date in the Formal Letter	197
69.	BSB Responses for the Place of the Receiver's Name and Address	198
70.	DSEB Responses for the Place of the Receiver's Name and Address	198

No.	Table Title	Page
71.	BSB Responses for the Place of the Reference/Order Number in the Formal Letter	199
72.	DSEB Responses for the Place of the Reference/Order Number in the Formal Letter	199
73.	BSB Responses to the Salutation when it Begins with "Dear + the Name of the Receiver"	201
74.	DSEB Responses to the Salutation when it Begins with "Dear + the Name of the Receiver"	201
75.	BSB Responses to the Salutation when it Begins with "Dear + Sir/Madame"	202
76.	DSEB Responses to the Salutation when it Begins with "Dear + Sir/Madame"	202
77.	Frequencies of BSB and DSEB Students' Responses in Relation to the Order of the Different Parts of the Formal Letter	204
78.	The Frequencies of BSB Students' Responses Related to the Opening Sentences	206
79.	The Frequencies of DSEB Students' Responses Related to the Opening Sentences	209
80.	The Frequencies of BSB Students' Responses Related to the Closing Sentences	212
81.	The Frequencies of DSEB Students' Responses Related to the Closing Sentences	214

No.	Table Title	Page
82.	Responses of BSB Students for the Organization of the Content in the Formal Letters	217
83.	Responses of DSEB Students for the Organization of the Content in the Formal Letters	218
84.	BSB Students' Order for the Characteristics of the Formal Letters	219
85.	DSEB Students' Order for the Characteristics of the Formal Letters	219
86.	The Responses of BSB and DSEB Students in Relation to their Knowledge of the Different Kinds of Letters	222
87.	Responses of BSB and DSEB Students about their knowledge of the Formal Letters	224
88.	Responses of BSB and DSEB Students about the Differences Between the Formal and the Informal Letters	225
89.	Responses of BSB and DSEB Students about their Ability to Write Formal Letters	226

List of Figures

No.	Figure	Page
1.	Strevens' Division of ESP Types	18
2.	Hutchinson and Waters' Division of ESP Branches	20
3.	Robinson's Division of ESP Types	21
4.	Dudley-Evans & St. John (1998) Division of ESP Types	21
5.	Linear vs. Cyclical Processes of Needs Analysis. (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998: 121)	36
6.	Classification of Syllabi (Long & Crookes, 1993)	53
7.	The Framework of ESP Program Evaluation (Kawpet, 2009)	64
8.	The Updated Framework for ESP Program Evaluation	65
9.	Distribution of Sex for BSB and DSEB Students	124
10.	Overall Ranking of BSB Students for all Writing Categories	150
11.	Overall Ranking of DSEB Students for all Writing Categories	151
12.	Percentages of BSB and DSEB Students' Responses to the Teaching of Technical Vocabulary	156
13.	Percentages of the Reasons Provided by BSB and DSEB Students for their Dissatisfaction with the technical Vocabulary Teaching	158
14.	Percentages of BSB and DSEB Students' Responses in Relation to Punctuation	159
15.	Percentages of BSB and DSEB Students' Responses for the Problems of Punctuation	161

16.	Percentages of BSB and DSEB Students' Responses in Relation to Text Relevance to the Banking Field	162
17.	Percentages of BSB and DSEB Students' Reasons for the Irrelevance of the Texts Related to the Banking Field	164
18.	Percentages of BSB and DSEB Students' Responses in Relation to Expressing Themselves in Writing about Banking	166
19.	Percentages of BSB and DSEB Students' Reasons for their Inability to Express themselves in Writing about Banking	167
20.	Percentages of BSB and DSEB Students' Responses in Relation to the Materials Provided in the English Writing Program	168
21.	Percentages of BSB and DSEB Students' Responses about the Reasons for the Materials Unavailability in the English Writing Program	170
22.	Percentages of BSB and DSEB Students' Responses about the Appropriateness of the Materials in the English Writing Program	171
23.	Percentages of the Reasons Provided by BSB and DSEB Students about the Inappropriateness of the Materials to the Level of Students	173
24.	Percentages of BSB and DSEB Students' Responses about the Quality of the Materials Provided in the English Writing Program	175
25.	Percentages of BSB and DSEB Students' Reasons for their Dissatisfaction with the quality of the Materials Provided in the English Writing Program	176
26.	Percentages of BSB and DSEB Students' Responses about the Number of Hours Allocated to ESP Writing	178

	Percentages of BSB and DSEB Students' Reasons for their	
27.	Dissatisfaction about the Number of Hours Allocated to ESP Writing	179
28.	BSB and DSEB Students' Responses to the Continuous Assessment and the Related Feedback	180
29.	BSB and DSEB Students' Responses to the Summative Assessment	182
30.	Responses of BSB and DSEB Students for the suitability of the Tests to the Level of all Students	183
31.	Responses of BSB and DSEB Students for the Relation Between the Tests and the Students' Learning Needs	184
32.	BSB and DSEB Students' Responses for the ESP Teachers' Use of English	186
33.	BSB and DSEB Students' Responses about the Knowledge Provided by the ESP Teacher Related to the Subject	187
34.	BSB and DSEB Students' Responses for the Teaching Techniques Used by the Teachers	188
35.	BSB and DSEB Students' Responses for the Teachers' Objectives and the Teaching Problems	190
36.	BSB and DSEB Students' Responses for the Teachers' Awareness of the Students' Individual Differences	191
37.	BSB and DSEB Students' Responses for the Teachers' Knowledge on How to Motivate Students	192
38.	BSB and DSEB Students' Responses for the Teachers' Knowledge about the Teaching of Writing Activities	194

39.	BSB and DSEB Students' Responses for the Place of the Senders Address in a Formal Letter	196
40.	BSB and DSEB Students' Responses for the Place of the Date in the Formal Letter	197
41.	BSB and DSEB Students' Responses for the Place of the Receiver's Name and Address	198
42.	BSB and DSEB Students' Responses for the Place of the Reference/Order Number in the Formal Letter	200
43.	BSB and DSEB Students' Responses for the Salutation when it Begins with "Dear + the Name of the Receiver"	201
44.	BSB and DSEB Students' Responses for the Salutation when it Begins with "Dear + Sir/Madame"	203
45.	Frequencies of BSB and DSEB Students' Responses to the Order of the Different Parts of the Formal Letters	205
46.	The Formal Opening Expressions Selected by BSB Students	207
47.	The Informal Opening Expressions Selected by BSB Students	208
48.	The Unselected Opening Expressions by BSB Students	208
49.	The Formal Opening Expressions Selected by DSEB Students	210
50.	The Informal Opening Expressions Selected by DSEB Students	210
51.	The Unselected Opening Expressions by DSEB Students	211
52.	The Formal Closing Expressions Selected by BSB Students	213
53.	The Informal Closing Expressions Selected by BSB Students	213
54.	The Unselected Closing Expressions by BSB Students	214

55.	The Formal Closing Expressions Selected by DSEB Students	215
56.	The Informal Closing Expressions Selected by DSEB Students	216
57.	The Unselected Closing Expressions by DSEB Students	216
58.	Percentages of BSB and DSEB Students' Responses in Relation to their Knowledge about the Different Kinds of Letters	223
59.	Percentages of the Students' Responses about their Knowledge of the Formal Letters	224
60.	Percentages of Students' Responses to the Differences Between the Formal and the Informal Letters	225
61.	Percentages of the Students' Responses for their Ability to Write Formal Letters	227

Table of Appendices

No.	Appendix
-----	-----------------

1.	Topic of Formal Letter	267
2.	Students' Questionnaire	268
3.	The Interview	275
4.	SPSS Outcomes	277
5.	Paulus' scoring Rubrics	287
6	The Jury Members	294

Table of Contents

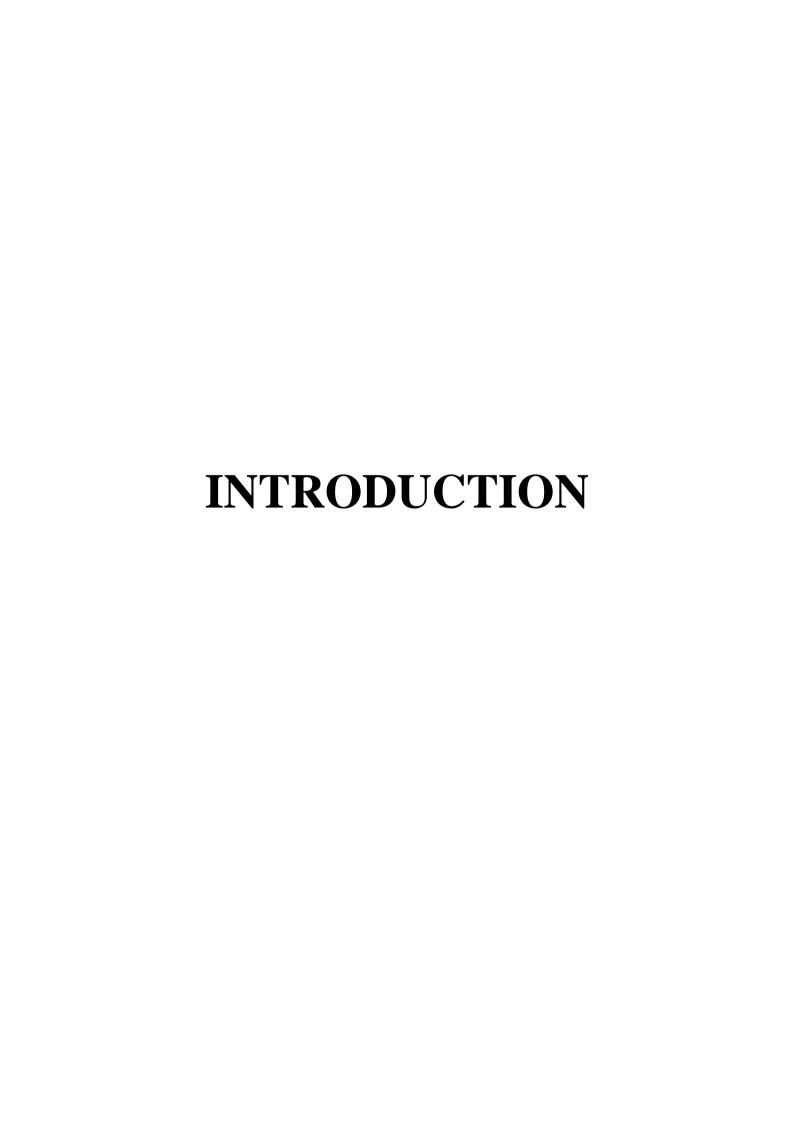
	Contents	Page	
Board of Examiners			
Declaration			
Dedication		iv	
Acknowledge	ements	V	
Abstract		vi	
List of Abbre	eviations	vii	
List of Tables	S	viii	
List of Figures			
Table of Appendices			
Table of Contents			
Introduction			
Chapter One: Theoretical Considerations: ESP, Needs Analysis, Syllabus			
Design, Program Evaluation, ESP Practitioner			
1.1.	Theoretical Considerations	12	
1.1.1	Concepts and Definitions on ESP	12	
1.1.2	Characteristics of ESP	15	
1.1.3	Types of ESP	17	
1.1.4	Emergence of ESP	23	
1.1.5	Stages of ESP Development	24	

		Contents	Page
	1.1.6	General English VS ESP	29
	1.2	Needs Analysis	34
	1.2.1	Key Notions and Concepts	34
	1.2.2	Development of Needs Analysis	38
	1.2.3	Insights Into Needs Analysis Approaches	41
	1.3	Syllabus Design	52
	1.3.1	Difference Between Curriculum and Syllabus	52
	1.3.2	ESP Syllabus Design	55
	1.4	Evaluation and ESP Program Evaluation	56
	1.4.1	Evaluation	56
	1.4.2	ESP Program Evaluation	58
	1.4.3	ESP Program Evaluation Frameworks	60
	1.5	EFL Teachers VS ESP Practitioners	65
	1.5.1	The EFL Teachers	66
	1.5.2	The ESP Practitioners	71
	1.6	EFL Teacher Education	76
	1.6.1	ESP Teacher Training	
Cha	pter Two	: Literature Review on Writing and ESP Writing	80
	2.1	Concepts on Writing	80
	2.2	Approaches to Writing	82
	2.2.1	The Product Approach to Writing	82
	2.2.2	The Process Approach to Writing and its Stages	83

		Contents	Page
	2.2.3	The Genre Approach to Writing	89
	2.3	Writing Assessment	91
	2.3.1	Historical Consideration	91
	2.3.2	The Use of Rubrics in Writing Assessment	95
	2.3.3	Paulus's (1999) Essay Scoring Rubric	97
	2.4	ESP and Writing	99
	2.4.1	Issues about ESP Writing	99
	2.4.2	Academic and Professional Genres in ESP Writing	100
	2.5	The Related Studies to ESP Writing, Program Evaluation and Needs Analysis.	102
Chapter Three : Research Methodology			118
	3.0.	Introduction	118
	3.1	Context of the Study	118
	3.2	Population and Sample	119
	3.3.	Instruments of the Study	122
	3.3.1	Students' Drafts	123
	3.3.2	The Interview	124
	3.3.3	The Questionnaire	126
	3.4	Validity of the Instruments	129
	3.5	Design of the Study and Data Collection	130
	3.6.	Methods of Data Analysis	132
	3.6.	Limitations of the Study	134

		Contents	Page
		Conclusion	135
Chap	Chapter Four: Presentation of the Results		
	4.0.	Introduction	136
	4.1.	The Results	136
	4.1.1.	The Results of the Study Related to Question One	138
	4.1.2.	The Results of the Study Related to Question Two	150
	4.1.3.	The Results of the Study Related to Question Three	152
	4.1.4.	The Results of the Study Related to Question Four	177
	4.1.5.	The Results of the Study Related to Question Five	183
	4.2.	Summary of the Results	226
Chap	oter Five:	Discussion of the Results	228
	5.0.	Introduction	228
	5.1.	Discussion of the Findings	228
	5.1.1	Results of Question One	230
	5.1.2	Results of Question Two	234
	5.1.3	Results of Question Three	235
	5.1.4	Results of Question Four	236
	5.1.5	Results of Question Five	237
	5.2.	Pedagogical Implications	240
	5.3	Recommendations	241
Conc	clusion		243

	Contents	Page
Bibliography		247
Appendices		264
Abstract in Arabic		



INTRODUCTION:

Background of the Study:

After the Second World War English became the global language, countries worldwide made it a priority in foreign language teaching. It became the language most demanded and available to learners, and the educational authorities made it compulsory to be taught in schools and universities as a second or a foreign language.

An increasing number of learners all over the world get interested in English and felt the need to learn it. Those learners were from different categories having different needs and the general English provided to them couldn't meet the needs of those eager learners of English. Every category of learners needed different kind of English. The demand for specialized English language became consequently necessary. This situation gave birth to what is known today as Specific English or English for Specific Purpose (ESP).

This new trend in English Language Teaching started to gain more and more importance throughout the years to become the most important part of English language teaching, it is demanded and required by all specialists in different domains whether academic or professional. In ESP all decisions about content, method and material are based on the learners' needs and reasons for learning.

Therefore, ESP is designed to meet the specific needs of learners which determine any purpose that could be specified in academic or professional life. In both contexts whether academic life or the occupational setting, writing is considered as the spinal column of the institutions. In schools and universities, students and teachers are committed to write different kinds of letters in different situations: it can be assignments that the teachers ask their students to write, reports about projects/books, emails, research articles, PhD dissertations or teacher's feedback..., among others. The people involved in the academic life should have good manage of the English language writing since they have already studied it in secondary school and could acquire knowledge that allows and qualifies them to use it in their potential fields and disciplines in higher education; however, this is not the case all the time. This could be due to the fact that the writing knowledge provided to students in the home school

does not prepare them for their future life at the university, thus their prior knowledge acquired in writing couldn't be transferred to the new context but instead they need to learn specific kind of English writing that matches the new situation.

In the modern professional setting, that is right that the new technology facilitated the transmission of documents and the reception of mails, but writing is still considered the path of traceability and the proof of every operation, transaction or commercial activity. Every employee who wants to establish his career must learn the conventions of writing related to the field. Who can imagine the workplace without complain letters, asking for information, emails, deals' contracts, seeking promotion, asking for pay rise, minutes of meetings, ...etc.

The gaps existing in both academic life and the professional context in terms of transferability of writing knowledge from one context to another will be even bigger when the freshly graduated students integrate into the workplace; they find themselves totally lost facing the unfamiliar surrounding where writing is the central activity of the company full of formality, impersonality, and nominalization. These employees should have the necessary knowledge already acquired at the university that allows them to integrate the workplace easily, yet they find themselves incapable neither to use that prior knowledge about ESP writing nor to learn from the new setting.

In fact, writing is a very important skill that EFL learner should improve, it is regarded as necessary for everyone who wants to trace and succeed in his career in both academic and professional contexts. However, teaching writing in the English language is considered as a complex skill that the majority of learners find it relatively difficult to master; this situation becomes even more challenging for learners who are studying English as second or foreign language and need to use it in their disciplines, their educational livelihood and workplace. This is not only because they need first to improve their general language but they also need to transfer the knowledge acquired in English to the target situation which is the professional and the academic setting which uses particular kind of writing. Therefore, learners have to connect between General English writing and the particularity of the ESP context.

Algeria, like other countries all over the world; finds itself committed to teach and develop the English language in its institutions to promote and extend its economic and scientific development, as well as preparing its learners to this new world full of sophisticated technologies and massive communication where English is the global language. This suggests the involvement of different parts in the teaching and learning process such as the ESP teachers.

Indeed, the role and the involvement of ESP teachers in the teaching and learning process are very important. Nevertheless, those teachers find some difficulties in providing knowledge about ESP; this is due to several factors such as being trained as general English teachers not as ESP practitioners which implies a gap between the teacher's previous knowledge of English and the unfamiliarity with the field they are teaching. Another difficulty that ESP teachers face is the rejection of technical and scientific fields which limits their motivation in improving their knowledge and their skills in teaching. These factors can be connected with the lack of serious training especially for new teachers who need to cope with their learners' special area.

Another important component of the ESP teaching and learning environment is the assessment and evaluation; which are considered as crucial in deciding about the students' acquisition and acquirement of knowledge provided and judging the program's effectiveness. Yet, there are no conventions about the different ways of assessment and methods of evaluation in ESP writing.

Yet, this will be hard to attain if we consider the historical background of the Algerian administration which inherited the French system. In some institutions French is used as first language in the correspondences and mails like banks and some financial institutions. This situation makes it even harder for those interested in learning about ESP writing within the professional context that would be the best opportunity to get trained in the real educational and professional world

Research problem:

The above mentioned facts aroused the researcher's interest to investigate this situation. In fact, I was part of the program in different Institutes of Vocational Training as trainee, and a trainer and had the chance to observe many of the graduates from these Institutes in the job market itself where many of them seem to be very poor in English and had to receive new English language training on the terminology of their job.

In addition to the previous point and through my experience as an English teacher at many departments like History Department, Psychology Department and the University of Continuous Training, it was clear that the learners themselves were not involved in learning, and their roles were no more than receivers of what their teachers offered to them, and the training materials provided by inexperienced teachers who were trained as General English teachers and not ESP teachers who usually select general English materials which you can easily manipulate and focus on grammar and vocabulary without giving the learners any opportunity to produce English through writing or even speaking. Furthermore many of the teachers often used traditional teaching methods with very little focus on writing activities which could be the ultimate wish of many of these learners since in some administrations at the work place writing skill is very important that any employee should improve.

I have noticed that there is no specialized syllabus to teach English for Specific Purpose and each teacher is free to design an English course and develop his own teaching method where the teachers were often the center of the teaching process and the learners' role was reduced to no more than passive receiver. This situation resulted in the total neglect of the learners' needs that must be taken into account in ESP learning.

We have recognized while evaluating the learners' acquisition that the General English results were much better than ESP in terms of writing skills, this was one of the reasons that led us to investigate such imbalanced results.

While working at ATM Mobilis we were instructed to give a great importance to the speaking skill, and at the end of the training course we had a greater demand about improving and developing the writing skill in the field of profession from our learners who were mainly employees having some knowledge about General English, thus they had the ability to use English for oral expression but needed to use it for professional correspondences in terms of replying and answering the different mails.

Moreover, during my work in a bank, I noticed that many of the newly recruited employees graduating from the High School of Banks were incapable of understanding the English banking jargon, or even to understand the different business letters sent by the bank correspondents and often needed special training for a period of three months in different departments of the bank to become efficient, they keep on practicing to improve their ESP writing even if their knowledge concerning the banking and the different banking transactions were excellent.

In this context, this study attempts to highlight the teaching of writing at the High School of Banks – Bouzareah in terms of contents of the program, the materials used, the number of hours allocated to the subject, the syllabus designed, tasks implement, the different ways of assessment; and tries to see whether those techniques, skills, and abilities are applied and used in ESP writing.

However, we have noticed that the students of High School of Banks at Bouzareah have already an idea about the English writing and they have improved their major (banking studies) but they are incapable to transfer that knowledge about English writing into an ESP writing taking into account the different letters/mails that the banking field includes (invoice, swifts, complains from correspondents, sending/return funds letters... etc).

This study attempts to investigate the reasons behind such transfer inadequacy from General English writing to ESP writing; it also tries to bridge the gap between general English writing and ESP writing.

The aims and significance of the study:

The present study aims at investigating the ESB students' gap existing while transferring the knowledge acquired in General English writing towards ESP writing, in terms of the students' needs about the current program taught at the school, the role of the ESP teacher in the acquisition of knowledge, the different assessment methods of learners in addition to the students knowledge about the formal letters.

The investigation of the ESB students' transfer ability about ESP writing at the High School of Banks is important because the results of such an investigation can provide both researchers and teachers with valuable insights about the students' needs that can be used to improve ESP writing.

Research Questions:

In the light of what was said previously the present survey attempts at answering the following main question:

Do the students of the High School of Banks have the ability to transfer knowledge from general English writing to ESP writing?

A number of sub-questions emerge as follow:

- 1- What could be the difficulties met by students while transferring from General English to ESP writing?
- 2- Are these needs different between males and females?
- 3- Does the current program match the needs of students?
- 4- Are the ways of assessment efficient in evaluating the students' performance?
- 5- What is the role of the ESP teacher in improving the students' ESP writing?

Organization of the study:

This dissertation is divided into five chapters. The first chapter presents a number of issues that aim at introducing the main topic; these issues are meant to provide the theoretical basis from which the study derives. The topics discussed are English for Specific Purposes, Needs Analysis, Syllabus Design and program evaluation, and finally we attempt to show the difference between GE teacher and the ESP practitioner.

The second chapter introduces a number of concepts related to writing such as the definition of writing, the different writing stages and the writing genres; it also presents the different ways of writing assessment and shows the difference between general English writing and ESP writing.

The third chapter introduces the research methodology in which data will be collected through field investigation. It describes in detail the process followed to achieve the aims and objectives of the present study, the purpose of such data collection is mainly to answer the research questions concerning the population and sample.

The fourth chapter is devoted to the presentation of the results. This chapter examines the results of the study in relation to the research questions and tests the related hypotheses.

The fifth chapter discusses and analyzes the results presented in the previous chapter; I attempt to discuss the results more thoroughly and deeply. The interpretations of these results are presented and at the end of this chapter, suggestions are given for the people concerned.

Hypotheses of the Study

In this study various hypotheses were developed which the researcher attempts to test, these are:

- 1. There will be a significant statistical difference (at the level of $\infty \le .05$) between students' drafts for both BSB and DSEB
- 2. There will be a significant statistical difference (at the level of $\infty \le .05$) of BSB students' first drafts between the different categories
- 3. There will be a significant statistical difference (at the level of $\infty \le .05$) of BSB students' second drafts between the different categories
- 4. There will be a significant statistical difference (at the level of $\infty \le .05$) of DSEB students' first drafts between the different categories
- 5. There will be a significant statistical difference (at the level of $\infty \le .05$) of DSEB students' second drafts between the different categories
- 6. There will be a significant statistical difference (at the level of $\infty \le .05$) between males and females for BSB students
- 7. There will be a significant statistical difference (at the level of $\infty \le .05$) between males and females for DSEB students

Definition of the key terms of the study:

English for Specific Purpose: according to Mackay and Mountford (1978: 2) ESP is used to refer to the teaching of English for a clearly utilitarian purpose. This purpose is usually defined with reference to some occupational requirement.

Evaluation means examining or assessing something in order to judge its value or quality.

Program Evaluation: Robinson (2003) defined program evaluation as "the collection, analysis, and interpretation of information ... for forming judgments about the value of a particular program." (p.199). The purpose of such evaluation is to provide information on 'perceptions of a program's value', examining how far they meet their objectives, and giving suggestions to the people concerned about necessary changes for improving the program.

Syllabus: is an expression of opinion on the nature of language and learning; it acts as a guide for both teacher and learner by providing some goals to be attained.

Needs Analysis: according to Brown (1995) a needs analysis is an important first step in the development of a curriculum, he defines needs analysis as being the collection and analysis of information about a curriculum to satisfy students.

Writing: Flognfeldt (2016) defined writing as "a process that ends with a product. This product has a structure, a certain size, content, style, etc. Various strategies are involved in the writing process, and different tools may be used in various stages of the process. Social or affective factors may motivate the writer, since the writing process takes place at school, the kind of assessment and feedback given by the teacher may be facilitative factor. What the model does not show is that writing is always embedded in a context".

Part I

Literature Review

Chapter 1:

- ESP
- Needs Analysis
- Syllabus Design
- Evaluation and ESP Program Evaluation
- EFL Teachers VS ESP Practitioners

Chapter 2:

- Writing and ESP Writing

Chapter One

Theoretical Considerations:

(ESP, Needs Analysis, Syllabus Design, Program Evaluation, ESP Practitioner)

This chapter introduces a number of issues related to the main topic of discussion such as English for Specific Purposes (ESP), evaluation, needs analysis and syllabus design. These topics are introduced in detail such as the concept of these terms, their history and implications in the field. These issues are meant to provide the theoretical basis from which the study derives its basic assumptions, background and provides main ideas for the study tools.

1.1.1 Concepts and Definitions on ESP:

No one can deny the importance of ESP in our world; its quick expansion implies a deep reflection about the ESP basic notions, concepts and the different definitions presented by scholars in the field of ESP. the definitions presented varied and developed over time.

Among the scholars who presented the ultimate purpose of ESP were Mackay and Mountford (1978: 2), they defined ESP as a language that is generally used to refer to the teaching of English for a clearly utilitarian purpose. The latter is usually defined with reference to some occupational requirement like international telephone operators or vocational training programs, or some academic or professional study, e.g. engineering. We understand that the goal of learning ESP is important and it is related to the learners' target purpose.

This definition is supported by Harmer (1983: 1), who defined ESP as "...situations where the student has some specific reasons for wanting to learn a language". That is to say, in an ESP situation, the learner wants to learn the target language in order to achieve specific ends.

Strevens' (1977) definition of ESP is close to that of Mackay and Mountford in terms of the ultimate purpose, yet he presented ESP as being concerned by a number of activities, movements and subjects that are carried out predominantly not exclusively in English. He suggests that the main concern of ESP is all about the activities, movements and subjects related to: - occupational purpose, or - study purposes, he looks at the purpose for which the student needs to learn.

Anthony (1997: 9-10), described ESP as "simply being the teaching of English for any purpose that could be specified". Whereas; Coffey (1985) sees ESP as "a quick and economic use of the English language to pursue a course of academic study (EAP) or effectiveness in paid employment (EOP).

According to Robinson (1991:2), the learner of ESP doesn't learn English "because he is interested in the English Language or English culture as such, but because he needs English for study or work purposes". This denotes that the role of ESP is to help language learners to build up the needed abilities in order to use them in a specific field of inquiry, occupation, or workplace.

The dominance of needs analysis was clear in Robinson's definition of ESP (1991). Her definition is based on two keys defining criteria and a number of characteristics. Her keys criteria are that ESP is 'normally goal directed', and that ESP courses develop from a need analysis, which 'aims to specify as closely as possible what exactly it is that students have to do through the medium of English' (Robinson,1991: 3).

Basturkmen (2006: 18) states 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 environment".

Hutchinson and Waters (1987:18) defined ESP as being an *approach* rather than a *product* by which they mean that ESP does not involve a particular kind of language, teaching materials or methodology.

They suggest that the basic question of ESP is: - why does this learner need to learn a foreign language? The answer to this question relates to the learners, the language required and the learning context and thus establishes the primacy of needs in ESP.

Lorenzo (2005) explains that ESP concentrates more on language in context than on teaching grammar and language structure. Consequently there are some factors to consider its form and use like the social and the discursive context. In the same track, Carter (1983) assumes that self-direction is important to make the learner of ESP a user of it.

From the above mentioned definitions we can distinguish between different notions among the ESP community: 1- ESP is considered as the teaching of English for any purpose that could be specified, 2- ESP is the teaching of English for academic purpose, and 3- ESP is the teaching of English for vocational or professional purpose.

1.1.2 Characteristics of ESP:

Strevens' (1988: 1-2) makes a distinction between four 'absolute characteristics' and 'two variable characteristics' to describe ESP. The absolute characteristics are:

- ESP is designed to meet specified needs of the learner,
- It is related in content (that is in its themes and topics) to particular disciplines, occupations and activities,
- Centered on language appropriate to those activities in syntax, lexis discourse, semantics and so on, and analyses of the discourse
- Designed in contrast to 'general English
- It can be restricted to the language skill to be learned for example reading or writing, ..

The variable characteristics are that ESP:

- May be restricted as to the learning skills to be learned (for example reading only),
- May not be taught according to any pre-ordained methodology

Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998: 4-5) proposed a more precise version of ESP in terms of 'absolute' and 'variable' characteristics as follow.

A. Absolute Characteristics

- ESP is defined to meet specific needs of the learners.
- ESP makes use of underlying methodology and activities of the discipline it serves.
- ESP is centred on the language appropriate to these activities in terms of grammar, lexis, register, study skills, discourse and genre appropriate to these activities.

B. 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 systems

As mentioned, Dudley-Evans (1998) is clearly influenced by Strevens' definition (1988), he presented more variable characteristics, even though he removed the absolute characteristic that ESP is "in contrast with General English" (Johns et al., 1991: 298). This distinction between the absolute and variable characteristics of ESP is helpful to make difference between what is and is not ESP.

For Robinson (1991), the characteristics of ESP courses are constrained by *a limited time period*, in which their objectives to be achieved, and are taught to adult *in homogenous classes* in terms of the work or specialist studies that students are involved in.

We can see that ESP may not necessarily be concerned with a specific discipline, nor does it have to be aimed at a certain age group or ability range. ESP should be seen simple as an 'approach' to teaching, or what Dudley-Evans (1998) describes as an 'attitude of mind'. This is a close conclusion to that of Hutchinson et al. (1987:19) who said, "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" as already mentioned.

1.1.3 Types of ESP:

The growing need for specialized English in our modern world resulted in the abound subdivisions in the field of ESP. Despite the range of types of ESP, it is traditionally agreed the existence of two large subfields in literature: English for Occupational Purposes (EOP) and English for Academic Purposes (EAP) that are related to the motivation, position and status of the learners' reason for learning.

The classification of ESP created many divergences in the field and knew multiple subdivisions because of the increasing needs of learners for specialized languages to fit their expectations in different domains; categorization of ESP abounds in literature and still flexible in order to accommodate emerging trends and developments in ESP practices.

Strevens (1977) explains that EOP can be taught before or after the learner has worked in a specific field (pre-experience or post-experience), or when the learner is working (simultaneous), thus he shows that the Occupational and the Academic English are divided according to when the learner learns. In same context, the academic English is divided into discipline-based English in higher education and school-subject English. The previous type of EAP may be taught when the student is specializing (in-study) or intends to specialize (pre-study) in a particular subject.

School-subject EAP can be taught as a separate subject (independent) or can be the medium of instruction in other subjects (integrated). The different types suggested by Strevens are shown in the following figure:

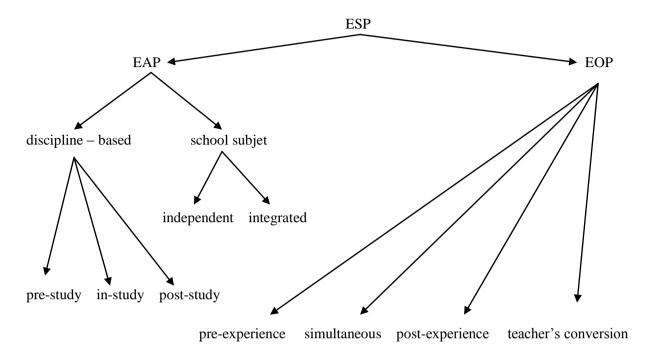


figure (01): Strevens' Division of ESP Types

David Carter (1983) presents three types of ESP, they are:

> English as a Restricted Language

It is a reduced form of LANGUAGE, he explains that some REGISTERS are extremely restricted in purpose. They employ only a limited number of formal items and patterns; this is what represents the restricted language which is used with a particular end in mind. This claim is supported by Mackay and Mountford (1978), who illustrate the difference between, restricted language and language by the example of the language of the international air traffic, the language used by the dining room waiter and air hostess. Knowing a restricted language would not allow the speaker to communicate effectively in novel situation or in contexts outside the vocational environment.

English for Academic and Occupational Purposes:

Carter (1983) identifies the second type of ESP as English for Academic and Occupational Purposes. In this subdivision, he refers to Hutchinson and Waters view of ESP who divide it into three branches:

- a) English for Science and Technology (EST)
- b) English for Business and Economy (EBE)
- c) English for Social Studies (ESS)

Each of them is further divided into two branches: English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Occupational Purposes (EOP). He illustrates by considering English for Technicians as a branch of EOP in relation to EST and the EAP is the English for Medical Studies.

English with Specific Topics

In this third type Carter notes that the emphasis shifts from purpose to topic. This type of ESP is concerned with anticipated future, for example, scientists requiring English for postgraduate reading studies attending conferences or working in foreign institutions.

Kennedy and Bolitho (1984) add more type of ESP according to the need of scientists and technologists. This type is called English for Science and Technology (EST). They clarify that EST (English for Science and Technology) is a branch of ESP which deals with scientific content, they show its characteristics by clarifying that EST is too general to be of great use in the design of ESP materials they add that EST has often led to teaching materials with a scientific bias but which did not serve the needs of the learners.

Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 17) identify three categories of ESP according to the professional area: English for Science and Technology (EST), English for Business and Economy (EBE) and English for the Social Sciences (ESS). Each course may be divided into two main types according to whether English is required for academic study or for work/training: EAP and EOP as shown in the below figure:

Hutchinson & Waters (1987)

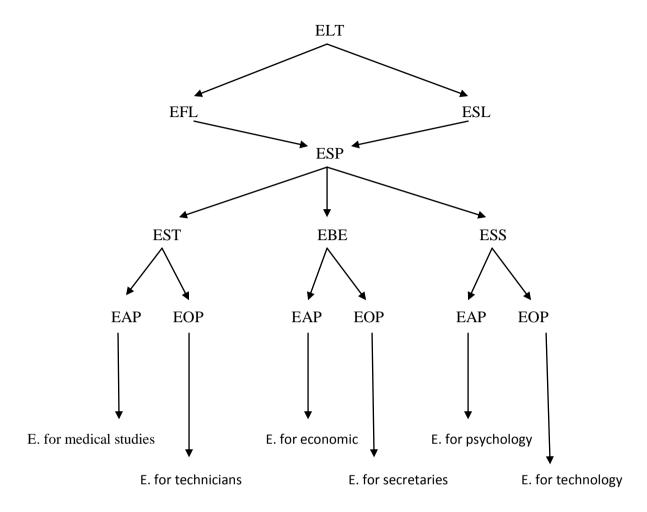


Figure (02) Hutchinson and Waters' Division of ESP Branches

Robinson (1991) considers ESP as a field of ELT divided into EAP and EOP. Cutting across these is EST, which can refer to the English needed for both study and work purposes. Her ESP "family tree" differs from Strevens' in that the English needed in a particular discipline can also be taught after the student has specialized (post-study).

Robinson (1991)

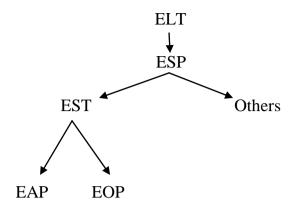


Figure (03): Robinson's Division of ESP Types

Dudley-Evans and St John (1998, p. 6) classify ESP by professional area. EAP covers the areas of Science and Technology (EST, the main branch), Medicine and Health Sciences (EMP), Law and Administration (ELP), and Business and Economics. EOP covers two areas: (1) English for Professional Purposes (EPP), which has two branches: Medicine (EMP) and Business (EBP); and (2) English for Vocational Purposes (EVP), which has two subsections: pre-vocational English, which is concerned with finding a job and interview skills; and Vocational English (VE), which is concerned with the language of specific occupations.

Dudley-Evans & St. John (1998)

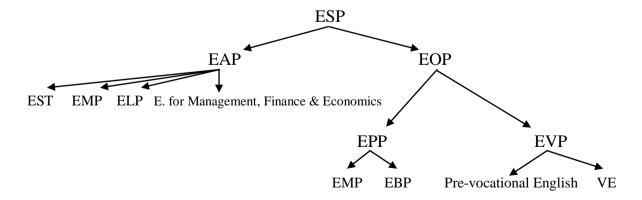


Figure (04): Dudley-Evans & St. John (1998) Division of ESP Types

The field of ESP has expanded very quickly emerging a wide variety of subdivisions, each with its own acronym. We can find:

- English for Science and Technology (EST)
- Vocational English as a Second Language (VESL)
- English for Vocational Purposes (EVP)
- English for Specific and Academic Purposes (ESAP)
- English for Professional and Academic Purposes (EPAP)
- English as a Lingua Franca in Academic Setting ((ALFA)
- English for Occupational Purposes (EOP)
- English for Business and Communication (EBC)
- English for Sociocultural Purposes (ESCP)
- English for General Business Purposes (EGBP)
- English for Medical Purposes (EMP)
- English for Legal Purposes (ELP)
- English for Academic Legal Purposes (EALP)
- English for Research Publication Purposes (ERPP)

Without forgetting our modern life characterized by the digital technology, we find new types of ESP like: - Electronic Business English (e-BE) and - Electronic Medical English (e-ME).

All the above mentioned types of ESP are meant to provide the learners of English with the knowledge that helps them understand and communicate in the academic or working environment and enable them to learn and use specialized vocabulary required in a specific situation.

1.1.4 The Emergence of ESP

Some researchers say that the origin of ESP goes back to the sixteenth century as shown by Strevens (1977 cited in Robinson 1989: 399). Robinson (1989: 399) investigated the origin of ESP by introducing the question of "how old is ESP?" and suggested that the specific language was provided to diplomats, businessmen. Strevens (1977) introduced the notion of special-purpose language teaching (SPLT) which represents the early notion of specific purpose of the language. This notion was meant for different languages like German, Russian, French or English; it was not specific to English.

The SPLT knew a radical change during the Second World War, during which very important programs were developed to face the enemies. The United States of America trained its soldiers to learn other languages as intensive courses to be used in the war needs (Strevens 1977: 151).

The reason of that training as explained by Strevens (1977: 151) was to gather much information about specific war situations in a restricted period of time to use it for a very specific goal. Strevens gives the example of the Royal Air Force personnel, who went through a very specialized training for learning Japanese in a short period of time, the aim of that training was to listen to the Japanese soldiers in the e Burmese jungle and understand the Japanese fighter aircraft talking to their ground control stations, trying to identify their targets, and using this information to alert RAF interceptor fighters. As can be understood from the above mentioned example, the aim of learning Japanese was not general but very specific instead; it was based on Listening and Speaking only. This doesn't allow those learner read or write.

When the Second World War ended, enormous changes were brought and affected the teaching and learning of ESP. Hutchinson and Waters (1978) stated that among the results of the SWW, the United States of America became the world's strongest country in different fields, much information concerning engineering and technological development, science, medicine and business management became available mainly in English. This new situation pushed many countries in the world to

promote the teaching of English as foreign language to allow their people make commercial transactions with the USA.

Thus, each category of learners had its own needs and needed specific language, a new idea emerged which implies that language we write and speak changes from one context to another. This new idea pushed to the emergence of specific groups of learners who wanted to learn specific language related to a specific context, since the needs of a student of engineering are different from those of commerce or medicine. These different needs and attitudes have also affected the learners' motivation to learn. Many of these reasons, in fact, pushed forward for increasing specialization in language teaching and learning which gave birth later on to English for Specific purposes (ESP) Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 6).

When the oil crises occurred in the early 1970's, English become big business and there were a pressure on language teaching profession to deliver the required goals (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987: 6)

1.1.5 Stages of ESP Development:

The ESP evolution can be distinguished by four major stages which are characterized by changes in the linguistic approach to ESP and changes in ESP teaching and learning. In this section we'll attempt to present a comprehensive view and a clear description of the ESP evolution and the different phases of development it's undergone through time from its beginning in the mid 60s up to date.

1. Mid-1960s - early 1970s

This period of ESP development was first concerned with the language variation and *register analyses* (Halliday et al., 1964). Language varieties deal with the different variation existing in language in relation to different contexts of use known as register (which is a list of technical words used in specific context), at this stage the aim of teaching English was mainly to identify grammatical and technical features of the register which was the basis of course and syllabus design in ESP.

Consequently, the teaching of English "emphasized on statistical methods which usually calculated the frequency of occurrence of certain speech elements and established lists of items for teaching purposes" (Robinson, 1991: 23-24), the concern early ESP courses was mainly grammar and vocabulary of scientific English (e.g. Close, 1965; Herbert, 1965, Ewer and Latorre, 1969, Swales, 1971; Dudley Evans, 1977), There were no explanation supplied but it was only description. Ewer and Latorre (1969, p.122) explain that the concern of scientific register gave birth to other disciplines "It is to this essential framework that the large specialized vocabularies of each discipline are added".

We can mention some works that was based on register analyses which contributed in the development of register analysis during this period like those written by Strevens (1964), Ewer (1969) Swales (1971). In addition to some contributions in new language varieties like medical English (e.g. Allwright & Allwright, 1977; Candlin et al., 1978) and business English (e.g. Eckerley and Knufmann, 1973).

In this context, it is worth to mention that during this period there has been little concern about teaching and learning ESP as stated by Sturtridge (1977) and Wheeler (1977), there have been no attention given to the meaning but instead it was based mainly on structure. However, the needs and the aims of the learners were taken into consideration in syllabus design.

2. Mid-1970s - mid-1980s

After register analyses stage, which focused the sentence level, the interest shifted from lexical items to *discourse* or *rhetorical analyses*, at this stage the attention moved to understand how sentences were combined in discourse to provide meaning. Discourse is here defined as a collection of connected sentences and paragraphs that together make up a coherent and cohesive text.

Indeed, the shift within the ELT field towards a more communicative view of language teaching and learning influenced EST materials production, the hypotheses of this stage were expressed by Widdowson 1978 (as cited in Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). Allen (1978) and Widdowson (1983) explain that the attention shifted from the structure of forms to their meaning and to the analysis of forms in context.

Therefore, the course of English provided to learners of specific needs should contain practices not on how sentences are combined together to provide meaning only, but also how they are used in communicative acts.

The syllabus based on grammar was replaced by another one built around rhetorical functions like some textbook series of the time, the *Focus Series*, with nine volumes from 1977 to 1983, where the emphasis was on key functions in scientific and academic writing. In addition to the *Nucleus series* edited by Bates and Dudley-Evans (Longman), which focused on the function of description and introduced semitechnical scientific vocabulary.

The positive aspect of this approach is the use of language as a medium for science and technology which must involve in the teaching of how scientists and technologists use the system of the language to communicate, and not just what linguistic elements are most commonly used (Widdowson, 1978:13)

That is right that *discourse* or *rhetorical analyses* gave more importance to the function of sentences in discourse but t it came to replace a grammatical lexical register by an account of functions, it also left some questions without solutions, like the criteria for the selection of communicative functions, the sequencing of functions in teaching materials and the overlap of functions in many statements and texts. The results of the research gave birth to a new era of teaching and learning Specific English which is the focus on the learner's communicative needs.

The focus on the learner's communicative needs was set out by John Munby in his *Communicative Syllabus Design* (1978). This stage was known as *target situation analyses* in which the learner's need was placed at the centre of the course design process.

3. Mid-1980s – 1990s

The main characteristics of the third stage *is discourse and genre analysis*, and the *learning-centered approach* supported by Hutchinson and Waters 1987, it considered the thinking processes that underlie language use not the language itself. The genre analysis is considered as part of the discourse analysis; the latter involves text analysis and a specific analytical method whereas genre analysis deals with the study of the forms of discourse that particular discourse communities engage in their communicative conventions and purposes, the role texts play in particular contexts, their genre products, and the differences between the discourses within and of various discourse communities. This trend in ESP teaching and learning was introduced by many scholars in field like: Swales, 1986, 1988, 1990; Crookes, 1986; Dudley-Evans, 1987, 1989; Hopkins & Dudley-Evans, 1988; Salager-Meyer et al., 1989; Swales & Feak, 1994; Bhatia, 1993; and Eggins & Martin, 1997.

In relation to the *learning centered approach*, it was put forward by Hutchinson and Waters (1987), which means "how learners learn"? They maintained that the above mentioned stages are based on description of language use but the concern would be on language leaning. This new approach was concerned with language learning, and the methodology put the emphasis on pair/group work and problemsolving. The focus shifted from an end-product of needs to a process-oriented of needs; which means the transfer was from the target needs, i.e. what the learner needs to do in the target situation to learning needs, i.e. what the learner needs to do in order to learn. A learning-centered approach is shown through the must to discover how someone acquires the competence to perform. Learning is totally determined by the learner. (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987: 72-73)

4. 2000s-present

The fourth stage of ESP has seen many developments like the recognition of the influence of culture on the structure of genres (e.g. Melander, 1998, pp. 221-226); this claim is defended by Dudley-Evans and St John (1998: 66) who says: "a sensitivity to cultural issues and an understanding of our own and others' values and behaviors is

important in ESP". In this context it is worth to mention that the new technologies had an impact on ESP pedagogy such as self-directed learning through online platforms (Luzón et al., 2010). During this stage much work on ESP is devoted to academic and professional discourse (e.g. Alcaraz, 2000; Hyland & Bondi, 2006; Sales, 2006; Alcaraz et al., 2007) especially academic writing among the scholar who supported ESP writing we find Hyland (2000, 2006) who had a great contribution in ESP writing.

The important use of ESP in both academic and professional environment gave birth to a new approach known as *Content Language Integrated Learning* (CLIL), its aim is to integrate content and language in the domain-specific courses.

Collaborative learning; team teaching, and linked ESP and subject area, or learning communities (Johnson, 2000; Johns, 2009) are considered as a combination between the content teaching and the ESP teaching. They took place in different part of the world as latest approaches to ESP. The literature in the domain of ESP has grown still record about its development.

1.1.6. General English VS ESP:

After defining ESP, the difference between ESP and General English appears to be quite clear. Nevertheless we find different opinions and an overlapping connection between them. The view points about the differences and similarities existing between ESP and General English varied through time and changed from one stage of ESP development to another.

Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 53) showed that there is difference between ESP and General English in relation to practice but nothing can be mentioned in theory: "in theory nothing, in practice a great deal". According to their view, GE and ESP share the same principles of language teaching, having effective and efficient learning as a main objective. The main difference between GE and ESP lies in the awareness of a need. ESP learners are current or future specialists, who need English for their specific area, and who are aware of their need; they know what exactly they need English for. They know what ESP course should offer them (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987).

Widdowson (1983) clarified the relation between ESP and General English by establishing some distinctive features of ESP and EGP. He explains that the most important EGP features are that its focus is often on education. As learners' future needs are impossible to predict, the course content is more difficult to select and due to this, it is important for the content in the syllabus to have a high surrender value.

On the other hand, the most relevant features of ESP are that the focus is on training. As English is intended to be used in specific vocational contexts, the selection of the appropriate content will be easier and the content will be given more value in the design of the syllabus which may create a restricted English competence as an ultimate aim. These distinctive features reveal the true nature of EGP and ESP.

According to Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998: 4-5) the learners and their purposes for learning English constitute the major difference between ESP and EGP. They explain that ESP may use, in specific teaching situations, a different methodology from that of General English; this is explained by the fact that ESP learners are usually adults who have some basic knowledge about General English and they know perfectly what they want ESP for, thus, ESP is meant to meet specific needs of the learners which is expressed through the ultimate goal of leaning ESP.

The above mentioned claim is supported by Strevens (1988: 1-2) who distinguishes ESP by being designed to meet specified needs of the learner, it is also restricted to the language skill to be learned for example reading or writing only contrarily to General English which includes the four skills. It is related in content to particular disciplines, occupations and activities that is the purpose if ESP learners.

The age of the EGP learners varies from children to adults and learning the English language is the subject of the course. EGP courses are mostly focused on grammar, language structure and general vocabulary. EGP courses are responsible to the general language acquisition and, for the vast majority of learners, they are extremely useful. EGP helps students to cope with any subject-matter course. It gives them the ability to generate more language. EGP learners, if well-taught, can use English to cope with the language in any undefined tasks. EGP courses deal with many

different topics and each of the four skills is equally treated. Due to the general nature of these courses no needs analysis is conducted.

Wright (1992) stresses Motivation as an important feature for ESP learners; he explains that in ESP course, it is needs analysis that determines which language skills are useful for the learners to be able to accomplish certain professional tasks (eg. For someone who works as a tourists guide, the speaking skill should be emphasized). English is related to the learners' real needs in a particular field and it is usable immediately in the employment context. The learners are highly motivated as they are aware of their specific purpose for learning English.

Many studies were conducted to show the difference existing between ESP and EGP, Rosenberg (2004) attempted to show that difference by asking a group of teachers of English language to brainstorm the differences and similarities between ESP and Business English (which is part of ESP as explained in the previous sections). The answers of the subject were gathered in the following table:

Business English	General English
Specialised vocabulary	free time activities
Motivation related to job	more freedom in deviation from plan
Teach negotiation and presentation	more time for games
Techniques	more relaxed atmosphere
Students very goal-oriented	songs, literature
More serious	general writing skills
Business correspondence	Social event

In addition to the above mentioned points, the study resulted to some **common points** between Business English and General English, theses are:

- Grammar and functions
- General vocabulary
- Anxiety about capabilities
- Every day English
- Small talk
- Travel vocabulary
- Survival English
- Tour skills
- Current events

Rosenberg (2004: 36) explained that there is a tendency to separate Business English and English for Specific Purposes from General English, nevertheless the majority of teachers are trained first as General English teachers and they feel that this field should be thought in different way.

Rosenberg (2004) clarifies that motivation and goals of the students studying English for Specific Purposes and General English are slightly different, teaching methods can be transferred in both directions to giving the learners the opportunity to acquire better skills in English language (e.i: the classes of English for Specific Purposes from the classes of general English and vice versa).

Basturkmen (2005: 17) rejects the idea of the difference existing between GE and ESP. She claims that there is no General English and Specific English for her all English is specific:

'All languages are learned in some context or another. There is thus no 'basic' variety-less English, there is no General English or English for no Specific Purposes. All English exists as some variety or another.' (Basturkmen, 2005:17)

Basturkmen (2006) says that General English Language teaching starts from a specific point to an indefinite one, while ESP aims to direct the learners to a known destination in order to reach specific objectives.

Her idea agrees to a great extent with that of Bloor and Bloor (1986: 28) who point out that English is learnt from different varieties, but it is the use of language being geared to situation and participants, learned in appropriate contexts, this what makes it specific.

1.2. Needs Analysis:

1.2.1 Key Notions and Concepts:

Need is considered as very important in the setting of ESP teaching and learning, many studies discussed its essential role in the ESP context. Hutchinson and Waters (1987:55) consider the *Need* as the reason for which the learner is learning English, which will vary from study purposes to work purposes. These purposes are regarded as the first steps and the departure points which determine the language to be taught. They make a distinction between learner's need in general English courses and that in ESP courses (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987: 54).

They show the importance of Needs Analysis in ESP syllabus design by considering it as being the spinal column and very essential, they clarify that this need for learning English determines what language should be taught, and consequently the course designed: 'tell me what you need English for and I will tell you the English that you need'. (Hutchinson and al, 1987: 08).

They also distinguish between 'target needs (i.e. what the learner needs to do in the target situation) and learning needs (i.e. what the learner needs to do in order to learn)' (1987: 54). They consider the target needs as necessities, lacks and wants. According to them Necessities are: 1. demands of the target situation, that is, what the learner has to know in order to function effectively in the target situation; 2. knowledge of the linguistic features – discoursal, functional, structural, lexical – which

are commonly used in the situations identified. The focus on necessities only is not sufficient since we do not know about the learners' previous knowledge and we won't discover which of the necessities they lack. Thus, we first need to find out what they know and after that to center the attention on the necessities they lack. The learners' wants constitute target needs, which according to Hutchinson and Water can conflict with the perceptions of other interested parties: course designers, sponsors and teachers.

The importance of Needs Analysis is also stressed by Belcher (2006) who claims that it is "a vital stage in designing ESP materials" (2006: 135). This claim is supported by Brown (1995) who regards needs analysis as an essential first step in the development of a curriculum; he presents needs analysis as being the collection and analysis of information about a curriculum to satisfy students (Brown, 1995:36)

He points out that the outcome of a needs analysis should be a list of goals and objectives for the parties involved, which should "serve as the basis for developing tests, materials, teaching activities, and evaluation strategies, as well as for reevaluating the precision accuracy of the original needs assessment" (Brown,1995: 35).

Bosher & Smalkowski (2002) and Wilkins (1976) confirmed that a 'needs analysis' can best be implemented in curriculum development; they argued that needs analysis helps in determining the objectives of any course or syllabus.

According to Dudley-Evans and John (1998) needs analysis should comprise a number of learners' needs such as: the tasks and activities the learners are/ will be using English for, personal information about learners, cultural information about the students, their current language skills, their perceived language needs, etc. They made a division between: present knowledge/required knowledge, objective/subjective needs, and perceived/felt needs (Dudley-Evans and St-John 1998) as explained in following table:

Dudley-Evans and John (1998) Division of Needs

The	difference	between	present	and	the gap between present know-how and
required knowledge				exigencies of the target situation	
The	diff	erence	bet	ween	the nature of data based on the nature of
objec	ctive/subjecti	ve and	perceive	d/felt	sources used to collect the data required
need	S				for NA, using outsiders and/or insiders
					views

Language leaning involves the combination of several components of the learning and teaching setting, the selection of materials, methodology, assessment and evaluation can be resulted from Needs Analysis which is the first stage in course design. Dudley-Evans and St. John explain that these aspects of language learning acquisition are not linear, but rather interdependent, overlapping activities in a cyclical process and NA is often ongoing, feeding back into various stages (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998, p. 121).

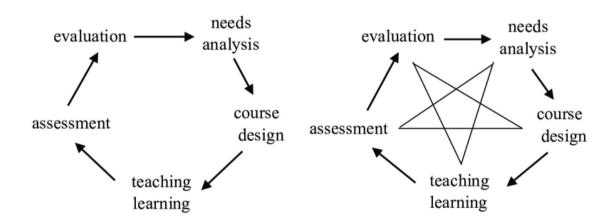


Figure (05): Linear vs. Cyclical Processes of Needs Analysis. (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998: 121).

Iwai et al. (1999) claim that needs analysis is relatively recent as known nowadays but there have been informal needs analyses which were conducted by teachers to assess their students' needs. They add that the term needs analysis generally refers to the activities that are involved in collecting information that will serve as the basis for developing a curriculum that will meet the needs of a particular group of students

Brindley (1989) and Berwick (1989) explain that in using the concept of Need, various problems and limitations emerge including ways in which we might usefully distinguish between needs identified by analysts and those expressed or experienced by learners.

West (1994) presented a thorough overview of needs analysis in language teaching, including its history, theoretical basis, approaches to needs analysis, etc. He explains "The type of information sought during a needs analysis is usually closely related to the approach to teaching and learning and to syllabus design followed by the analysts" (Robinson 1991: 11 - 12).

Smoak (2003) points out that 'ESP is English instruction based on actual and immediate needs of learners who have to successfully perform real-life tasks. It is needs-based and task oriented' (2003: 27). According to her, an ESP teacher should teacher the language that is used in the real life situations; consequently Need analysis should include observations of the language use in context.

According to Dickinson (1991: 91) a distinction between needs, wants and lacks must be done, accordingly the Needs are those skills which a learner perceives as being relevant to him; wants are a subset of needs, those which a learner puts at a high priority given the time available; and the lack is the difference a learner perceives between his present competence in a particular skill and the competence he wishes to achieve.

Graves (1996: 12) clarifies the difference existing Needs analysis and Need assessment which are generally referred to as being the same. He explains that assessment involves obtaining data, whereas analysis involves assigning value to those data.

Hyland (2007) deems needs analysis as being very crucial in ESP which refers to the techniques for collecting and assessing information relevant to course design for the setting up of a course. Needs incorporate learners' goals and backgrounds, their language proficiencies, their reasons for taking the course, their teaching and learning preferences, and the situations they will need to communicate in, it can involve what learners know, don't know or want to know, and can be collected and analyzed in a variety of ways' (2006: 73-74).

1.2.2 Development of Needs Analysis:

West (1994:1) presented a historical description about the origin of 'Needs Analysis', he explains that it first emerged in India in 1920, but then it was nearly forgotten for about half a century; after, this concept reappeared in the Makerere Conference in 1960 and since then the term "Need" became a "special language or register" in linguistics (West, 1994: 2).

West (1994) states that the council of Europe in the early 1970's established a formal analysis of needs where the curriculum development constituted its essential theoretic basis, he said that needs analysis followed three tendencies: improving teaching methods, adapting the teaching to the type of learning public and training the learner how to learn. He showed that needs analysis have been rooted in the second of these tendencies and more recently, the third.' (West, 1994: 2).

Needs Analysis went through different stages of development, the ones widely discussed in literature include the sociolinguistic model (Munby, 1978) the systemic approach (Richterich & Chancerel, 1977), the learning-centered approach (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987), the learner-centered approache (Berwick, 1989; Brindley, 1989) and a task-based approach (Long 2005). These approaches to needs analysis had different principals and basis.

Munby (1978) introduced the sociolinguistic model after the publication of his book "Communicative Syllabus Design" in 1978. In this book Munby presented the 'Communication Needs Processor' (CNP) which is the basis of Munby's approach to needs analysis. This model consists on the presentation of a profile of communication needs which comprise communicative events like: discussing everyday tasks and duties, dialects, education, mode, channel of communication, attitudinal tone..., on the basis of this profile the communicative needs are developed into a syllabus. This model can be used to specify valid 'target situations' (Jordan, 1997, West, 1994) that target communicative competence.

Munby's sociolinguistic model is important for effective communication since it provides plenty of details, nevertheless it is time consuming, complex, inflexible and impractical (West, 1994), "it collected data about the learner rather than from the learner" (West, 1994:9), the learner's voice is not taken into account.

Richterich and Chancerel (1977) suggested a systemic approach which recommends the use of more than one data collection methods for needs analysis like surveys, interviews and attitude scales. The learner is considered as the centre of attention whose present situations (Jordan, 1997) are thoroughly investigated and their emergent needs are also taken into consideration. This approach gave more importance to learners; their needs were approached by examining information before a course starts and during the course by the learners themselves (Jordan, 1997). The systemic approach filled the gap of the sociolinguistic model in terms of flexibility and shows a distinct concern for learners nevertheless the over-reliance on learners became a problem because many learners have no clear idea about their needs.

The systemic approach has given more consideration to learner than it should be and has neglected the learner's real-world needs. To solve this situation Jordan (1997) suggested that a combination between the sociolinguistic model and the systemic approach will be useful.

The learning centered approach was presented by Hutchinson & Waters (1987), in their approach Hutchinson & Waters focused on the way or how learners learn instead of focusing on language needs. They tackled learner needs from two ways: -the

target needs and learning needs. The target needs are grouped into three categories: necessities, lacks and wants. The learning needs represent different factors such as
socio-cultural background of learners, learning background, age, gender, background
knowledge of specialized contents, background knowledge of English, attitudes
towards English,

Learner-centered approaches were supported by Berwick (1989) and Brindley (1989). They consider learner's needs from different perspectives, this approach distinguishes between perceived vs. felt needs; product vs. process oriented interpretations; and objective vs. subjective needs. 'Perceived needs' are from the perspective of experts while 'felt needs' are from the perspective of learners (Berwick, 1989). In the product-oriented interpretation, learner needs are viewed as the language that learners require in target situations. In the process-oriented interpretation, the focus is on how individuals respond to their learning situation, involving affective and cognitive variables which affect learning (Brindley, 1989). Finally, objective needs are explored prior to a course, whereas subjective needs are addressed while the course is underway.

Brindley (1989), sees the objective needs from another view; they can be derived from various kinds of factual information about learners, their real-life language use situations, their current language proficiency and difficulties. Subjective needs can be derived from information concerning their affective and cognitive factors such as personality, confidence, attitudes, learning wants, learning expectations, cognitive style and learning strategies.

The last approach to needs analysis is suggested by Long (2005), in this approach he asks to take a task based approach not only to needs analysis but also with teaching and learning. He argues that the important point of teaching and learning is not structures or other linguistic elements (notions, functions, lexical items etc.). Long (2005:3) explains that the learners are active and cognitive-independent participants in the acquisition process in contrast with what we believed that what is though is what is learnt. In this approach, tasks are the units of analysis and "samples of the discourse typically involved in performance of target tasks are collected" (Long, 2005:3).

The concept of tasks is similar to that of communicative events as defined by Munby (1978). The difference is that what is highlighted in the task-based approach is the language variables rather than sociolinguistic variables.

1.2.3 Insights into Needs Analysis approaches:

Many scholars focused their efforts on showing and determining the importance of needs analysis through different approaches. These are not exclusive but rather complementary, because none of the approaches can be a reliable indicator of what is needed to improve. Only combining several of them can give us a better picture of our learners' needs. That is to say, the more detailed the NA is, the better the chances to make the right decisions are.

In literature it is agreed that the work of John Munby's *Communicative Syllabus Design* (1978) is considered as the most thorough and widely known work on needs analysis. To identify the target situation needs, Munby presented a highly detailed set of procedures and called it *Communication Needs Processor (CNP)*. Through which he could collect information about the key communication variables (topic, participants, medium etc.),

The Communication Needs Processor (CNP) consists of a range of questions that can be used to identify the target language needs of any group of learners. Munby's CNP was a reference for many researchers; based on CNP Chambers introduced the concept of Target Situation Analysis in 1980, after that several other terms have also been introduced like: Present Situation Analysis, Pedagogic Needs Analysis, Deficiency Analysis, Strategy or Learning Needs Analysis, Means Analysis, Register Analysis, Discourse Analysis, and Genre Analysis. These terms are presented in this section:

Target Situation Analysis (TSA)

The Target Situation Analysis (TSA) was first introduced by Chambers in 1980; it was based on Munby's Communicative Needs Processor (CNP) through which the target needs and target level of performance are established by investigating the target situation. It puts the learner's purposes in the central position within the framework of needs analysis.

The model of Munby's is constituted of the following elements:

- 1. **Participants**: information about the identity and language of the learners: age, sex, nationality, present command of target language, other languages known and extent of command;
- 2. **Communicative Needs Processor**: investigates the particular communication needs according to sociocultural and stylistic variables which interact to determine a profile of such needs;
- 3. **Profile of Needs**: is established through the processing of data in the CNP;
- 4. In the **Meaning Processor** "parts of the socioculturally determined profile of communication needs are converted into semantic subcategories of a predominantly pragmatic kind, and marked with attitudinal tone" (Munby, 1978: 42);
- 5. **The Language Skills Selector**: identifies "the specific language skills that are required to realize the events or activities that have been identified in the CNP" (Munby, 1978: 40);
- 6. **The Linguistic Encoder**: considers "the dimension of contextual appropriacy" (Munby, 1978: 49), one the encoding stage has been reached
- 7. **The Communicative Competence Specification**: indicates the target communicative competence of the participant and is the translated profile of needs.

Among the above mentioned elements of Munby's model, the Communication Needs Processor (CNP) was broadly used and referred to by researchers which constitutes the basis of Munby's approach to needs analysis. It establishes the profile of needs through the processing of eight parameters, it presents a detailed description of particular communication needs (Munby, 1978), they are:

• **Purposive domain**: this category establishes the type of ESP, and then the purpose which the target language will be used for at the end of the course.

- **Setting**: the physical setting specifying the spatial and temporal aspects of the situation where English will be used, and the psychological setting specifying the different environment in which English will be used.
- **Interaction**: identifies the learner's interlocutors and predicts relationship between them.
- **Instrumentality**: specifies the medium, i.e., whether the language to be used is written, spoken, or both; mode, i.e., whether the language to be used is in the form of monologue, dialogue or any other; and channel of communication, i.e., whether it is face to face, radio, or any other.
- **Dialect**: dialects learners will have to understand or produce in terms of their spatial, temporal, or social aspect.
- Communicative event: states what the participants will have to do productively or receptively.
- Communicative key: the manner in which the participants will have to do the activities comprising an event, e.g. politely or impolitely.
- **Target level**: level of linguistic proficiency at the end of the ESP course which might be different for different skills.

The Munbian model of the target situation Analysis inspired many researchers which consists of a list of questions the analyst should find answers to. These questions are presented in the below table as follows:

TARGET SITUATION ANALYSIS

Why is the language needed?

- for study;
- for work;
- for training;
- for a combination of these;
- for some other purpose, e.g. status, examination, promotion.

How will the language be used?

- medium: *speaking*, *writing*, *reading etc.*;
- channel: e.g. 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: e.g. expert, layman, student;
- relationship: e.g. colleague, teacher, customer, superior, subordinate.

Where will the language be used?

- physical setting: e.g. office, lecture theatre, 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

Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) explained that the Munby's model doesn't show how to prioritize the above mentioned questions; Whereas West (1994) stressed its complexity and being inflexible and time-consuming. He also added that it is learner centered but the model collects data *about* the learner rather than *from* the learner, in addition to the fact that it failed to provide a procedure for converting the learner profile into a language syllabus.

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) agree that it is too time consuming to write a target profile for each student based on Munby's model; moreover, it does not take into account of the learning needs nor it makes a distinction between necessities, wants, and lacks.

Present Situation Analysis (PSA)

Present situation analysis is considered as the starting point to be defined through PSA. Robinson (1991) and Jordan (1997) explain that the present situation analysis attempts to identify what the learners are like at the beginning of the language course. Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) clarify the PSA importance by showing the strengths and weaknesses in language, skills and learning experiences.

Richterich and Chancerel (1980) are the first who suggested the term PSA (Present Situation Analysis); Jordan (1997) argues that the PSA can be carried out by means of placement tests. In this approach the sources of information are the students themselves, the teaching establishment, and the user-institution, e.g. place of work.

Within the field of needs analysis we cannot rely on one approach only, as shown earlier that each approach has shortcomings. Considering TSA only or PSA won't be a reliable indicator. Therefore, other approaches to needs analysis have been suggested like *Pedagogic Needs Analysis*.

Pedagogic Needs Analysis

This term was introduced by West (1998), He clarifies that the suggested term "pedagogic needs analysis" completes the deficiencies of target needs analysis by collecting data about the learner and the learning environment. The pedagogic needs

analysis includes: - deficiency analysis, - strategy analysis or learning needs analysis, and - means analysis. These are explained below:

Deficiency Analysis

The *lacks* which were introduces by Hutchinson and Waters (1987) can be associated with Deficiency analysis. Jordan (1997) shows that deficiency analysis is the road to cover from point A (present situation) to point B (target situation), it can form the basis of the language syllabus because it should provide data about both the gap between present and target extra linguistic knowledge, mastery of general English, language skills, and learning strategies

Strategy Analysis or Learning Needs Analysis

This approach to needs analysis deals with the strategies that learners employ in order to learn a language. West (1998) shows that in the Strategy Analysis or Learning Needs Analysis the focus is on how the learners wish to learn rather than what they need to learn, this fact is relatively new since none of the aforementioned approaches take that into account. All the above-mentioned approaches to needs analysis, TSA, PSA, and to some extent deficiency analysis, have not been concerned with the learners' views of learning.

This claim is supported later by Hutchinson and Waters (1987), who adopted a learning-centered approach in which learners' learning needs play a vital role, it suggests what the learner needs to do in order to learn (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987). Hutchinson and Waters' (1987) suggest a framework for analyzing learning needs which consists of several questions, each divided into more detailed questions as follow:

- 1. Why are the learners taking the course?
- Compulsory or optional;
- apparent need or not;
- Are status, money, promotion involved?
- What do learners think they will achieve?

- What is their attitude towards the ESP course? Do they want to improve their English or do they resent the time they have to spend on it?
- 2. **How** do the learners learn?
- What is their learning background?
- What is their concept of teaching and learning?
- What methodology will appeal to them?
- What sort of techniques bore/alienate them?
- 3. What sources are available?
- number and professional competence of teachers;
- attitude of teachers to ESP;
- teachers' knowledge of and attitude to subject content;
- materials;
- aids;
- opportunities for out-of-class activities.
- 4. **Who** are the learners?
- age/sex/nationality;
- What do they know already about English?
- What subject knowledge do they have?
- What are their interests?
- What is their socio-cultural background?
- What teaching styles are they used to?
- •What is their attitude to English or to the cultures of the English speaking world?

This approach to needs analysis as suggested by Allwright (1982) quoted in West (1994) gives us a clear idea about the learners' conception of learning.

Means Analysis

Means analysis deals with logistics and pedagogy; the aspects that were forgotten by Munby's model (West, 1998). Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) clarify that means analysis provides us with "information about the environment in which the course will be run" (1998: 125).

The main concern of means analysis as explained by Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) is cultural environment in which the course will be imposed; they believe that what works well in one situation may not work in another. Jordan (1997) agrees with this claim and says means analysis should provide us with a tool for designing an environmentally sensitive course. In the same context Swales (1989, quoted in West, 1994) explains that if we want the course to be successful, curriculum specialists should consider five factors which relate to the learning environment. These considerations are:

- classroom culture
- EAP staff
- pilot target situation analysis
- status of service operations
- study of change agents

Register, Discourse, and Genre Analysis

Register analysis

Register analysis or as Swales (1988) also called it "lexicostatistics" and Robinson (1991) named it "frequency analysis" is considered among the earliest studies carried out in this area focused on vocabulary and grammar (the elements of sentence). This stage took place mainly in the 1960s and early 1970s and was associated with the work of Peter Strevens, Jack Ewer, and John Swales. The main motive behind register analysis was the pedagogic one of making the ESP course more relevant to learners' needs (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987). Register analysis, also focused on the grammar and "structural and nonstructural" vocabulary (Ewer and Latorre, 1967: 223, quoted in West, 1998). The assumption behind register analysis

was that, while the grammar of scientific and technical writing does not differ from that of general English, certain grammatical and lexical forms are used much more frequently (Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998).

Register analysis received many critics for being restricted in the analysis to the word and sentence level (West, 1998), Robinson (1991) considers it as being only descriptive and not explanatory, in addition to the lack of authenticity as Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) showed.

Discourse Analysis

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) explain that in this approach the attention shifted from word and sentence level to the level above the sentence to find out how sentences were combined into discourse. West (1998) clarifies that the reaction against register analysis in the early 1970s concentrated on the communicative values of discourse rather than the lexical and grammatical properties of register, this approach tended to concentrate on how sentences are used in the performance of acts of communication and to generate materials based on functions.

Discourse analysis was not without critics, according to West (1998) it provided partial treatment and offering limited guidance on how functions and sentences/utterances fit together to form a text. Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) claims that there is also the danger that the findings of discourse analysis, which are concerned with texts and how they work as pieces of discourse, fail to take sufficient account of the academic or business context in which communication takes place.

Genre Analysis

Genre was first introduced by Swales (1981, quoted in Robinson, 1991), he considers genre as: "a more or less standardized communicative event with a goal or set of goals mutually understood by the participants in that event and occurring within a functional rather than a personal or social setting" (Swales, 1981: 10-11, quoted in Robinson, 1991). Bhatia (undated) recognizes 'genre analysis' as the study of linguistic behavior in institutionalized academic or professional setting, Bhatia distinguishes four, though systematically related, areas of competence that an ESP

learner needs to develop so as to get over his/her lack of confidence in dealing with specialist discourse. These four areas are:

- 1. **Knowledge of the Code** which is the pre-requisite for developing communicative expertise in specialist or even everyday discourse.
- 2. **Acquisition of Genre Knowledge** which is the familiarity with and awareness of appropriate rhetorical procedures and conventions typically associated with the specialist discourse community.
- 3. **Sensitivity to Cognitive Structures**, that is, since certain lexical items have specialist meanings in specific professional genres, a number of syntactic forms may also carry genre specific restricted values in addition to their general meanings codified in grammar books. Thus, it is imperative that the specialist learner become aware of restricted aspects of linguistic code in addition to the general competence he or she requires in the language.
- 4. **Exploitation of Generic Knowledge**, that is, it is only after learners have developed some acquaintance or, better yet, expertise at levels discussed above, that they can confidently interpret, use or even take liberties with specialist discourse.

Conducting a needs analysis process in ESP is very important in meeting the learners' specific needs. It provides the researchers and course designers with the needed and exact information required in designing any syllabus, therefore make the ESP training successful through satisfying the learners' needs that is the ultimate goal of any ESP course. Yet we cannot select one only to be applied in the learning process but they are complementary and that each of them provides a piece to complete the jigsaw of needs analysis.

1.3. Syllabus Design:

1.3.1 Difference Between Curriculum and Syllabus:

It would be appropriate to clarify the difference between the terms "curriculum and syllabus" before dealing with ESP course design, since many people get confused when dealing with them. There are many definitions of the terms "curriculum" and "syllabus" in literature. In fact, the Curriculum is considered as being a wider term as compared with syllabus. Curriculum covers all the activities and the arrangement made by institution throughout the academic year to facilitate the learners and the instructors, whereas syllabus is limited to a particular subject to a particular class. The view points about the difference existing between the two terms varied in literature.

Allen (1984, in Nunan 1988: 6) defines curriculum as "a very general concept which involves consideration of the whole complex of philosophical, social and administrative factors which contribute to the planning of an educational program". Graves (1996) represents the 'curriculum' as a broad statement of the philosophy, purposes, design, and implementation of the entire language teaching program.

In the same line of thought Dubin and Olshtain (1991: 34-35) explain that "a curriculum contains a broad description of general goals by indicating an overall educational cultural philosophy which applies across subjects together with a theoretical orientation to language and language learning with respect to the subject matter at hand". However, James Popham and Baker (1970: 48) note that curriculum is all planned learning outcomes for which the school is responsible. Curriculum refers to the desired consequences of instruction.

In the other hand, the syllabus according to Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 80) is a document which says what will (or at least what should) be learnt. For Robinson (1991: 34) the syllabus is "a plan of work and is thus essentially for the teacher, as a guideline and context of class content".

According to Basturkmen (2006:21) syllabuses can be 'synthetic' in which the "language is segmented into discrete linguistic items for presentation one at a time". Or it may be 'analytic' wherein "language is presented whole chunks at a time without linguistic control".

Syllabuses according to Long and Crookes (1993) are classified into two main categories: synthetic or analytic, the following figure shows that clearly:

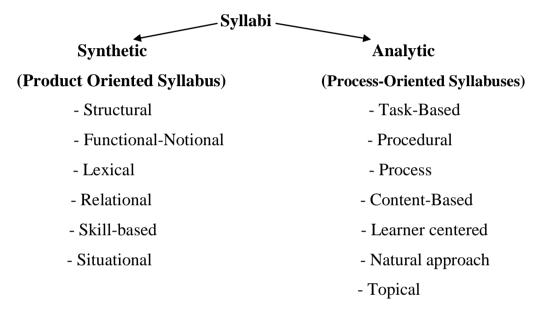


Figure (06): Classification of Syllabi (Long & Crookes, 1993)

In differentiating the "curriculum" from "syllabus", Richards (2001: 2) shows that difference between the curriculum and the syllabus in terms of scope, he considers the curriculum as the bigger picture which can incorporate three steps: (1) course planning, (2) materials/methods, and (3) course evaluation; he presents the syllabus as "a specification of the content of a course instruction (which) lists what will be taught and tested" (Richards, 2001: 2).

Richards & Rodgers (1986, cited in Davies, 2007: 89) show that the Curriculum may encompass syllabus. Johnson (1989: 33) considers the curriculum all the relevant decision-making processes of all the participants, whereas the syllabus is its results.

The difference existing between the terms "syllabus and curriculum" is shown by Robertson, quoted by Yalden (1983: 18):

"... the curriculum includes the goals, objectives, content, processes, and means of evaluation of all the learning experiences planned for pupils both in and of the school and community through classroom instruction and related program ... the syllabus should be viewed in the context of an ongoing curriculum development process" (p18)

Dubin and Olshtain (1991: 35) showed the difference the two concepts by saying that "a single curriculum can be the basis for developing a variety of specific syllabuses which are concerned with locally defined audiences, particular needs, and intermediate objectives".

Nunan (1988: 8) clarified that "curriculum is concerned with the planning, implementation, evaluation, management and administration of education programs, whereas syllabus focuses more narrowly on the selection and grading of content."

To conclude we can say as Graves (1996: 3) mentioned that syllabus design is part of course development and a course is part of a curriculum. The following table clarifies the difference existing between the two terms:

Table (01): The Difference Between Curriculum and Syllabus

Curriculum	Syllabus
Curriculum is a complete teaching process.	Syllabus is a part of curriculum, acts as a
	guide for teachers and learners by providing
	goals to be attained.
Curriculum is a wider aspect	
	Syllabus is a theoretical aspect.
Educationists prepare curriculum	
	Teachers prepare syllabus.
Curriculum is related to balances and	
harmonious development of the child.	Syllabus is related to cognitive aspect.
Curriculum is related to cognitive, conative	Syllabus is related to content.
and affective level.	

1.3.2 Approaches to Syllabus Design:

There are diverse norms to classify the different types of approaches available to syllabus designers; according Long & Crookes (1993) syllabi can be whether synthetic i.e. product oriented or analytic meant to be process oriented. The following diagram shows the different syllabi suggested:

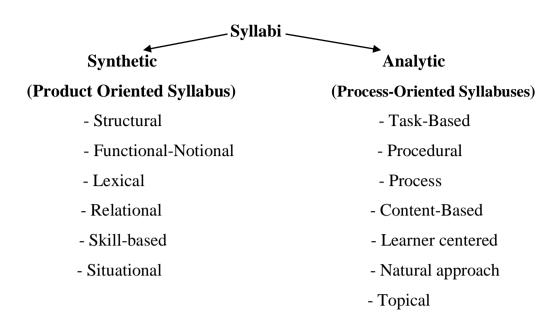


Figure 2.3: Classification of Syllabi (Long & Crookes, 1993)

1.3.2.1 Product Oriented Syllabus

Also known as the synthetic approach, these kinds of syllabuses emphasize the product of language learning and are prone to intervention from an authority.

The Structural approach:

In this approach the learner is expected to master each structural step and add it to his/her grammar collection. As such the focus is on the outcomes or the product. This approach is considered as the most prevalent of syllabus type is based on the complexity and simplicity of grammatical items.

This approach was criticized for being week in connecting the structural items. In addition to this, it focuses on only one aspect of language, namely grammar, neglecting therefore other aspects to language.

The Situational Approach:

As a response to the limitations of the structural approach, the situational approach came as an alternative one where the point of departure became situational needs rather than grammatical units; Which uses a list of situations which reflects the way language and behavior are used outside the classroom. Thus, by linking structural theory to situations the learner is able to induce the meaning from a relevant context.

It was admitted that the situational approach heightened motivation since it is "learner- rather than subject-centered" (Wilkins.1976: 16). However, some learners' needs are not satisfied through the situations in the syllabus.

The Notional/Functional Approach:

The above mentioned approach could not dissatisfy some learners in meeting their needs, Wilkins (1976) criticized both structural and situational approaches for being only concerned in answering the 'how' or 'when' and 'where' of language (Brumfit and Johnson. 1979:84), as an alternative he suggested to communicate through language. As a result, the starting point for a syllabus is the communicative purpose and conceptual meaning of language i.e. notions and functions, as opposed to grammatical items and situational elements which remain but are relegated to a subsidiary role.

As an ultimate goal to meet the learners' needs, needs analysis was association with notional-functional syllabuses. The needs of the learners will have to be analyzed by the various types of communication in which the learner has to confront. However, the product-oriented category of syllabuses is meant to the step-by-step procedure the alternative path to curriculum design would be to adopt process oriented principles, which assume that language can be learnt experientially as opposed of the synthetic approach.

1.3.2.2 Process Oriented Syllabuses:

The orientation to the Process-Oriented Syllabuses, or the analytical approach, was the result of the product-oriented courses' shortcomings in enhancing communicative language skills which is considered as a process rather than a product and focuses not on what the student will have accomplished on completion of the program, but on the specification of learning tasks and activities that s/he will undertake during the course.

Procedural/task-based Approaches:

The task-based approach emphasizes that the best way to learn will be through practice and interaction, and the use of tasks and activities to encourage learners to use the language communicatively in order to achieve a purpose. Tasks must be relevant to the real world language needs of the student, which suggests the underlying learning theory of task based and communicative language teaching seems to suggest that activities in which language is employed to complete meaningful tasks, enhances learning.

Learner-Led Syllabuses:

The learner-led syllabuses focuses on how learners learn, this approach is suggested by Breen and Candlin (1984) which emphasizes the learners, being fully aware of the course they are studying; their interest and motivation will accordingly increase, joined with the positive effect of fostering the skills required to learn. As other approaches the learner-led approach was criticized for its radical purpose and it will be too much expecting from the learner to take responsibility of his/her learning. This gave birth of a new approach; which is the proportional approach as propounded by Yalden (1987).

The Proportional Approach:

The proportional syllabus departure point is based on "overall competence" (Op.Cit.:97), this means that a theme is designated by the learners having central value which will be oriented towards interactional components; the syllabus is designed to be dynamic, not static, with ample opportunity for feedback and flexibility (ibid:100). This claim agrees with Yalden (ibid:87) when dealing with the importance of a syllabus to indicate explicitly of what will be taught "not what will be learned". This practical approach with its focus on flexibility and spiral method of language can't identify the salient features of the approaches above mentioned.

To conclude, one can say that the adoption of one approach or another depends on different aspect, like giving answers to the following questions: Do you want a product or process oriented syllabus? Will the course be teacher or learner led? What are the goals of the program and the needs of your students? In addition to the choice of materials to be used when considering syllabus design. White (1988:92) views that 'a complete syllabus specification will include all five aspects: structure, function, situation, topic, skills. The difference between syllabuses will lie in the priority given to each of these aspects'.

1.3. 2. ESP Syllabus Design:

Robinson (1991) says that syllabus design refers to the process of planning and structuring a course to achieve the desired goals. According to her there are a number of elements involved in creating a course: the results of the needs analysis, the course designer's approach to syllabuses and methodologies and existing materials.

For Hutchinson and Water (1987: 65) it is considered as "an integrated series of teaching-learning experiences, whose ultimate aim is to lead the learners to a particular state of knowledge".

Richards (2001) regards syllabus design as a systematic data collection process in which tasks and activities are developed, and data is collected to prepare effective tasks and activities and to create the best possible setting for ESP learners to meet their goals.

Munby (1978: 2) argues that ESP courses are: those where the syllabus and the materials are determined by the prior analysis of the communication needs of the learner. This suggests that the basis of the syllabus design is needs analysis which was dealt with in the previous section.

Therefore, needs analysis is the step that precedes the course development, which is followed by:

- Syllabus design
- Materials choice
- Methodology
- Assessment and evaluation

As already explained in the previous section about needs analysis, Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) assume that these aspects do not work in a linear direction but they are interrelated.

1.4. Evaluation and ESP Program Evaluation:

Before discussing Program Evaluation, the researcher examines Evaluation in general first to make distinction between the two concepts since behind every successful ESP Program is evaluation; Evaluation is a whole process which begins with determining what information to gather and ends with bringing about change in current activities or influencing future ones.

1.4.1 Evaluation:

Evaluation as defined in Longman, Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics is: 'a systematic gathering of information for purposes of decision making. Evaluation may use quantitative methods (tests), qualitative methods (observation, rating) and value judgment' (Longman, Dictionary: 188). However, the definitions about evaluation varied in literature, Kirkpatrick (1996) defined evaluation as a determination of the effectiveness of a training program; gathering information about it, and to assess the value of the training in the light of that information.

Williams (1976) identifies evaluation as the assessment of value or worth; whereas Harper and Bell (1982) refer evaluation to the planned collection and analysis of information to enable judgments about value and worth. According to Van Dyk et al. (1997), the definition of Evaluation implies different aspects:

- Evaluation is an ongoing process. It is not done at the end of course only.
- The evaluation process is directed towards a specific goal and objectives.
- Evaluation requires the use of accurate and appropriate measuring instruments to collect information for decision making.
- Evaluation is a form of quality control.
- Evaluation is not only concerned with the evaluation of students but with the wider training system as a whole.

For Beretta (1992: 276) evaluation has different goals, they are as follows:

- To decide whether a program has had the intended effect,
- To identify what effect a program has had,
- To justify future courses of action,
- To identify areas for improvement in an ongoing program

In the same perspective, Bramley and Newby (1984) identify five main purposes of evaluation:

- feedback (linking learning outcomes to objectives, and providing a form of quality control),
- control (using evaluation to make links from Training to organizational activities, and to consider cost effectiveness),
- research (determining relationships between learning, training, transfer to the job),
- intervention (in which the results of the evaluation influence the context in which it is occurring),
- and power games (manipulating evaluative data for organizational politics).

1.4.2 ESP Program Evaluation:

Program Evaluation is defined as an evaluation related to decisions about the quality of the program itself and decisions about individuals in the programs. The evaluation of programs may involve the study of curriculum, objectives, materials and tests or grading systems. (Longman, Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics: 188).

Another definition suggested by Robinson (2003), through which she defines program evaluation as forming judgment about the value of a particular program through the collection, analyses, and interpretation of information. According to her the purpose of such evaluation is to provide information on 'perceptions of a program's value', examining the extent of the objectives met, and giving suggestions

to the people concerned about necessary changes for improving the program (Robinson, 2003: 199).

The researchers' views about program evaluation varied in literature, for instance Marsden (1991) sees that there are some rationales for evaluating programs e.g.: to validate needs assessment and methods, to revise solution options, to revise training strategies, establishing trainee-trainer reaction, assessing trainees' knowledge acquisition as well as trainers', and deciding whether or not the goals of the program have been achieved.

Another view is presented by Bartolome (1994), who suggested that training programs should be evaluated in terms of EFL teachers' performance and how well these programs can prepare teachers to perform in the socio-cultural context. Rea-Dickins and Germaine (1998) emphasized systematic evaluation that should be at the heart of any program. As for Brown (1995), he points out that the purpose of program evaluation is to determine whether the objectives have been achieved and whether the goals have been meet.

According to Alderson (1992), there is no agreement about the best way to conduct an evaluation; this claim is supported by Turner (1999) who argues that there are some aspects that determine program evaluation such as the purpose of evaluation, the nature of the program, time frame and resources available for the target program.

Some researchers highlight that program evaluation has received less attention like Hutchinson and Waters (1987) and Mc Ginley (1984). Swan (1986) mentioned that the reasons behind that are due to the short duration of ESP course and difficulties in implementing the time consuming program evaluation processes.

From the literature reviewed and despite the importance of program evaluation which is considered as an audit phase to examine the success and the failure of the program, it also measures whether the goals of an ESP program have been met and ensures the program's continuous improvement; we have noticed that a great importance is directed towards needs analysis;. In the next section we'll examine different frameworks of some scholars of ESP.

1.4.3 ESP Program Evaluation Framework:

a) Hutchinson & Water's (1987) Framework

Among the works that contributed in establishing a framework of an ESP program evaluation are Hutchinson and Waters (1987). They introduced two levels of evaluation 1- course evaluation and 2- learner assessment (1987: 144).

Course evaluation highlights the data collected in order to understand how the learning need is addressed and served. According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987) evaluation is classified into four aspects as follow:

- 1. What should be evaluated?
- 2. How can ESP courses be evaluated?
- 3. Who should be involved in the evaluation?
- 4. When (and how often) should evaluation take place?

The table bellow provides more explanation

Table (02): Framework of ESP Evaluation by Hutchinson and Waters

Aspects of Evaluation	Explanation/ questions
1. What should be evaluated?	The overall aim of the ESP course in
	meeting two main
	needs of learners:
	a) Their needs as language learners
	b) Their needs as language users
2. How can ESP courses be evaluated?	Evaluation can be done in some ways
	such as:
	a) Test results
	b) Questionnaires
	c) Discussion
	d) Interviews
	e) Informal means (unsolicited comments,
	casual
	chats etc.)

3. Who should	l be	involved	in	the	ESP teaching institution
evaluation?				ESP teachers	
					Learners
					sponsors
4. When (and	l hov	v often)	sh	ould	In the first week of the course
evaluation					At regular intervals throughout the course,
take place?					for example
					every half term.
					At the end of the course.
					After the course.

Concerning learner assessment, Hutchinson and Waters (1987) suggested that basic test types conducted for the learner, such as placement tests, achievement tests, and proficiency tests.

- a. Placement tests. Determine whether learners need the course and, if so, what the learning needs are, placement tests can ensure that instructors do not have to teach classes of mixed abilities and that students learn with those of similar proficiency levels.
- b. Proficiency tests. Hutchinson & Waters (1987) argue that proficiency tests due to their standardized nature; they are often used by program sponsors as an independent measure to gauge students' progress and to measure the effectiveness of program implementation.
- c. Achievement (authentic) assessment. Hutchinson & Waters' (1987) identify achievement tests as an important assessment tool, the proficiency tests evaluate students' current capability, however, the achievement tests measure whether students have learned the skills to meet a given standard.

b) Kawpet (2008) Framework:

This framework for ESP program evaluation uses six criteria to analyze learner needs:

- 1) giving priority to communication needs,
- 2) giving equal importance to learning needs,
- 3) taking 'context' into account,
- 4) inviting multiple perspectives,
- 5) employing multiple data collection methods,
- 6) treating need analysis as ongoing activity.

The following figure explains how Kawpet's framework works:

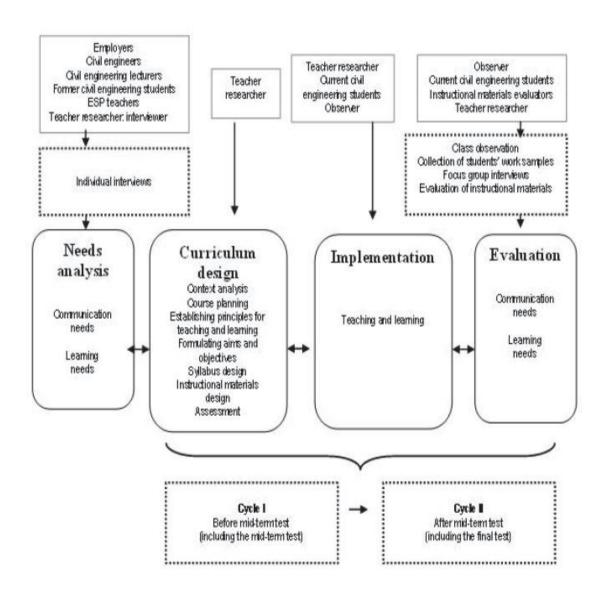


Figure (07): Framework of ESP Program Evaluation (Kawpet, 2009:216)

This framework considers the different parties involved in the ESP context (stakeholders). These stakeholders are asked to express their needs through individual interviews; those needs are collected from employers, lecturers, former students, researcher and the current students and then are formulated into the curriculum (syllabus and materials).

The next step in this framework and after the implementation of the formulated curriculum is the observation of the process of teaching and learning which is done periodically. The last stage will be the reevaluation of the needs already assessed in the initial stage. Different tools of evaluation are used such as observation, collection of students' work samples, focus group interviews, evaluation of instructional materials.

c) Other Frameworks for ESP program evaluation

Watanabe, Norris, and Gonzales-Lloret's (2009) applied participatory model, professional accountability, and teacher empowerment. In their framework they involve stakeholders' need analysis such as: policy makers, program designers, community members (the public and the parents), sponsors, instructors, and students.

Another framework is introduced by Tsou and Chen (2014) in the field of ESP program evaluation, which aimed at completing the missing aspects about the previous frameworks like: authenticity, learner autonomy, and learning transfer. In fact this framework takes into account the course evaluation and the learners' assessment as mentioned in Hutchinson and Water's (1987) in addition to teacher participation and empowerment which was introduced by Watanabe, Norris & Gonzalez-Lloret (2009)'s framework. The following figure illustrates this new framework:

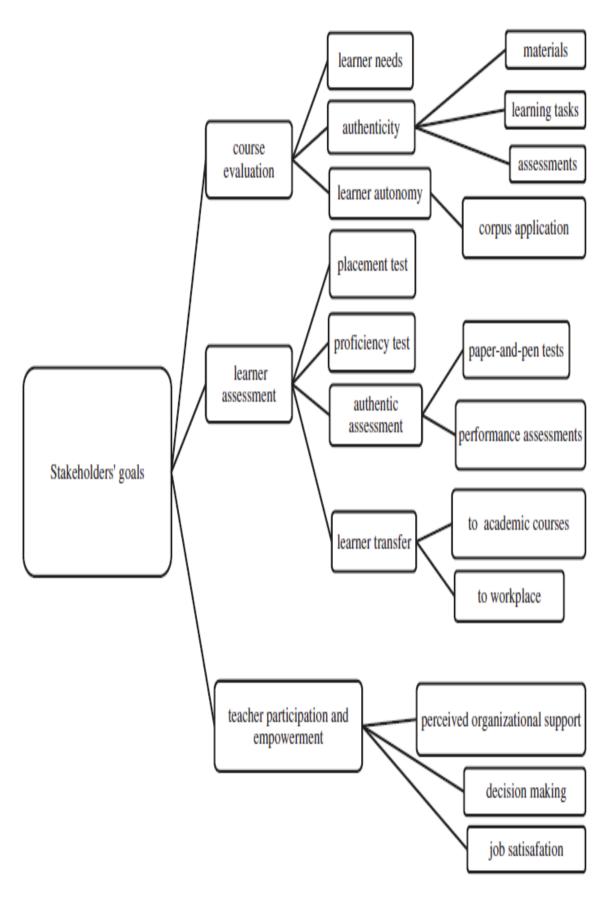


Figure (08): The Updated Framework for ESP Program Evaluation by Tsou and Chen (2014)

From the scheme we can understand the following:

a. **Stakeholder analysis:** in this stage we analyze the stakeholders' needs, which could be students, the English teachers, curriculum developers, senior management of the faculties or sponsors. The collection of the data is done through the questionnaire and interview.

The goal of the evaluation is to decide the value and effectiveness of the program and to locate any changes that can be done in curriculum design.

- b. Course evaluation: it is conducted as an attempt to answer three questions:
 - have the learners' needs are fulfilled?,
 - are the materials authentic?,
 - has the course fostered the learners' autonomy.

This is conducted by perception survey and achievement survey (for students), and the teacher questionnaire.

- c. **Learner assessment** covers similar aspects as Hutchinson and Water (1987) propose, namely:
 - placement test, proficiency test,
 - achievement test,
 - and learning transfer.

The achievement assessment is evaluated its authenticity in a way that authentic materials and actual target situations of tasks are met. Authentic tasks, such as giving business presentation or making a short news video are some of examples of authentic assessment. Meanwhile, learning transfer deals with the application of knowledge in the specific context (such as in classroom context during the learning) and a wider context (at the workplace). To meet these criteria, achievement survey, standardized test (such as: TOEFL or TOEIC), and teacher questionnaire are used.

d. **Teacher participations** can be conducted in three perspectives: perceived organizational support, decision making, and job satisfaction (Scherie, 2002). In this criterion, teachers are asked their awareness of the organizational aims, organizational support, and organizational decision/ rules regarding their aims. These criteria can be evaluated through teacher surveys and interviews.

1.5. EFL Teachers Vs ESP Practitioners:

The role of teachers in education is undisputable; their performance in the classroom plays a key role in improving the quality of education of any nation, their impact lasts for generations. Aggarwal (as cited in Afolabi et al., 2008) said that "the destiny of a nation is shaped in its classroom and it is the teacher who is very important in molding that destiny." (p. 99).

The research in the field of education stresses the role of the teacher for being very crucial for the acquisition; Shulman, (1987) considers the role of the teacher as the most significant factor in the achievement of the desired outcomes, whereas McGetrrick (1997) shows the essential role of teachers in education by attributing the quality of education to the quality of teachers in the schools.

However, the role of the ESP teacher differs from that of the General English teacher. Swales (1985) selected the term ESP practitioners instead of ESP teachers to reflect this specific scope. Several researchers regard ESP teaching as extremely varied, and for this reason they use the term practitioners rather than teachers (as used in general English teaching).

Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) also used the term practitioner to emphasize that the role of the ESP teacher involves much more than teaching, in an ESP context the teacher plays several roles. In this section we will try to contrast the EFL teacher to the of ESP practitioner to show the difference between them.

1.5.1The EFL Teachers:

The qualities of the EFL teachers have a direct impact on the learners' acquisition; their abilities and experiences can make changes in the classroom and consequently improve the educational environment. These abilities can be seen from different perspectives; Strong et al (2004) explain that teachers are expected to acquire high qualities as professionals as well as human beings due to the roles and responsibilities which are associated with teaching. Rajput (2000) illustrates by the fact that teachers must acquire knowledge of curriculum, the learners' characteristics,

learning resources, and at the same time they must be good communicators in the subject area as well as of all the changes around.

A good selection of competent teachers can improve the teaching practices through identifying specific qualities and features of the effective teachers (Adval as cited in Panda and Mohanty, 2003). These qualities and skills can be demonstrated by the effective teachers themselves (Levine, 1971; Prodromou, 1991). Enthusiasm for the subject matter, good organization, effective communication, positive attitudes toward students, fairness in evaluation and grading and flexibility in approaches to teaching are some characteristics proposed by Wotruba and Wright (1975).

While Rosenshine and Furst (1971) introduced a range of qualities of effective teaching like: clarity, variability, enthusiasm, task-oriented and businesslike behavior, opportunity to learn criterion material, use of learner ideas and general in directedness, criticism, use of structuring comments, types of questions, probing, and level of difficulty of instruction. The National Commission on Teaching and America's Future (NCTAF) (2003) in emphasized the need for a high quality teacher in every classroom. It identified list of characteristics of highly qualified teachers based on research studies. This list includes:

- deep knowledge of the subjects they teach;
- evidence of a sound understanding of how students learn;
- application of teaching skills necessary to help all students achieve high standards;
- ability to create a positive learning environment;
- use of a variety of assessment strategies to diagnose and respond to individual learning needs;
- demonstration and integration of modern technology into the school curriculum to support student learning;
- collaboration with colleagues, parents and community members, and other educators to improve student learning;

- reflection on practice to improve teaching and student achievement;
- pursuit of professional growth in content and pedagogy; and
- instilling in students a passion for learning. (p. 5)

The view point of learners can reveal a lot about the qualities of teachers. Prodromou (1991) presented two long lists of the qualities of both the good and bad language teacher after a study conducted to know how learners see their teachers:

The good language teacher:

- Friendly
- Explained things
- Gave good notes
- Knew how to treat someone who sets at the desk for six hours
- Let the students do it by themselves
- Group work
- We did the lesson together
- Took out (elicited) things we know
- Talked about life
- Talked about problems of the school
- Talked about other subjects
- Played games
- Told jokes
- She was one of us
- Didn't push weak learners
- Asked students' opinions, there was a dialogue
- She was like an actress, pretended a lot
- She was forceful but not strict
- She was educated
- She knew psychology
- Used movements to make meaning clear
- She made sure everyone understood

- *She was funny*
- Read in tone that made meaning clear
- She got close to students
- She believed in me, made me believe in myself
- I wanted him to be proud of me
- He had a personality of his own
- Was very experienced
- She made grammar clear
- They tried to communicate
- She gave advice
- He talked about personal problems
- She gave me a lot of books to read
- She used questions a lot
- She asked all students questions
- Social work it was their job
- We cut up animals (=did experiments, practical work)
- Talked about the lesson
- *She knew mathematics (i.e. subject matter)*
- She was more like a comedian

The bad language teacher:

- Very strict
- Did not let us speak
- Gave us a text to learn and checked it
- Gave marks all the time
- She was fixed in a chair
- Always above our heads (dominates)
- Shouted (for no reason)

- Gave a lot of tests
- Forced us to do things
- Didn't discuss other problems
- Started the lesson immediately
- Didn't smile
- She stared at you and you couldn't say a word
- His tests were too difficult
- We were not prepared for the test
- He just showed us a grammar rule and we forgot it
- Shouted when we made mistakes
- *Very nervous* (=bad tempered)
- Talked and talked
- She spoke flat
- She just said the lesson and nothing else
- There was a distance from us
- We didn't do experiments
- Believed students all knew the same things
- Like a machine
- *Not prepared*
- Treated kids like objects
- She was rigid
- Sarcastic and ironic
- Only lessons- didn't discuss anything else
- Avoided answering question
- You couldn't laugh, you couldn't speak
- He was the teacher, I was the student
- He had blacklist and said 'you, you, you'
- She had a little book with the marks in

- No communication, nothing
- She made me feel anxious
- *She said we weren't well prepared.* (pp: 19-21)

After demonstrating the qualities of EFL teacher, we can say that the characteristics and qualities of the EFL teachers affect to a great extent the efficiency of language learning and teaching. Accordingly Qin (2006) suggested a number of procedures which he considers pressing for teachers to acquire the basic components of the quality of EFL teachers. These procedures are:

- tutorial explanations, reading or attending lectures related to EFL teaching;
- the observation of specially-devised demonstrations, both of specific techniques and of complete lessons;
- the observation of actual classes;
- practice in the preparation of lesson plans;
- micro-teaching: the teaching of specific items or techniques, possibly with the use of some teaching aids;
- peer -group teaching as a form of practice;
- Teaching real classes under supervision;
- post-class discussion of one's teaching;
- long-term attachment to an experienced teacher;
- in-service training courses of various kinds. (pp: 19-21)

1.5.2 The ESP Practitioners

In the field of ESP teaching, teachers find difficulty to cope with the learners' field of study. They have been trained as general English teachers but they find themselves in a situation where they need to use special English that they are unfamiliar with; this

represents a very uncomfortable state. Strevens (1988) and Ellis & Johnson (1994) explain that ESP teachers are primarily the teachers of General English and when transferring from General English to ESP teaching, they might have encountered several difficulties.

One of these difficulties according to Strevens (1988) and Robinson (1991) is a difference of attitude difficulty, between literature and science in particular. It is recognized that English teachers are arts or humanities trained and they usually psychologically reject science. Strevens (1988) mentioned that another difficulty lies in the gap between the learners' knowledge of the special subject and the teachers' unfamiliarity with it.

Robinson (1991) clarifies that there are two situations; when the English teachers is a native speakers, in this case his/her training is more likely to be in literature than in language. But when the English teachers are non-native speaking teachers of English, they may not have confidence in their language competence. In addition, language teachers fear that they may not be able to cope with students' area of specialism.

Another view about the ESP teachers is presented by Hutchinson & Waters (1987), they show the difference between the ESP teacher and the General English teacher in relation to their roles. They explain that ESP teachers have to manage the needs analysis, syllabus design, materials writing, adaptation and evaluation, in addition to the normal jobs of a classroom teacher.

They add that even if most ESP teachers originate from General English teaching and lack of training for a "specific/special purpose". Yet, they do not need to learn specialist subject knowledge, but rather be interested in the subject matter. This claim is supported by Ellis & Johnson (1994) who explain that the students are pre-experienced in their field; it is not the language teachers' responsibility to teach subject matter.

To remedy to this situation to becoming familiar with subject matter, Strevens (1988) suggested three techniques for ESP teachers.

- Become familiar with ESP course materials.
- Become familiar with the language of the subject.
- Allow students to put you right.

Robinson (1991) also recommended the possible solutions such as:

- Developing professional competence, which involves specialising in a particular discipline, or undergoing further training.
- Carrying out "action research" in the classrooms, which can give the teacher a certain degree of control over his/her professional life.
- Research leading to publication.

The shift from being a general English teacher to an ESP teacher is considered relatively hard for teacher but Robinson (1991) proposed that teachers should be flexible to change to cope with different groups and different language levels of students. Strevens (1988) stresses that compared with a General English teacher; an effective ESP teacher requires more experience, extra training and effort.

Teaching ESP requires a variety of qualities that an ESP teacher should acquire. As explained earlier the role of an ESP teacher differs from that of the general English teacher. First, the term "teacher" is replaced by another; Swales (1985) and Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) prefer to use the term "ESP practitioner" instead of ESP teachers. This suggests that the work and role of an ESP teacher involve much more than teaching. According to Dudley-Evans and St John (1998), the ESP practitioner has several roles to play in an ESP context, they introduced five key roles:

5.1. The ESP practitioner as a teacher

ESP practitioner plays a normal role of a teacher of helping students to learn. However, the teacher is not the primary knower of the carrier content of the material. The students may know more about the content than the teacher. Therefore, the ESP practitioner should adopt appropriate opportunities for learning and teaching processes as generating communication in the classroom. Moreover, the ESP practitioner should choose the appropriate teaching methods that suits learners' needs; another important aspect in relation to the role of the ESP practitioner as a teacher is the use of of authentic materials to increase learners' motivation as well as to apply proper teaching methodology.

Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) suggest that the relationship that needs to be established between the learners and ESP teacher should be based on partnership. ESP teachers need to have considerable flexibility, and take some risks in their teaching like take interest in the disciplines or professional activities the students are involved in.

5.2 The ESP practitioner as course designer and material provider

The needs of the ESP learners differ from one field to another, as noticed in the ESP context, it is rarely possible to use a particular textbook without the need for supplementary material. The ESP practitioner should design his/her own syllabus, which suits the learners' needs as well as organize the teaching materials.

5.3 The ESP practitioner as researcher

The ESP teachers should be clear about their goals related to the students' needs; accordingly they can collect the necessary knowledge for that and incorporate the findings of the research, this allows them to follow the latest researches on the subject matter and prepare the target materials which should cater the learners' target situation.

5.4 The ESP practitioner as collaborator

To in-depth his/her knowledge and cope with the learners' field of specialism, the ESP practitioner should collaborate with other counterparts in different locations. This may involve cooperation with:

- The learners themselves since they know more than the ESP teacher in their field.
- Other ESP teachers who have larger experience than him/her.
- Another possible collaboration may involve researchers in the field to provide him/her with latest results and knowledge related to the subject.
- The specialists are considered the primary provider of knowledge even if they lack competency about English language but this can bridged through the ESP teacher.
- Collaboration with the material designers can also be possible to meet the students' needs.
- The fullest collaboration is where a subject expert and a language teacher **team- teach** classes.

Other ways of collaboration at a higher level may be established such as the authorities or the decision makers to decide about the perspective of the ESP teaching.

5.5 The ESP practitioner as evaluator

Evaluation is considered as necessary in English language teaching; in ESP we can distinguish between course evaluation and teaching materials in addition to learners' assessment. Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) mentioned that evaluation should be an on-going process conducted throughout the teaching process; it is conducted during the course; at the end of the course, and after the finishing of the course. Therefore the ESP practitioner should manage well the process evaluation and the learners' assessment.

1.6. EFL Teacher Education

The modern life is characterized by massive changes in technology and means of communication, this fact affects the teachers' performance to cope with the new context. In order to help teachers increase their effectiveness, they should be provided with the necessary education throughout their professional life. Therefore, teacher education is highly recommended and must be revised according to the new circumstances.

Teacher education has received much attention by many scholars; for example Edge (1988) suggests that teachers should be prepared by providing them with a wide range of teaching procedures as well as the knowledge of how to make decisions about the appropriate use of these procedures. Whereas Pennington (1991) prefers to provide teachers with 'a wide-ranging repertoire' of both the knowledge and skills required for certain students or classroom situations. In the same path, Larsen-Freeman (1983), considers teachers' preparation through enabling teachers to use their skills in specific situations, and permit them decide about their teaching.

Furlong and Maynard (1995) consider teacher education as the process of helping teachers to improve the skills of teaching in a number of ways such as training, practicing teaching or observing others in the act of teaching. It can also be defined as providing teachers with the knowledge and skills of teaching including mastery of their own subject knowledge and pedagogical knowledge that help them use appropriate strategies of teaching in the different situations.

Burke (1987) contradicts the traditional view of teacher education which says that teachers should be equipped with the necessary knowledge during their training to help them become efficient before starting their profession which is known as the preservice training, but instead he suggests a continuous process of professional growth of the teacher which never stops till retirement commonly known as in-service training. Anderson (1998) sees teacher education as it requires other qualifications, skills and competencies that can only be achieved by work through teaching practice in a school environment.

As explained, in teacher education we can distinguish between either preservice before teachers start their job at school which focuses mainly on basic teaching skills and techniques that new teachers need or in-service, which is provided for teachers when they start the actual teaching in a school context and goes beyond the basic techniques and focuses on other dimensions such as lesson planning (Richards and Schmidt, 2002).

Some scholars in the field differentiate between the term 'teacher education and teacher training' like Ur (1996) who explains that training refers to a pre-service strategy; whereas, teacher education can be described as "a process of learning that develops moral, cultural, social and intellectual aspects of the whole person as an individual and member of society" (Ur, 1996, p.3).

We could consider teacher education from a different perspective, which is concerned with the knowledge provided to teachers whether during the pre-service training or even in the in-service one. Indeed, some scholars preferred the to provide teachers with subject-matter content and subject matter method, in addition to pedagogical knowledge and skills for teaching the subject as Hawley (1992) suggested. Another perception presented by Schelfhout et al. (2006) which clarifies that that teacher education programs should prepare student teachers in a number of areas including providing them with content knowledge of the discipline they are teaching and skills, giving them a chance to work in a school context, providing them with feedback about their teaching and helping them to overcome shortcomings and taking on pedagogical and moral responsibility.

Concerning EFL teachers' education some approaches were introduced, 'the micro-approach' and 'the macro- approach. For the *micro-approach* to language teaching, teacher education focuses mainly on examining the characteristics of teacher, as for the *macro-approach* to teacher education; it focuses on the nature and significance of classroom practices.

Another view is presented by Wallace, (1991) which considers that EFL teacher education should include 'received knowledge' and 'experiential knowledge' in which the trainee develops a practical knowledge of the job through practice and also by being able to reflect upon this knowledge in action. On the other hand, Cullen (1994, p. 162) presents three language teaching training programs: (1) the methodological or pedagogical skills component, (2) the linguistic component and (3) the literature component (i.e. the study of 'classical' or indigenous English literature) in order to increase their understanding and appreciation of language texts. Other components to language teacher training are presented by Richards (1991) who identifies 'the

knowledge base component', which is drawn from 'linguistics and language learning' and a 'practical component' which is based on teaching methodology and practice.

For Breitenstein (1974) there are some skills that foreign language teachers must learn and cover which include the following themes:

- 1. The history of English-teaching in his own country;
- 2. various methods, with their pros and cons;
- 3. audio-visual aids, their possibilities, use and maintenance;
- 4. periods of English the whole course comprises and how they are spread over the year;
- 5. the intellectual level of his classes or groups;
- 6. the different skills and the level aimed at;
- 7. the selection of vocabulary and grammar;
- 8. the language attitudes, interests and motivation of pupils and how to stimulate them;
- 9. receptive and productive language control and its implications;

10.the similarities and differences between the sounds and structures of the two languages; the cultural differences between the two nations. (p. 45)

For some scholars the EFL teachers should master some competencies to be effective in their teaching and acquire the necessary levels of competence in language and culture, as Doff (1988) suggested 24 areas of competencies which he considered as important areas for teachers in Egypt. This list includes:

- Presenting vocabulary: (such as showing the meaning of new words and giving examples...)
 - Asking questions and questioning strategies

- Presenting structures (such as showing structures in examples, showing the form of a structure...)
- Using the blackboard (such as organizing the board and writing examples and prompts for practice...)
- Using reading text (such as introducing a text, guiding questions and follow up activities...)
 - Practicing structures (such as using meaning and mechanical drill...)
 - Using visual aids (such as using real objects, using flashcards...)
 - Planning a lesson (such as using teacher's notes, aims and content...)
 - Teaching basic reading (such as word recognition, simple reading tasks...)
 - Teaching pronunciation (such as difficult sounds, stress, intonation...)
- Teaching handwriting (such as recognizing individual letters, joining letters, copying tasks...)
- Pair-work and group-work (such as pair and group activities, advantages and problem of Pair-work and group-work...)
 - Writing activities (such as preparing for writing and correcting errors...)
 - Eliciting from pictures, getting students to imagine...
- Reading activities (such as using pre-reading activities, using questions on a text, eliciting personal responses...)
 - Correcting errors, its approaches and techniques...
- Listening activities (such as helping students to listen and using audio materials...)
 - Communicative activities (such as information gap exercises and games...)

- Using English in class (such as giving opportunities to use English, using social language....)
 - Role play (such as dialogues and interviews...)
 - Using worksheets (such as those prepared for oral practice or reading...
 - Classroom tests (such as deciding what to test, testing skills and grammar...)
- Planning a week's teaching (such as planning a series of lessons or leaning a activities...)
- Self-evaluation (such as recognizing categories for observation, helping students to learn...)

1.6.1 The Training of ESP Teachers:

Teachers pay a crucial role in improving the quality of education and shaping the mind of future generations; this role should be emphasized through the selection of good teachers and the adoption of a good training to make them efficient in their work and help them develop their skills and increase their effectiveness. The necessity for a specialized training is becoming even more required with the massive changes in communication and new technologies.

Teacher training is a process to help teachers improve their skills in teaching; Furlong and Maynard (1995) define teacher training by the fact that it provides teachers with the knowledge and skills of teaching including mastery of their own subject knowledge and pedagogical knowledge that help them use appropriate strategies of teaching in the different situations. Burke (1987) considers teacher training as a continuous process that lasts till the retirement. Anderson (1998) clarifies that some qualifications, skills and competencies can only be achieved by work through teaching practice in a school environment.

To help teachers develop their classroom teaching practices and performance Craft (1996) suggests that this could be achieved through in-service training programs that respond to the teachers' needs, whereas Sapre (2000) asks the teachers to recognize their roles as professionals and consequently take the responsibilities of their

professional duties.

The difficulties any teacher meet while doing his job as a teacher become more important when dealing with the ESP context. With the increasing interest ESP is gaining, it becomes necessary to give more importance to the training of ESP practitioners to help them cope with subject of specialism and develop their professional skills and capacities. ESP teacher training received different attention and attitude since the emergence of ESP, the viewpoints about its importance, its necessity and its implication varied through time.

Ewer is considered among the first people who asked for a formal training for ESP teachers in Chile in the mid 1970's, he argues that the training of ESP teachers will at least reduce the teachers' difficulties to manageable in-service proportions and lead to a substantial improvement in the efficiency of EST courses" (Ewer, 1976).

The training program suggested by Ewer consisted of four areas; they are: 1-filling in students' conceptual vacuum, 2- an introduction to the special language features of EST, 3- methodology of teaching, and last 4- a brief consideration of how to organize and administer an EST program.

It should be mentioned that teacher training programs were spreading in a very slow speed till the publication of Munby's "Communicative Syllabus Design" (1978); the impact of Munby's work helped to a great extent the developing and the design of training programs, as a result Teachers were trained and encouraged to design communicative materials that could make classes interactive. ESP teachers were trained to become confident with reference to students' subject areas; provide practice in designing and using materials; and training them to use suitable methodology for ESP and text-based activities. Some researchers like Hutchinson and Waters (1980) wanted ESP teacher training programs to focus on sensitizing teachers towards the needs of their students.

Robinson (1981) questions whether people who designed and administered ESP teacher training programs were themselves trained in ESP because according to her view point ESP teacher training programs should aim at changing the attitude of teachers towards science and some of the other subject specialisms. She affirmed that

it should be obligatory for teachers to be trained in producing "language materials from a subject specialist text" and understanding "specialist text".

Swales (1985) supported the development of realistic objectives for shorter inservice training programs and transfer of necessary professional skills from more experienced to less experienced practitioners. This claim was supported by Strevens (1985) who suggested the idea of collaborative-teaching as a part of teacher training programs, he insisted that General English teachers should seek assistance and get training from the ones with "necessary experience" and help them bridge "the gap between the learner's knowledge of the specialist subject and the teacher's ignorance of it".

Master (1997) mentioned that ESP practitioners need content based instruction; he argues that an ideal ESP training program should include the following:

- General TESOL training History and development of ESP
- Major subdivisions of ESP
- ESP skills (e.g. oral presentation, writing, reading, grammar, etc.)
- ESP materials assessment and development
- ESP curriculum
- ESP assessment and evaluation
- ESP administration
- In-depth focus in at least one area of ESP (e.g. EST, EPP, socio-cultural ESP). (Master, 1996: 36)

The approach of teacher training presented by Dudley-Evans (1997) was different; he dealt with some arguments in a form of questions as follow:

- (1) Does LSP (Language for Specific Purposes) have its own theory? Should we teach this theory if it exists?
- (2) Has LSP developed its own methodology?
- (3) How important is text analysis (genre and discourse analysis) to LSP teachers?
- (4) Is knowledge of subject content and disciplinary culture important for the LSP teacher?

- (5) How important is an awareness of cultural differences to the LSP teacher? (Dudley-Evans, 1996: 58)

Chen (2000) supported self-training for ESP teachers by a process of professional reflection, problem-solving and decision-making. This claim may find some limitations such as the lack vigorous motivation, support or self-training materials.

It will be difficult to cover all the aspects of the training programs related to ESP teachers, but the important thing that should be taken into consideration while designing any training course will "the ESP teachers' needs".

Chapter 2

Literature Review on Writing and ESP Writing

Chapter 2

Literature Review on Writing and ESP Writing

2.1. Concepts on Writing

Language skills are divided into receptive and productive, the receptive ones are skills that help the learner receive the language produced by others, they are Listening and Reading. Whereas the productive skills are Speaking and Writing which are considered by Hyland (2003) as the most complex component of the communication process. He views that Writing is recognized by many language teachers as the most difficult language skill to learn in comparison to other language skills.

Kroll (1990) argues that language teacher should have enough experience to foster useful and effective language skills otherwise he fails to provide appropriate practice. Swales & Feak (1994) explain that the role of language teachers becomes more difficult in relation to Writing. Terry (2009:2) argues that the reason most people never write is concerned with mistakes. Graves (1994:59) assumes such mistakes are the result of their little understanding of the pre-requisite knowledge for writing.

The view towards writing varied; Richards (1990) explains that part of writing complexity is due to the several cognitive processes involved in writing; It is also the result of the difference between speaking and writing, such as the physical absence of the interlocutor. He considers writing as a way of expressing thought from mind to printing materials (Richard, 1997: 98).

Hedge (2000) also stresses the complexity of writing as a process. According to him it involves a number of activities like setting goals, generating ideas, organizing information, selecting appropriate language, making a draft, reading and reviewing it, then revising and editing .It is a complex process which is neither easy nor spontaneous for many language writers. (Hedge, 2000:302)

Flognfeldt (2016) points out that writing is a process that ends with a product which has a structure, a certain size, content, style, etc. whereas Widdowson (1978) considers writing as a process during which the writer interacts with the reader through the written text. Zamel (1982) also sees writing as a process "whereby an initial idea gets extended and refined". (Zamel, 1982:197)

For Badger and White (2000, 157:158) writing involves knowledge about language, knowledge of the context (in which writing happens) and especially the purpose and skills in using language.

Byrne (1980) regards writing as a production of graphic symbols to form words in a sequence of sentence arranged in particular order and linked together in certain ways; it is also a process of encoding a message to transfer meaning to reader (Byrne, 1980:14).

Saleha (2008:15) introduced writing as a communicative activity which is carried out according to some principals to allow the use of language in communication. Kroma (1988:37) sees that writing allows the writer express his ideas in the paper (print) from words to sentence, sentence to paragraph and from paragraph to essay.

Another view about writing presented by Gebhard (cited in Rahmatia, 2010: 22), according to it writing is a process of creating an idea and express the meaning in written form. Writing is a means of communication for providing information to persuade the reader.

2.2. Approaches to Writing:

In literature there are different approaches to Writing; Raimes (1993) says that there are three principal writing approaches, they are: the product approach, the process approach, and the genre approach. In this section we'll attempt to describe them.

2.2.1The Product Approach to Writing

According to Richards (1990) this approach is called the 'product' approach because its aim was to produce correct texts. Pincas (1982) explains that it focuses on the appropriate use of vocabulary, syntax and cohesive devices. As for Young (1978), he calls this approach as the 'traditional approach' to writing, he shows that the emphasis in this approach is on the composed product not the composing process; it considers the analysis of discourse into words, sentences, and paragraphs; the strong concern with usage (syntax, spelling, punctuation) and with style (economy, clarity, emphasis).

Pincas (1982) mentioned that this approach concentrates on the appropriate use of vocabulary, syntax and cohesive devices. According the Pincas (1982) among the stages that characterizes this stage is 'familiarized writing' which means preparing students for actual writing by demonstrating one of the skills that are to be practiced.' (Pincas, 1982: 78),

This suggests that we give the students a piece of writing and then we ask them to write another one; consequently they get familiarized with. This claim is also presented by Hyland (2003), who states that familiarization can be accomplished by teaching students specific grammar and vocabulary through the use of a specific context. While exercises at the familiarization stage are concerned with showing students the type of writing they will produce and allow them to practice it at the end.

Badger and White (2000: 154) think that the product approach to writing concentrates on knowledge about the structure of language focusing mainly on helping students to learn grammatical rules and how to avoid errors and mistakes.

The product approach to writing was criticized by Zamel (1983) for neglecting the writing processes such as planning and outlining, even though it helps students in the beginning stages to develop and improve their grammatical accuracy. In the same path, Silver and Leki (2004) argued that this approach to writing does not consider the reader who is the teacher.

2.2.2 The Process Approach to Writing and its Stages

The shortcoming of the product approach for focusing on imitation without regarding the personal expression and creativity, and mechanical practice of writing; led to the emergence of an alternative approach to writing 'the Process Approach'. This approach appeared as a reaction to the limitations of the product approach to writing in the mid 60's. Many researchers supported the process approach like Kelly & Graham (1998); Nuna,(1989) and Leki (1991).

Rohman (1965) explains that this approach to writing goes through three stages:

1) the pre-writing stage, which includes tasks that take place before writing; 2) the drafting and writing stage; 3) the re-writing stage where any grammatical, punctuation or spelling mistakes are taken into account. Flower and Hymes (1981) agree with this view and regard writing as the involvement of three main stages: planning, writing and reviewing.

In the late 60's there have been a shift towards the process approach as showed by Williams (2003: 100), it's been agreed that writing is not linear but rather recursive that requires pre-writing, writing and post-writing activities as many scholars suggest (Emig, 1971; Raimes, 1985; Zamel, 1983; Hyland, 2003; Rose, 1980; El Mortaji, 2001; El-Aswad, 2002). Zamel (1983) also thinks that writing is: "...non-linear, exploratory, and generative process whereby writers discover and reformulate their ideas as they attempt to approximate meaning." (Zamel, 1983:165cited in Hyland 2003:11).

Hyland (2003) and Tribble (2003) point out that the recursive view about writing suggests that the writer may have to revise their essay in order to deal with any new information. This idea is supported by Perl (1978, 1980) and Raimes (1985) who explain that writers can move forwards or backwards to any activities whenever they find that useful they can add any additional information even if they are in the final stage.

Jordan (1997) thinks that the process approach gives priority to meaning rather than form and feedback. It also accentuates the role of the learner by giving him

responsibility for his learning (Jordan, 1997: 167-168). In the same context Badger and White (2000) clarify that the process approach to writing also places more emphasis on writing skills (planning, revising and drafting) than on linguistic knowledge (spelling, grammar, punctuation and vocabulary).

In doing so, the final product will be considered as a good one if students were taught writing through its process and stages such as planning, drafting, revising, editing and publishing (Belinda, 2006). Hyland (2003) also finds that the process approach to writing beneficial because the teacher considers a writer to be an 'independent producer of text' (Hyland, 2003: 10).

Grabe and Kaplan (1996) show the characteristics of the process approach to writing as follow:

- self-discovery and authorial 'voice';
- meaningful writing on topics of importance (or at least of interest) to the writer;
- the need to plan out writing as a goal- oriented, contextualized activity; invention and pre-writing tasks, and multiple drafting with feedback between drafts;
- a variety of feedback options for real audiences, whether from peers, small groups, and/or the teacher, through conferencing, or through other formative evaluation:
- free writing and journal writing as alternative means of generating writing and developing written expression and overcoming writer's block;
- content information and personal expression as more important than final product grammar and usage;
 - writing is multiply recursive rather than linear
 - process- tasks are repeated alternatively as often as necessary;
 - students' awareness of the writing process and of notions such as audience,

voice, plans, etc. (Grabe and Kaplan, 1996:87)

As mentioned earlier, the process approach to writing goes through different stages. The writer in these stages can draft a text, revise, return back to plan for a new paragraph till the end of the writing process. Williams (2003) argues that all students involved in writing need to engage in the activities contained in the various stages of the process approach: namely, pre-writing stage activities; the drafting stage, and the revising and editing stages.

The four stages of the process approach to writing are the following:

- 1- Pre-writing which includes specifying the task/planning and outlining/collecting data/making notes.
- 2- Composing
- 3- Revising (recognizing/shifting emphasis/focusing on information and styles for your readership)
- 4- Editing (checking grammar/lexis/surface features: for example, punctuation, spelling, layout, quotation conventions, references)

a. Pre-writing

Many writers find difficulties getting started in writing a text, it is considered as a difficult step. To overcome this situation there are many methods and strategies the writer can adopt to avoid the writing obstruct.

Some strategies are suggested in literature to help the learner do the first step for writing, brainstorming, students' discussion, word clustering, free writing, collaborative learning, planning, making notes and outlining. All these strategies and techniques can be selected in the pre-writing stage. Zamel (1982) shows that these features of the process approach to writing help the students collect and produce ideas before finishing the actual writing.

Hewings and Curry (2003) consider brainstorming and student discussions are helpful strategies that may be used to collect and gather ideas effectively. Elbow (1973) also mentioned brainstorming in addition to word clustering and free writing, as a way of discovering themselves and their ideas. White & Arndt (1991) says that brainstorming means thinking quickly in order to produce and collect ideas for a specific topic or problem.

Dealing with Planning, it is regarded by Flower and Hayes (1981) as mental strategy, so students may return to it at any time during the writing process. Widdowson (1983) mentioned that: "In writing one so frequently arrives at a destination not originally envisaged, by a route not yet planned for in the original itinerary." (Widdowson, 1983: 41 as cited in Hedge, 2000: 206). Hedge (2000) showed the flexibility of planning through allowing interplay between writing and thinking. According to Williams (2003), writing ones ideas will be necessary and useful for writers using the outline; they can start with small ideas and moving to more general ones.

Organizing ideas through making notes in another technique that helps the writer organizing his/her ideas. White and Arndt (1991) support this claim and arguing that organizing ideas is a structuring strategy that could be carried out through selecting appropriate names as headings and categories.

b. Drafting

Doing the first step and start writing is considered as a difficult stage, it requires a great deal of attention, application and focus (Harris, 1993; Hedge, 2000). For King and Chapman (2003), during this stage writers should focus on the actual writing and leave checking both grammatical and spelling mistakes till the final stages. Gebhard (2000) states that during drafting students shouldn't stop writing, they should finish their essay without interruption.

c. Revising

Revising is considered as an important stage in writing, it allows the writer to discover some weaknesses in the text and correct them before the text is handed in. Hedge (1988) explains that 'good writers tend to concentrate on getting the content right first and leave details like correcting spelling, punctuation and grammar until later' (Hedge, 1988: 23). According to Tribble (2003) it is important to complete the content correctly, without taking the grammatical and spelling mistakes into consideration, they can be done during the editing stage. At this stage the writer can delete some sentences and putting word in the appropriate place (Zamel, 1981; Williams, 2003; Hedge, 2000).

Students should give importance to the revision stage to give themselves time to edit good final product. Harris and Graham (1996) say that students do very little revising. They explain that 'even college students do little to revise the content of their papers. It is not surprising, therefore, that the revisions students make generally do not result in better writing' (Harris and Graham, 1996:102).

d. Editing

This is the last stage in the writing process. The editing stage of writing according to Harris (1993) focuses on linguistic accuracy: grammar, spelling and punctuation. To correct their writing, students may use different methods, it can be the use of dictionaries or computers, it can also be group or pair work as mentioned by King & Chapman (2003) and Hewings & Curry (2003). This claim is supported also by Hewings and Curry (2003) who view that the editing stage involves checking references and formatting the students' writing

The above mentioned stages are the path that the students follow to produce a piece of writing but the way they approach each of them may be different. Richards (1990) explains that through the process approach the students can discover their own strengths and weaknesses as writers, not because of the teacher's developed method but instead because of the environment s/he creates to make the writers feel comfortable.

The process approach to writing could fill the gap that the product approach resulted for being based on imitation and not considering the writer's personal freedom. However, it did not go without critics. It was considered as being too focused on the writing process itself and neglecting the social nature of writing and the role of language and structure in writing effectiveness, in addition to the fact that it emphasized too much on the writers' internal world (Swales, 1990 cited in Hyland, 2003). As an attempt to remedy the limitations of the process approach to writing, another approach emerged, 'Genre Approach' which is discussed in the following section.

2.2.3 The Genre Approach to Writing

The Genres approach to writing considers texts in achieving writing. The reader can recognize the writer's goal through the way he organizes the text selected.

Badger and White (2000) regard the genre approach to writing as being new in English language teaching. Even though they see that they share some common points with the product approach. According to them this approach consists of three stages to teaching it: 1) introducing the text by the teacher; 2) constructing the text by the student with some help from the teacher; 3) producing the complete text by the student.

Martin (1992) defines the genre approach as being a goal-oriented, whereas Swales (1990) considers the genre approach as a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes. According to Hyland (2003), people using this approach interact to achieve social processes and they have goals of achieving particular things; he adds that teachers of writing who use this approach tend to focus on texts where linguistic patterns are related to specific contexts bound to social constrains and choices (Hyland, 2003: 18).

Hyland (2003) sees "the language as a system from which users make choices to express meaning." (p. 19)., he also states that the central emphasis in this approach is not merely on writing but on writing something to achieve a specific purpose, as in

telling a story or describing a technical process, it can be used social context as medicine, economics or politics.

Silva and Colleen (2004) mentioned that the genre approach deals with the particular essays that include many genres: like nursing notes, care plans, personal or business letters, research proposals, doctoral narratives, research article publications, textbooks and summaries. It moves from writing general essays to more particular ones.

Brindly (1994) thinks that in this approach the teacher should orient the students from the beginning to help them finish the work by themselves. Hyland (2003) sees that the teachers' use of the genre approach goes further than composing processes, subject content or the forms of texts to see writing as a bridge of communication with readers.

Hyland (2003) adds that the writer employing this approach is thus able to build a good relationship with his or her readers by conveying specific information. In addition, it assimilates context with discourse, something which is usually neglected in both the product and process approaches to writing. Therefore, writing is the outcome of the interaction between the teacher and the learner (Hyland, 2003:22). According to Vygotsky (1978) the teacher has an important role in helping the student develop as a writer.

The genre approach has received some remarks about its restriction as suggested by Kay and Dudley-Evans (1998) that 'the genre-based approach is restrictive, especially in the hands of unimaginative teachers, and this is likely to lead to lack of creativity and de-motivation in the learners and it could become boring and stereotyped if overdone or done incorrectly' (p. 311).

Hyland (2003) sees that the genre approach provides models of different genres to students and in doing so the students' creativity will be limited writing may be used

in different contexts; which may lead students to rigidly follow a model without putting their creativity into practice.

2.3. Writing Assessment:

2.3.1 Historical Consideration

Hamp-Lyons (2002) explains that writing assessment existed in different civilizations, it established its roots in ancient China, it came to Europe and then it emerged in US. However, the modern period beginning in the mid-1960s is considered as the period of change in writing assessment.

Indeed, according to Hamp-Lyons (2002), writing assessment goes back to the Chou period (1111–771 B.C.) and the Eastern Chou period (770–255 B.C.) in ancient China civilization, during this period there have been different perspectives of scholars like Taoism, Confucianism and Mohism. These scholars were able to put their philosophical and political beliefs in writing but this was restricted to the nobles only. After this and During the Han period (206 B.C.–220 A.D.) and the Sung period (960–1280 A.D.) things have changed thanks to the establishment a university and the educational system, when commoner could attend school and the written examinations became more formalize.

This period was characterized by education, memorization, rote repetition and written analysis, he who wanted to progress and have a successful life needed to master them, considering that education was not permitted to women but only men could have access to education. These literate men could even compete for official posts through rigorous examination (Cleverley, 1985 cited in Hamp-Lyons, 2002). What made it easier for them to get access to books is the spread of printing which helped them to prepare for the examination.

In Europe, literacy was highly recommended especially among the clergy and nobility. DuBois (1970) reported that the Jesuit ordered the use of written tests, publishing a statement of writing test procedures in 1599; he adds that the Jesuits found the highly-formalized examination an ideal method of controlling the teaching in Catholic schools. Rashdall (1895) explained that the examination were mainly oral, especially during the period laying between the Middle Ages to the late nineteenth century, the practice that is still existing in the present days in the doctoral *viva voce* exam.

Gradually written exams started to emerge especially among the most prestigious universities in Britain and Europe like Oxford and Cambridge, passing those written exams was considered as a real mark of distinction. Spolsky (1996) stated that in 1853 the British Parliament passed a law with the first examinations to be held in 1858. Written examinations became the simple solution to the need for a relatively quick and dependable way to judge the literacy skills and the intelligence of would-be civil servants in the British colonies.

In the US, examinations were established in the mid of the nineteenth century and first years of the twentieth. Harvard University 1873–1874 was the first to introduce written examination for entrance; it consisted on a written composition instead of the traditional oral examination. That written examination was a short composition that should be correct in spelling, punctuation, grammar and expression (quoted in Applebee, 1974: 30). This approach to examination was opposed by many people, which resulted to the formation of the US's National Council of Teachers of English in 1911 (Hook, 1979). Among the opponents of the new method of examination was Lunsford (1986) who argued and described what happen as follow:

Where reading, writing and speaking had once been combined in the pursuit of a student's own academic and social goals, writing was now separated from the other communicative arts. The direct result of this separation was a dramatic loss of purpose: writing became not primarily a means of influencing important public affairs but merely a way to demonstrate proficiency. Divorced from its original purpose in rhetorical instruction, writing shifted its focus from discovering and

sharing knowledge to being able to produce a "correct" essay on demand; lost the theoretical framework that related language, action and belief; and became increasingly preoccupied with standards of usage, a tendency that grew, by the turn of the century, into a virtual cult of correctness. (Lunsford, 1986: 06)

By the late 1950s and 1960s most educational assessment research was focused on so-called 'objective' testing, it was used to determine who would take the precollege writing courses and who would not, or who would be excused from a required composition class (Yancey, 1999: 484-485). Since then assessment has changed dramatically, in many ways reflecting the changes in the field of composition (Yancey, 1999: 484). The objective test was popular with teachers and administrators: It was easy and inexpensive to administer, and it was reliable. In other words, it was easy to "control" variables.

The modern period beginning from mid-60s is considered as a period of change in writing assessment. Yancey (1999) distinguishes between three movements of writing assessment: the first wave (1950–1970), when writing assessment was done through 'objective' testing; the second wave (1970–1986), when holistic scoring of timed essays was the preferred practice; and the third wave (1986–present) with its interest in portfolio assessment (Yancey, 1999: 484). Hamp-Lyons (2001) argues that the attention of writing assessment specialists and many other educators has turned to portfolios as a fruitful form of assessment.

According to Hamp-Lyons and Condon (2000) the movement of portfolios for writing assessment came not from assessment specialists but from teachers, they explain that the teachers were becoming dissatisfied with the direct assessment, and started looking for a better way for assessment. The portfolio assessment has shown its positive effect on the students' development. Yet, the use of portfolios for formal, high stakes assessment is still problematic. Pointing to the number of times a paper can be revised, some claim it is often impossible to determine how competent the student writer is or how much help a student has received during the revision process (Wolcott, 1998: 52).

A new type of assessment could take place which is the online assessment, where a really smart computer based writing assessment system would enable each writer to build a portfolio of writing and select from it according to a particular purpose. It takes into account the level, the need and the purpose of the test-taker.

An issue about the cultural aspect emerged within the second language learners, they use English as first language but they are not natives of the language and they have different cultural background from English Native Language. This situation is reflected in their writing and should be taken in consideration while assessing their writing, Connor (1996) declares that written text production is in part culturally determined. Hamp-Lyons (2002) points out that we must take the human side in account without neglecting the development in computing and the World Wide Web in assessment and testing. Lumley (2000) explains that in this modern era and especially in this generation of assessment, it must be both technological and humanistic.

2.3.2 The Use of Rubrics in Writing Assessment:

The current study used the rubric as main tool to assess the students' formal letters; therefore the integration and the presentation of some key notions about them would be appropriate. In fact, among the tools used by teachers to assess their students' writing are rubrics which are defined by Jonsson and Svingby (2007) as "a scoring tool for qualitative rating of authentic or complex student's work, It includes criteria for rating important dimensions of performance; as well as standards of attainment for those criteria" (Jonsson & Svingby, 2007: 131).

Rubrics were first introduced by Noyes in 1912, he considered the rubrics as a means of standardizing the evaluation of student compositions, he argues by saying: "Our present methods of measuring compositions are controlled too much by personal opinion, which varies with the individual. What is wanted is a clear-cut, concrete standard of measurement which will mean the same thing to all people in all places and is not dependent upon the opinion of any individual" (Noyes, 1912 as cited in Turley & Gallagher, 2008: 88).

The rubric based assessment uses scoring for the different traits of students' writing which may vary from one rubric to another. The below table shows the different traits of scoring rubrics for six known tests of ESL writing:

Table (03):

Traits measured by various rubrics used in standardized ESL/EFL Tests

(Haswell, 2007: 8)

Test		Traits
1-	Test in English for Education	Content, Organization, Cohesion,
	Purposes (Associated Examining	Vocabulary, Grammar, Punctuation,
	Board)	Spelling
2-	Certificate in Communicative Skill	
	in English (Royal Society of Arts/	Accuracy [of mechanics], Appropriacy,
	University of Cambridge Local	Range [of expression], Complexity
	Examinations Syndicate)	[organization and cohesion]
3-	Test of Written English	
	(Educational Testing Service)	Length, Organization, Evidence, Style, Grammar, Sentences
4-	Michigan English Language	
	Battery	Topic development, Sentences, Organization/ coherence, Vocabulary, Mechanics
5-	Canadian Test of English for Scholars and Trainees	Content, Organization, Language use
6-	International English Language Testing System	Regtster, Rhetorical organization, Style, Content

From what preceded, we can say that rubrics are tools of scoring using criterion-referenced procedures where the quality of each essay is judged in its own right against such external criteria as coherence, grammatical accuracy, and so on. Hyland (2003) distinguishes those criterions into three main categories: (a) holistic, (b) analytic, and (c) trait-based.

a. Holistic Scoring:

The purpose of the holistic scale is to provide an overall rating about the writer's proficiency, the impression made about the students' work is generally individual and presented at the end. Hyland (2003) explains that by saying "writing is a single entity which is best captured by a single scale that integrates the inherent qualities of the writing" (Hyland, 2003: 227).

White (1994) points out that the holistic approach highlights what writers 'can do well' instead of identifying 'the writer's incompetence and his/her deficiencies in writing'. Hyland (2003) states that the scoring rubrics should be precise to avoid ambiguity since they are designed to suit different contexts; as reflecting the goals of a course and describe what writing teachers consider as good writing, in addition to the fact that a single rubric cannot be used for scoring all forms of writing.

b. Analytic Scoring:

Contrarily to the holistic scoring which provides a single overall score, the analytic scoring procedures suggest the classification of separated categories, and raters must give a score for each category. This scoring procedure consists on separate scales for different categories of writing (e.g.: content, organization, grammar, vocabulary and mechanics) each of these parts is assigned a numerical value (Hyland, 2003). The use of the analytic scoring helps teachers to consider the specific features of writing, it give more detailed information and it is regarded as a useful diagnostic teaching tools; in this context, Salmani Nodoushan (2007) states that the analytic rubrics help the teachers to identify weaknesses in students' writings. Hyland (2003) regards the use of the analytic rubrics as a clear framework for feedback, recast, and revision.

c. Trait-Based Scoring:

In both holistic and analytic scoring the aim is mainly based on the distinction of what is or is not good writing without considering the context. The trait-based scoring is different from the later for being context sensitive (Hyland, 2003). The trait scoring is considered by Hamp-Lyons (1991) to be designed to clearly define the specific topic and genre features of the task being judged.

2.3.3 Paulus's (1999) Essay Scoring Rubric

The basic tool used in the present research for assessing the students' formal letters is the Paulus' scoring rubric (1999), in this section we will attempt to present it and explain its use in the writing skill. In fact, Paulus developed her rubric through adding writing categories for the aim to reflect what was taught in the course; these categories were Organization, Development, Cohesion/Coherence, Structure, Vocabulary and Mechanics. She used 'rubric' for assessing essays which was based on a scale from 1 as the lowest score to 10 as the highest score for the six categories of writing (Baker & Lundstrom, 2009), these categories are explained as follows:

- 1- Organization refers to the unity of ideas and paragraphs. The topic sentence and supporting details of the essay are clear and the ideas are related to each other. The paragraphs include introduction, body and conclusion.
- 2- Development means using examples and supporting ideas appropriately. Each point in the essay is developed using any kind of supporting evidence, such as examples.
- 3- Cohesion/coherence refers to using transition words correctly and to the relationships between ideas.
- 4- Structure focuses on grammatical issues: e.g., using verbs and tenses, such as present, past, and past participle, correctly.
- 5- Vocabulary refers to precision in using words and clarity in meaning.
- 6- Mechanics refers to spelling, punctuation and capitalization. (A detailed explanation of the different categories is provided in Appendix 05).

Many studies showed the efficiency of the Paulus's rubric, Lundstrom and Baker (2009) used it to assess a 30 minutes essay and agreed that it allowed an analytical assessment of both the global and local aspects of writing, in addition to providing a holistic, overall final assessment score. This claim was supported by Grami (2010) who assumes that Paulus's rubric could assess students' essays about different aspects of their writing both globally and locally. Lee and VanPatten (1995) declared that the rubric provided the opportunity for both holistic and analytical scoring, according to them the Holistic scoring refers to the overall assessment of the work by combining many categories into one level, whereas analytical scoring gives a more detailed description of each category.

2.4 ESP and Writing:

2.4.1 Issues about ESP Writing:

Ken Hyland (2013) demonstrates the importance of Writing by being the central activity of institutions; he shows that Complex social activities like educating students, keeping records, engaging with customers, selling products, demonstrating learning and disseminating ideas largely depend on it (Hyland, 2013: 95). This assumption is also supported by Baynham (2000: 17) when he illustrates the first - year nursing student, hurrying from lecture to tutorial, backpack full of photocopied journal articles, notes, and guidelines for an essay. Therefore, we understand the importance of written texts which dominate the lives of all students.

However, some situations challenge the life of students especially those who write in second language, Hyland (2013) illustrates that the students 'prior writing experiences in the home, school or elsewhere do not prepare them for the literacy expectations of their university or professional workplace.

Lillis (2001) demonstrates this situation where the students' trusted ways of writing do not function in a new institutional contexts and they find the greater formality, impersonality, nominalization, and incongruence of these discourses mysterious and alien. Hyland (2013) suggests that the prior knowledge cannot be

regarded as a homogeneous and transferable skill which they can take with them as they move across different courses and assignments.

According to Hyland (2013: 96) ESP conceptions of writing focus on assisting students towards competence in particular target genres. He claims that teachers do not simply "teach writing" but teach particular kinds of writing which are valued and expected in some academic or professional contexts, the teachers are encouraged to respond to a complex diversity of genres, contexts and practices, this could be associate to an idea about writing which sees it as a black box to students, particularly as subject lecturers themselves have difficulty in explaining what the conventions of writing mean (Ivanič 1998, cited in Hylland, 2013).

Lea and Street (1999) explain that writing must be understood as the crucial process by which students make sense not only of the subject knowledge they encounter through their studies, but also how they can make it mean something for themselves.

Another issue that challenges the students is the effect of modern life and technology on their learning style, we all notice the influence of multimedia and electronic technologies on learning and how we assess it, especially with the dominance of English as the global language, writing in *English* assumes an enormous importance for students in higher education and on professional training courses (Hylland ,2013).

2.4.2 Academic and Professional Genres in ESP Writing:

Hyland (2013) shows that the majority of the research has focused on the academic genres with much less attention being paid to professional or workplace genres. He demonstrates that through the following table:

Table (04): Some Written Genres Studied in ESP Research

Academic Written Genres		
Research articles	Peer review reports	
Book reviews	Undergraduate essays	
Conference abstracts	article bios	
Textbooks	Teacher feedback	
PhD dissertations	acknowledgments	
Grant proposals	Editors ' letters	
Submission letters	lab reports	
Professional Written Genres		
Business letters	committee papers	
arbitration judgments	Direct mail sales letters	
Environmental reports	legal contracts	
mission statements	Medical case notes	
Business emails	Company annual reports	
Engineering reports	legal cases	

Bruce (2010) and Hyland (2009) said that a range of written academic genres have been studied in recent years. As Hyland (2004) and Petri (2007) mentioned that these include undergraduate essays, student dissertations and theses; other researchers stated the research articles, the scientific letters and book reviews (Hyland 2004c; Petri ć 2007, Basturkmen 2009, Hyland 2004a, Hyland and Diani 2009).

As mentioned in Hyland (2013), Van Nus (1999) explains that research on professional written genres has tended to focus mainly on the business letter. On the other hand, Gotti and Gillaerts (2005) demonstrate that the emphasis in recent years was on how this is recycled as part of other genres such as emails and annual reports, where emails themselves have also figured in genre analyses of business texts according to Jensen (2009), to which Hyland (1998) adds the company annual reports.

Kramsch (1993) regards culture as a historically transmitted and systematic network of meanings which allow us to understand, develop and communicate our knowledge and beliefs about the world. Culture is seen as inextricably bound up with language, this is considered as an influential version that can affect ESP writing.

Hyland (2013) stresses the cultural aspect in determining the different academic and professional genres, he identifies five broad findings:

- **1-** That texts are systematically structured to secure readers' agreement or understanding;
- **2-** That these community-specific ways of producing agreement represent rhetorical preferences that are specific to particular contexts;
- 3- That language groups have different ways of expressing ideas and negotiating writer
- reader relationships and that these represent serious challenges to students understanding of themselves and their fi elds;
- **4-** That professional writing is distinguished by its expert character, its specialized goal orientation, and its conventionalized form;
- **5** That there is frequently a disconnect between authentic written language and that in textbooks.

2.5. The Related Studies to ESP Writing, Program Evaluation, and Needs Analysis

Al-Jurf (1994) carried out a study in which she attempted to design an ESP course for graduate students at the colleges of Arts, Administrative Sciences and Agriculture at King Saud University, based on their academic and occupational needs for learning English. The aim of the course was to provide graduate students with the ability to read reference works relevant to their areas of specialization. Therefore, the focus of the course content was mainly on reading skills, translation skills, and study skills such as locating references and writing these.

To conduct her study the researcher administered two-part needs analysis questionnaire to a sample of 137 students in the three colleges.

The findings have shown that students needed English to read specialized material in English and to translate information required for their courses, research and theses into Arabic. She then suggested an intensive course to be taught for a full semester.

Abu Zahra and Shayeb (2004) conducted a study on teaching ESP at the Department of Language and Translation, Birzeit University. This study tried to give an overview of the English courses taught at Birzeit in general and in the Public Administration program in particular. This study stressed the needs (deficiencies) of the Public Administration students.

To know what English the students prefer, the researchers used a questionnaire to see whether or not these students actually prefer to have an ESP program instead of the current general English course. The sample of this research consisted of three groups of Public Administration students: 20 sophomores, 20 junior and 20 senior students.

The outcome of the questionnaire analysis has shown that the students preferred to have an ESP program instead of the current general English course that features aspects specific to Public Administration major but with varying degree. At the end of this study, a number of recommendations were given accordingly.

Rasekh and Simin (2005) conducted a study on teaching ESP in Iranian Universities, this study aimed at investigating the needs and expectations of the EAP students with regards to the EAP reading comprehension courses offered in universities in Iran. The study attempts to reveal the current EAP currently practiced by practitioners at work; and sought the students' attitude whether the courses offered reflect the specific communication needs of the study situations in the university curricula.

The data of this study were collected from Nineteen B.A and M.A social science students from two different institutions, namely Isfahan University (11,

henceforth IU), and Islamic Azad University of Najaf Abad (8, IAUNA). Their age group ranges from 23 – 29 years old. Students from both universities had completed levels of general English courses and also at least a course in EAP.

Questionnaires were designed to gather information about the courses currently administered and to find out the gap of the students' needs to match with the future study situation. The questionnaires were submitted to both EAP practitioners from content departments and to the EAP students who had already passed at least one EAP course. The questionnaire consisted of three sections: personal details, EAP communication needs and the current EAP programs at the selected higher learning institutions.

The data analysis revealed that there were shortcomings in the present EAP administration which call for improvement, collaborative teaching will not only result in the production of good quality materials with regards to both conceptual content and language, but also bear teaching outcome that removes the problems resulting from the absence of pedagogical expertise.

The researchers concluded by showing that types of learning that focus merely on receptive skills do not appeal to students; there is a tendency among learners towards class content that observes both receptive and productive skills. They added that vocabulary learning for students was not a writing activity. The most significant way of mastering new words is in fact using new words in a sentence and thinking of relationship between known and new. Finally, students expressed views that they would only feel satisfied with their language proficiency level when they see themselves involved and actively functioning in English.

Effective language teaching and learning can only be achieved when teachers are aware of their learners' needs, capabilities, potentials, and preferences in meeting these needs. We have observed that students' preferences are not satisfied in many instances. The results obtained call for a step forward to the formation of especial cross-discipline departments; towards a co-operation in designing syllabuses, doing weekly course planning, and classroom management.

Barbour (2001) examined the training needs of English teachers in Jordan from supervisors' perspective. In his study he attempted to identify the training needs of Jordanian teachers and examine the relation between these needs and other variables such as the teachers' sex, qualification, experience or the region where they worked.

The sample of the study consisted of 54 supervisors which is the total of English supervisors in the country. For the purpose of data collection, the researcher used a questionnaire that consisted of 58 items covering six areas of language teaching including reading, writing, speaking, listening, planning and evaluation. The results of the study have shown that EFL teachers in Jordan were in great need of training in a number of areas such as teaching reading, writing, speaking, listening, speaking as well as planning and evaluation. However, the researcher could not find any relation between these needs and the sex of teachers or their qualification. Moreover, the researcher noticed some differences in the needs that can be attributed to the teachers' experience and the region, mainly in the South Region of Jordan.

In a study by Alharby (2005), in which he attempted to analyze the situation of English language communicative needs as perceived by health professionals in the Riyadh area by investigating their language use in the workplace in order to provide empirical data serving Saudi ESP context. This study aimed to investigate the extent of English use in the careers of medical professionals, the required level of the reading, writing, listening and speaking skills in different activities, and the perception of health professionals towards their English language preparation during their previous college study.

The instrument used in this study was a questionnaire distributed to three different hospitals in the Riyadh area representing five different medical sites. The questionnaire consisted of 22 items and 20 sub-items. For each item and sub-item, frequency and percentage were calculated using the SPSS statistical package.

The sample population consisted of health professionals representing physicians, dentists, pharmacists, and applied medical technicians. Out of these 787 questionnaires which were distributed, 259 came back representing a response rate of 32.9%.

The findings of the study indicated that the English language is used extensively at the workplace and plays an important role in the careers of health professionals. However, physicians and dentists used English more often than pharmacists and applied medical specialists.

The findings also indicated that the receptive skills (e.g. reading and listening) were perceived as more important than the productive skills (speaking and writing). However, the differences in percentages between receptive skills and productive skills were too close to make an affirmative judgment. Finally, the findings revealed that the English language courses that health professionals took at the college level were inadequate in relating the English language use to their medical needs.

Shahin (2006) evaluated the in-service teacher program "The Certificate for Teachers of English" at the Middle East technical University of Foreign Languages. The study aimed at examining the effectiveness of the in-service teachers training program which was evaluated according to Kirkpatrick model of evaluation 1998. The Certificate for Teachers of English (CTE) ran in cooperation between two departments: - the Department of Basic English (DBE) and the Department of Modern Languages (DML) of the School of Foreign Languages (SFL) at Middle East Technical University (METU).

The sample of the study consisted of Trainees attending the program, Trainers of the program, Chairpersons at the two departments and, finally, students of the trainees and non trainees.

The instruments of this study were questionnaires designed for the trainees and their students, interviews directed to the trainees, trainers and chairpersons, observation of sessions of the program and trainees' lessons and related documents of the program. The data collected of this study were analyzed qualitatively using the Miles and Huberman (1994) procedure.

The results of the study revealed that even if the CTE program was effective in achieving its objectives there could be improvements in certain components of the program. In addition to this, the results showed that the Kirkpatrick's training program

evaluation model was not very effective in the evaluation of the CTE program. At the end of this study a definite model for the evaluation of the CTE program was proposed.

Dakhmouche (2008) examined the ESP teaching at the Department of Computer Science, Mentouri University in Constantine. This study aimed at identifying the fifth-year students' needs in English for Specific Purposes at this Department and search whether English teaching in this department obeyed to predetermined objectives.

The data collection in this study was done mainly by means of two questionnaires, one administered to teachers who have taught at the Computer Science Department and the other to fifth-year students.

The results of this study revealed the absence of predetermined objectives and showed that the participants concerned do not really contribute to an enterprise which is worth spending time, energy and means. This investigation has also shown that no consistent and thorough needs analysis is carried out either at the beginning or even in the middle of the ESP teaching-learning process.

Inal (2008) conducted a research study that investigated the professional needs of EFL language teachers in Turkey. The study aimed at providing EFL teachers with of profiles of their specific needs and describing major sources of reference to receive knowledge for the professional development of these teachers as well as suggesting workable EFL teaching methods with the available resources at workplaces. The data of this study were collected from 132 male and female pre-service teachers who responded to a questionnaire and open-ended questions that were intended to measure the professional development needs of EFL teachers in the country. The instrument of the study covered a number of areas such as biographical information about the teachers, major sources to receive knowledge and teachers' preferences of profession-specific topics for future in-service seminars and availability of instructional resources at work places.

The data analysis of the study revealed that many Turkish teachers associated professional development with studying grammar textbooks. Moreover, many of these

teachers stated that the training programs provided by the government are not adequate and, in many cases, beyond the actual needs of EFL teachers.

Alhuqbani (2008) identified and evaluated the English language needs of police officers in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. This study aimed at, first, identifying the English language needs of Saudi police officers in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia and second, at comparing and contrasting the English language needs of police officers according to their sectors. Finally, the study suggested general guidelines, based on the findings, to improve the teaching of English to police officers in the workplace and to police cadets at KFSC.

To conduct this study, the researcher used a questionnaire which was administered to 103 Saudi male police officers on the job. The police officers represented six sectors in the Ministry of the interior: -the Directorates of Passports (GDP), -Public Security (GDPS), -King Fahd Security College (KFSC), -Civil Defense (GDCD), -Intelligence (GDI), and Frontier Guards (GDFG)

The results indicated that although police officers and their sectors understand the significance of English to police work, many officers stated that they have never been trained on how to use English for police purposes.

Based on these facts, the researcher proposed some guidelines which helped the improvement of the English program at King Fahd Security College, the Higher Institute of Security Sciences, and the individual security sectors. The study ended with some recommendations in a number of topics

Maleki (2009) in his research "ESP Teaching a matter of controversy", he conducted an experiment to show how better qualified are teachers for teaching ESP, whether they EFL teacher or specialist in the field of ESP.

The data of this study were collected from forty second year medical students out of sixty studying at an Iranian medical science university. The sample was randomly selected and divided into two equal groups of twenty members.

Two types of instrument were used in this research to measure the achievements of the two classes: an achievement test and a five-point Likert's Scale. The two groups were taught in the same conditions and provided with the same materials but the classes were assigned to two teachers: TEFL teacher and a General Purpose for an entire semester.

The analysis of this study revealed that the EFL teacher's class scored higher in every aspect of the final achievement test, and that they expressed greater satisfaction with his class than the competing class on the Likert Scale.

Martinovic and Poljakovic (2010) have made a study on attitudes towards ESP among university students. The aim of this paper was to understand student attitudes toward learning English for Specific Purposes (ESP) among first year university students who are non-language majors and attempted to answer a set of questions: 1) Is the lack of effort of students related to negative attitudes toward English and/or the ESP course? 2) Are there any differences in attitudes between genders? 3) Is there a relationship between attitudes, length of studying English and final grades? 4) Are there any differences between attitudes and perceptions of success?

To answer these questions and to collect data, the researchers used a questionnaire consisting of 35 items which were taken from an open-ended survey given previously to students by the authors. Students were asked to write about what they thought about studying English at university as well as what they perceived as important factors in their success or lack of success in learning English in general. Students were asked to respond to statements on a five-point Likert's scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The researchers used Croatian language. The questionnaire was administered anonymously during class without the presence of the teacher. The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was used to analyze the results.

The population used as a sample consisted of 149 first year students from the University of Zadar who were enrolled in the English course during the second semester of 2009. Students were from the field of Humanities (Archaeology, Art

History, Croatian Language and Literature Ethnology and Cultural Anthropology, History, and Philosophy Studies); as well as the Social Sciences (Geography, Library Science, Pedagogy, and Sociology Studies). A total of 98 females and 51 males completed the questionnaire at the end of the summer semester. All the students had taken English as a second language for a minimum of 4 years before taking the course at university

The outcome of this research had shown that the lack of effort among first year university students taking the ESP course is not related to negative attitudes toward English or the course, the students have a positive attitude toward the teacher, English, and learning English.

Researchers suggested that the elements which need to be evaluated further were the assessment procedures and course materials. They also suggested that the differences between attitudes, components of motivation and gender needed to be investigated more fully and to investigate these same students over a period of time to see whether their attitudes and motivation change. At the end of this survey the researchers have presented a set of recommendations.

Javdani et al (2011) investigated the Attitude of ESP Learners towards the Role of Self-Access Language Learning Centers in improving their reading comprehension in Iran. The study was carried out during a specialized English reading course at Rubbi Rashidi Higher Education College in Tabriz in 2011.

This investigation aimed at evaluating the success of the ESP course elements and interpretation of students" understanding of the concepts related. It also aimed at identifying factors that enhance or hinder the successful implantation of Self-Access Language Learning.

In order to achieve his purpose of the study, the researcher used a questionnaire and observation that aimed at reaching a general idea of learners" inclination towards the use of different facilities and resources while trying to learn English themselves.

The results of the study revealed that Self-Access Language Learning was positively evaluated by the students, as a means to improve specialised English and as a means to develop independent learning skills. The study identified a number of

factors that contributed to these perceptions. It also revealed that students" understanding of independent learning is rather shallow. Finally a number of recommendations were made for a successful implementation of Self-Access Language Learning into a curriculum.

In a study by Al-Jasser (1999) entitled "Correlational Analysis of Students' Performance on English for Specific Purposes (ESP) and General English", he attempted to explore general English and ESP as part of the EFL program at King Saud University, and the extent to which students' performance correlates in these areas.

The aim of the study is to explore the association between general English and the ESP parts of the EFL intensive program designed for the medical science students at King Saud University. This research attempts to discover whether there is a degree of association and statistically significant differences between the students' overall performance score in the general English and in the ESP components.

The samples for this study consisted of a hundred and thirty two subjects. They were randomly selected from the 177 male student population registered in the second semester intensive English program of the academic year 1998. The analysis of their performance is based on their overall scores on the final exam on components both of the General English and ESP course. The course is 20 contact hours a week and 16 weeks in duration.

The data analysis was through two types: Pearson product-moment correlation (r) and T-test. The Pearson product-moment correlation was first conducted on the two parts of the observations which represent the students' raw scores in general English and the t-test analysis was also conducted on the same observations, to find out any existing statistical differences between the students' mean scores based on their overall performance in general English and ESP.

The correlational analyses of the students' test scores and the t-test have indicated that no statistically significant correlation between their achievement scores

has been observed. The t-test result has also shown no significant statistical differences in the students' mean scores in general English and ESP.

The findings of this research suggest that general English and ESP should be regarded as one entity rather than two separate parts of the EFL program. The implementation of an effective teaching approach that works for general English should similarly work for ESP. Further, it is deemed important to relate the ESP items to their functional and communicative use; otherwise their value in the EFL program will be limited.

Edwards (2010) conducted a survey of the perceptions of first year education students at Queensland University about the expected levels of competency in literacies for L1 school teachers. The researcher examined eight aspects of language teaching to identify the skills which teachers classified as essential for effective teaching. These skills were then compared with the students' estimations of their own levels of competence in these areas such as ICT and computing, grammar, spelling, reading, viewing and listening... The participants of the study were 309 male and female students out of a population of 419 students enrolled in the program in the first semester of the academic year 2006 -2007. These participants were asked to indicate the level of competence that a prospective primary school teacher should possess. Then they were asked to compare these levels with their own level and to explain what they intend to do to develop their skills in the future.

The results of the study showed a higher rating of spelling and grammar competencies while ICT/computing and visual aspects were the lowest of all the competencies in students' rating. Moreover, the students' estimation of their level of competence in spelling was very high when compared to their estimation of the genre competence which was the lowest of all. Regarding to how these students intend to develop their level of competence, many of the participants explained that this could be achieved by concrete and discrete experience, study as well as practice.

Al-Wreikat, (2010) evaluated the Jordanian EFL teacher in-service training courses in terms of teaching techniques and effectiveness of these courses. The researcher used a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods in his study by

using a questionnaire and interviews as instruments of the study. The data of the study were collected from 798 participants (331 males and 467 females) who responded to the questionnaires, in addition to considerable number of teachers who answered a number of interview questions about the in-service training courses in Jordan.

The findings of the study revealed that teachers were not satisfied with the techniques used in the training courses. However, they valued the importance of using certain techniques such as those used for teaching the four language skills, drama techniques and feedback discussion between the teachers and the trainers. Moreover, the results of study showed a gap between the MoE's policies concerning certain practices (such as using the technology in the classroom) and the content of training courses.

Some teachers also complained that the teachers' learning styles were not considered to a great extent in training and the fact that the in-service training courses did not equip EFL teachers with key techniques and techniques of language teaching in the classroom. The data obtained by using qualitative data methods supported the results of the quantitative analysis to a great extent and showed a gap between the content and practices of the EFL in-service training courses and the claims of the ministry in such courses.

Yan Wu (2011) aimed to give insights into the college business English learners' needs (including target situation needs, learning situation needs and present situation needs).

Questionnaire, coupled with interview were used as a major instrument for collecting the data needed. The questionnaires designed are directed at three groups of subjects, respectively, employers, college graduates who have more than one-year work experience in Business English, and learners of College Business English courses. Highly structured questionnaires with mostly closed questions, together with open-ended questions, post-survey interview and classroom observation have been adopted.

The sample of this research consisted on 103 employers and 226 college graduates, respectively 100 and 220 validate questionnaires have been collected; in the 123 Business English course learners, there are 120 validate questionnaires.

The results of the study have shown that business English course should mainly focus on enhancing learners' business English listening and speaking, a number of number of recommendations were suggested by researcher at the end of the survey namely: Materials that can best work for learners needs should be utilized. Task-based teaching approaches should be implemented, which can provide learners with enough practice and experience.

In addition to the above mentioned results, it was said that tasks should be selected from real work situation and learners can be assigned to observe the real work situation and collect relevant information, materials and activities to compensate for the limit of classroom teaching. Besides pre-course needs analysis, during-course and post-course needs analysis should also be adopted to assess learners' progress and teaching efficiency.

In an attempt to investigate international students' needs of the College of Business and Public Administration (CBPA) at California State University, San Bernardinoof, Israa Abdulaziz Albassri (2016) implemented a questionnaire which included multiple-choice questions in five main categories namely: (a) major and level of study, (b) language skills, (c) learning strategies and study skills, (d) personal background, and (e) interests and importance.

The questionnaire was administered to five hundred and seventy (570) international students in the business discipline to learn about the language skills they need to acquire for use in business settings to successfully complete their studies. The study aimed at bridging the gap between the materials provided to English learners and their targeted goals in business.

The results have demonstrated that international students in CBPA need help in most skills related to business English, particularly in vocabulary. The researcher recommended the adaption of English language instruction in addition to giving more importance to students' needs to make their communicative competency more efficient.

Xuefeng Li (2018) carried out an application of the Computer-aided Technology (CAT) in teaching business English (BE) writing. It is seen that the CAI can provide more favorable writing environment for BE writing, improving the learning interest and efficiency on the basis of interactive, collaborative and inquiry teaching model between the students and teachers.

To verify the application into BE writing, this study selected the students of two parallel classes majored in Business English for one-semester teaching experimental study. The experiment was conducted in the forms of exam and questionnaire survey, by collecting the exam data and survey information of the contrast group and experimental group.

The results of the study have shown CALL can help the students to understand the text features of BE writing, i.e. to be clear, concise, appropriate, courteous, considerate, specific, honest, individualized, complete and graceful; CAT better conforms to the pragmatic requirement of BE writing, making individualized expressions on the premise of maintaining the innate writing connotation.

Mark R. Freiermuth (2005) considered the importance of functionality in writing as an outgrowth of workplace language learning activities. In his setting, 26 Japanese computer science students participated in a simulation in an academic English writing class.

The constructs of the simulation had students employed at one of two rival computer software companies. The students were given role cards outlining a problem that required immediate action. Following group discussions, the members of each group needed to write a report in English providing advice to their respective company president concerning the direction the company should take.

Observation of students' writings revealed that students were able to identify and write about important discursive functional elements common to problem-solution documents. Furthermore, a qualitative analysis of posttest debriefings revealed that students were motivated throughout the simulation, and could see the long-term value of participating in the simulation. It is suggested here that carefully and appropriately designed simulations can be a very effective way to teach writing to second language learners.

In a latest research conducted by the researcher, Bouchareb (2022) aimed to evaluate the effectiveness of the training program for teaching English at the Institutes of Vocational Training in Algeria.

The study investigated the perceptions of 168 trainees participating in the program in the city of Algiers. In order to achieve the aims of the study, the researcher used one Likert's 5-scale format questionnaire that was administered to the trainees. This questionnaire consisted of 25 items grouped in 5 domains which aimed to evaluate different aspects of the ESP training program, namely its 'aims and objectives', 'the trainers', 'the training materials', 'evaluation and assessment techniques' and 'aids and facilities' provided for the learners by these institutes.

The results of the study have shown that the trainees expressed a great dissatisfaction with all aspects of the training program regardless to their qualification (High school or beyond). The study recommends more studies that investigate teaching ESP in Algeria in more areas and giving more attention to the learners' needs.

Part II Empirical Research

Chapter 3: Research Methodology

Chapter 4: Presentation of the Results

Chapter 5: Discussion of the Results

Chapter 3

Research Methodology

• Introduction

The present study can be classified as a descriptive survey which collects data through field investigation. The purpose of data collection is mainly to answer the research questions concerning the target population. In this study the researcher investigates the problems that face the students of High School of Banks and their different needs by means of the research tools implemented these are: - a questionnaire, an interview and students' drafts. She will use both qualitative and quantitative methods for collecting and analyzing the data in order to achieve the aims of this study.

3.1 Context of the Study:

The current study deals with students' ability to transfer knowledge acquired in GE writing to ESP writing at the High School of Banking- Bouzareah, Algiers. This is a quite challenging situation for students; since from its inauguration in 1992 the school offers two kinds of trainings namely: DSEB (Diplome Superieur d'Etudes Bancaires) which lasts four years, the second is BSB (Brevet Superieur de Banque) which goes through 30 month of training.

In both cycles the English taught at the school is rather general. The studies concentrate mainly on the most important modules in relation to the field like finance, banking techniques, economics, accounting; and English is included as a compulsory language for general purpose which is not given much attention. Indeed, the English taught focuses on the four skills: listening, reading, speaking and writing which is taught as an isolate subject from the major or the field the students are concerned with which is banking. Added to this, writing which is considered as the central activity in the financial institutions; is given less importance compared to the other skills namely Speaking, Listening and Reading.

The choice of the syllabus is left to the teacher's appreciation who is free to select and organize the lessons. This is contradictory with the real need of the students; in fact the English required should be rather specific. ESB offers specific training that should be connected to Specific English. The latter is based on needs analysis so it focuses on the language skills which are most needed by the learner and the syllabus is designed accordingly.

In the banking context, writing is considered as the spinal column of any action or operation; every financial operation or transaction, money transfer or even telephoning communications must be recorded, transmitted and kept as a written document. Ken Hyland (95: 2013) clarifies that Writing is the central activity of institutions and we can't image our modern life without it, he adds that written texts, in fact, dominate the lives of all students.

According to this situation ESP writing must be given more importance, it should be developed and adopted according to the needs of the learners. We have been informed that the English taught at ESB doesn't match the needs of ESB students because the English taught is rather general. But are these students ready to write good pieces of writing about their field? Does the prior knowledge acquired allow them to express themselves in ESP writing?

In this context, the researcher wanted to investigate the ESB students' ability and readiness to write good and well structured formal letters based on their previous knowledge acquired in the middle and the secondary school which should be equivalent to six or seven years of studying English.

3.2. Population and Sample:

Among the different techniques of sampling available, the researcher used clustered sample for which all the members of the group (cluster) selected are included in the survey. Although this study investigates the students' ability to transfer knowledge from GE writing to ESP writing of High School of Banks' students,

Bouzareah - Algiers, The population of the study concentrated on first year students including males and females from both DSEB (Diplome Superieur d'Etudes Bancaires) and BSB (Brevet Superieur de Banque) for the academic year 2018-2019; which represents the overall number of first year students studying in the school.

The purpose of the selection lies under the fact that students have some knowledge about General English writing acquired in both middle and secondary school which is equivalent to six or seven years of English, and have no idea how ESP writing works. This situation helps us to investigate whether the previous knowledge in English allows ESB students to transfer writing from GE to ESP and help them to write good formal letters in relation to their stream.

Another consideration is that the students of the school do not study English the last years for both DSEB and BSB, for this reason we didn't involve the last year students in the study to investigate whether or not they have acquired the necessary knowledge and ability to transfer knowledge from GE to ESP writing throughout the academic years spent in the ESB for both cycles and try to compare it with first year students results'.

The number of students involved in this research is eighty eight. Who were males and females whose qualifications range are Baccalaureate and more Baccalaureate (some of the participants get their Baccalaureate in addition to a diploma in vocational training or they have already studied one year in another university). The number of BSB students is 42 whereas the number of DSEB students is 46. The table bellow shows the details of the sample:

Table (05)
Sample of ESB Students

			Sex Q			ualification	
No	Kind of training	Male	Femal e	Total	Baccal aureate	More than Baccal aureate	Total
1	BSB (Brevet Supérieur de Banque)	28	14	42	42	00	42
2	DSEB (Diplôme Supérieur d'Etudes Bancaires)	22	24	46	45	01	46
	Total	50	38	88	87	01	88

Table (06)
Sample Distribution According to Sex and Percentage

Variables	Sex	Number	%
BSB	Male	28	66.7%
	Female	14	33.3%
	Total	42	100%
DSEB	Male	22	47.8%
	Female	24	52.2%
	Total	46	100%

As mentioned the participants in this research are males and females, the number of males for BSB students is 28 representing 66.7% of the students, and the female is 14 which represents 33.3% of the sample. Concerning the DSEB, the number of males involved in this research is 22 representing 47.8%; and 24 females

which represent 52.2 of the students. The table below shows in details the percentages of the students.

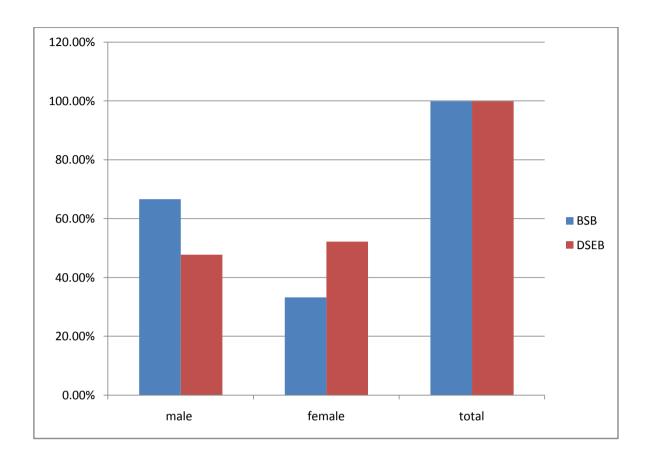


Figure (09)
Distribution of sex for BSB and DSEB students

From the tables and chart above we can see clearly the distinction between male and female in both trainings BSB and DSEB. Indeed; for BSB training we notice that the percentage of male exceeds that of female, where males are at 66.7% which is more than half of the population whereas the females represent 33.3%. Concerning DSEB we can hardly distinguish the difference between the genders, we have the females representing 52.17% and the males are 47.83%. This makes a slight difference of about 4% only.

3.3. Instruments of the study:

In order to investigate the students' gap in transferring knowledge from General English writing to ESP writing at the High School of Banks (ESB), the researcher implemented a number of instruments, triangulation was ensured to collect enough data on the topic of the present study as a way to better understand its context and facilitate the analysis of the obtained data. It aimed primarily at increasing the validity and reliability of the process of data collection and thus the findings of the study by interpreting them from the three different perspectives.

To make the students feel free in answering the research tools to collect valid and reliable findings and not affecting the results, they were told at the beginning of the study that the researcher was a PhD student and was simply collecting data for her research; the students knew that the researcher would not be setting them any examinations. So any instruments used would not influence their marks or official assessment.

3.3.1 Students' Drafts (Writing formal letter):

Students' drafts are chosen as a research tool which can reveal lot of data about the way the participants approach the assigned writing task, this could give us a clear picture about participants' writing ability as a whole and difficulties in transferring knowledge from GE writing to ESP writing in particular.

First year students of the High School of Banks were asked to write two (02) business letters, the first at the beginning of the academic year and the second at the end of the same academic year. First year students have passed their Baccalaureate exam and they have been studying English for about six (06) years which is the equivalent of the intermediate level; taking into account the different difficulties that they may encounter during their studies.

Both letters the students are instructed to write are more or less equivalent in difficulty and familiarity for all students. We have maintained the same conditions concerning the time, the room, and the number of participants

The students are given one (01) hour to complete their letters on the following topic:

- Write a letter to Mr. Drihmatt asking him to pay his outstanding invoice.

For the letters to be written at both the beginning and the end of the academic year 2018/2019, the students were given the following additional information.

You produce ten thousand copies of a clothing catalogue at very short notice for a customer, SARL Drihmatt design. The terms of credit in the contract of sale were for payment within thirty days of receipt of invoice. You sent him the first reminder with a copy of the invoice when the payment was four weeks overdue, then a second request for payment four weeks after that. The account is now a further six weeks overdue

In addition to the extra information above, students are given the following suggestions for organizing their letters:

- Review the situation with his account
- Make him think about his moral obligation and remind him of the terms and conditions of your sales agreement
- Say what action you intend to make.

3.3.2. Interview:

Interview is meant to gather more data about students' perceptions of ESP writing knowledge and collect more personal information about students and let them express their ideas, perceptions, and attitudes about their writing ability and knowledge. It also gathers more specific information based on the questionnaires' data and provides an in-depth view of the topic of discussion and adds reliability to the research.

The interview was conducted with the participants as a follow-up to the data collected by both students' drafts and the questionnaire. The researcher designed a semi-structured interview which is seen by Nunan (1992) as having a general idea of where the interviewer wants the interview to go, and what should come out of it, but does not enter the interviewer with a list of predetermined order. (Nunan,1992:149)

In choosing the interview we were motivated by what Bell said (1999: 135) about it, he describes its flexibility through which the interviewer can follow up ideas, probe responses and investigate motives and feelings, which the questionnaire can never do.

In the interview, participants were given more freedom to express their attitudes towards writing business letters. This enabled us to elicit more information about the way participants perceive business letter writing, a process which was not fully accessible through questionnaires.

The interview is semi-structured and is divided into two parts: the first dealt with the personal information and the second consisted of four (04) questions to which participants have more freedom to express themselves.

1 What are the different kinds of letters do you know?

This question aims at knowing whether participants have an idea about the different letters. It reveals whether the participants are able to distinguish the formal letters from the informal ones.

2 Make a list of different types of formal letters you need to write (at home/at work or college)?

This question shows whether the participants have specific knowledge of formal letters. It also relates them with their field of study and their future profession which is banking.

3 what are the differences between informal letters and the formal letters?

The third question contrast between the formal and the informal letters. This question helps us to know what attracts the attention of the participants about the letters through

comparing them. It reveals the different components of writing namely: - Grammar, - Mechanics, -Spelling, -Vocabulary, - content, -and organization.

4 Can you write formal letters to? (Make "X" next to the type of letter you're able to write), with suggestions.

The last question deals with the formal letters the subject matter of the current research. It suggests a list of formal letters that the participants may forget of even do not know.

3.3.3. Questionnaire:

The questionnaire as a research tool enables the researcher to collect data in field's settings, and the data themselves are more amenable to quantification than discursive data such as free-form field notes, participant observers' journals, the transcripts of oral language (Nunan, 1992:143).

In spite of the importance of students' drafts and the interview used in this study as research tools, relying on these only would not have given us a clear and complete picture of participants' writing ability. For this reason, we deemed it essential to use other research tools to reinforce and confirm the data collected and to complete any possible missing data.

Thus, we opted for the use of questionnaire as a way to give participants freedom to express themselves and to talk about their feelings and attitudes which cannot be shown through their drafts or the interview. The usefulness of questionnaires is described by Freeman and Long (1990) as follows "...questionnaires are often used to get language learners to self-report their attitudes or personal characteristics" (Freeman and Long (1990: 35).

The questionnaire administered to subjects consists of five parts namely:

- 1- Personnel information about the students,
- 2- The evaluation of the writing skill taught in the current program,
- 3- Students' Assessment
- 4- The role of the ESP teacher,
- 5- The formal letter

The first part aimed at collecting general information about the participants: Gender, the qualifications (Baccalaureate or more) and whether they have studied ESP apart from their academic program.

The other three parts represented an evaluation of the current program in terms of the ESP writing program taught at the school, the different ways of students' assessment, and the role of the ESP teacher in the learning/teaching process. For writing, the researcher designed 08 questions and for each question the participants needed to provide explanations/reasons if the answer was "no", thus the total number was 16 questions.

Concerning part three (the methods of assessment) and four (the role of ESP teacher), the researcher adopted the Likert scale because we think that it won't be easy for the students to evaluate their teachers, or even judge the methods through which they are evaluated but instead they are the subjects for evaluation. Therefore we have given them more freedom in answering the questions where they were not obliged to choose between YES or NO, they could simply say whether they "agree, be not sure or disagree".

The last part focused on participants' view and knowledge of the formal letter's layout in terms of: Opening sentences, closing sentences, formal phrases, and letter content.

The questionnaire is designed to meet the research questions as an evaluation of the current program in terms of the writing program, the way students are assessed, and the role of the ESP teacher in the learning/teaching process (representing the second part of the questionnaire). This will give us a view of the difficulties that students may encounter, thus expressing their needs when they try to transfer from General English writing to ESP. It includes the efficiency of the assessment and the role of the English teacher in the ESP context. It tries to suggest answers to the third, the fourth and the fifth question as follows:

- Does the current program taught match the needs of students?
- Are the ways of assessment efficient in evaluating the students?
- What is the role of ESP teacher in improving the students' ESP writing?

Concerning the second question, the answer is suggested through the first part of the questionnaire which deals with the personal information where is mentioned the gender (male or female). From to the number and the statistics provided we can have a view about whether those needs are different between the two genders.

• Are these needs different between males and females?

3.3.3.1 Types of Questions:

The questions that were included in the questionnaire administered to participants varied between: Close-ended questions, Likert scale, and Ranking Questions, and List Questions.

Close-ended questions: in the second part of the questionnaire the researcher included the Close-ended questions about writing. For Nunan (1992) the closed question is "one in which the range of possible responses is determined by the researcher". Closed-ended questions were used to gather general information about participants, their writing ability and their view about the teaching of writing at ESB. To answer these questions participants did not need elaborate answers.

This type of questions aims at guiding the respondents to answer specific questions which are meant to reveal useful information that can be easily analyzed.

e.g., 1 the English writing program provides me with technical vocabulary I need in my field of study.

Yes	No	

Likert scale: In this scale the respondents are asked to indicate the extent to which they "agree" or "disagree" with it by making one of the responses ranging from "agree" to "disagree" (Dornyei,2007). The participants in this study were asked to choose one of the three responses, as shown in the following example:

The Teacher	agree	Not sure	disagree
The teachers in the vocational English program talk to us in			
English most of the time in a simple and clear way.			

List Questions: Here students are given a list of items to choose from.

e.g. 1 In a formal letter you put your address on: (Circle the right answer)

The right hand side the left hand side the center of the page

Ranking Questions: In this type of questions, participants are asked to rank some suggested options in terms of their importance or priority.

e.g. 1 To write a good formal letter you need to answer some questions that help you decide what to write and how to write it. Please order them according to their importance 1 (very important) to 4(not important).

-	Who am I writing to?	
-	Why am I writing?	
-	What do I need to tell them?	
-	What do I want them to do?	

3.4 Validity of the instruments

The researcher reviewed the related literature written on the topic and designed the questionnaire, the interview and the drafts of students as tools of this study and in order to ensure validity of the instruments, the researcher consulted a number of educators and ESP teaching specialists about the study instruments by requesting them to suggest new items, delete any of the items or modify them. The jury suggested minor changes, though they did not add or delete any of the items. The details of the Jury are available in appendix (06).

In order to collect valid data the students were informed that this study is part of the researcher's survey who is a PhD student. They were asked to be honest in answering the questions since this will not affect their academic assessment. In addition to this fact, the researcher was present and monitored the process of data collection herself. She was present and ready to explain or even translate any of the items or questions in Arabic in case students couldn't understand anything.

It will be very important to mention that reliability is ensured also by the researcher's honesty, the depth and richness of the data and the suitability of the subjects.

3.5. Design of the Study and Data Collection

The data of the study was collected from ESB students involved by means of the questionnaire, students' drafts and the interview during the academic year (2018 - 2019). I was able to collect this data by visiting the school and meeting the people involved personally in this school and explaining any items that may not be clear to them. There was high return rate of the research tools implemented because I had to monitor the data collection myself. No questionnaires were omitted among those distributed to the participants as I had to check all the questionnaires carefully before collecting any of them from the people involved.

To collect data, it was important to ensure that both groups used in this research were equal and have similar conditions. This can be described as follows:

- The two groups BSB and DSEB were studying in the same school within the same context and in the same conditions (studying banking).
- They both had the same background, they both studied English for about six years which means that they have relatively equivalent level of English language.
- Although they belong to different cycle but they are all first year students.
- They both had the same number of English hours which is one hour and a half per week.

- To ensure reliability and validity we have maintained the same conditions concerning the time, the room, and the number of participants.

The students were given the questionnaire during the academic year 2018/2019, the researcher was present to assist the participants in case there will be any ambiguity or difficulty to answer the different questions, the difficult questions were translated in Arabic because the majority found difficulty in understanding them and to make sure that they understood it clearly.

To collect valid and reliable findings and not affecting the results, the subjects were informed that this is a part of the researcher's survey who is a PhD student and the outcome of this research doesn't influence their official assessment. They were asked to feel free in answering the research tools.

As for the writing of the formal letter, the participants were asked to write two (02) business letters to SARL Drihmett, the first at the beginning of the academic year and the second at the end of the same academic year. In both pre-test and post-test the researcher kept the same topic which is "write a letter to Mr. Drihmatt asking him to pay his outstanding invoice".

The fact that the same letter was used in both pre-test and post-test shows that any improvement was due to studying of English during the academic year in addition to practicing writing on the same topic twice. The pre-test was conducted during October 2018, while the post-test was administered on May 2019 of the same academic year; the intervening period was therefore long enough to mean that the students might have forgotten what they had written in their pre-test especially because they were not informed that there will be another test at the end of the academic year.

The researcher used the interview as a follow up to students' questionnaire and the drafts which targeted specific issues related to participants writing knowledge about the business letters, the differences existing between the formal and the informal ones.

Each interviewee was given an average of ten minutes to answer the questions; however, some students went beyond this time because they wanted to emphasize specific problems or suggest some ideas. We can also note that some students had difficulty in expressing themselves because of the lack of fluency in English which didn't allow them to express themselves freely, who preferred to answer the asked questions only.

3.6 Methods of Data Analysis:

To analyze the data collected by means of questionnaire, students' drafts and interview; the study used both qualitative and quantitative methods where the perceptions and needs of ESB students are analyzed, compared and contrasted. The data analysis used in the study varied according to each tool implemented.

The main method for assessing students' drafts is based on writing rubric inspired by Paulus' (1999). Her 'rubric' for assessing the essays was based on a scale from 1 as the lowest score to 10 as the highest score for six categories of writing (Baker & Lundstrom, 2009), as follows:

- **Organization** refers to the unity of ideas and paragraphs. The topic sentence and supporting details of the essay are clear and the ideas are related to each other. The paragraphs include introduction, body and conclusion.
- **Development** means using examples and supporting ideas appropriately. Each point in the essay is developed using any kind of supporting evidence, such as examples.
- **Cohesion/coherence** refers to using transition words correctly and to the relationships between ideas.
- **Structure** focuses on grammatical issues: e.g., using verbs and tenses, such as present, past, and past participle, correctly.
- **Vocabulary** refers to precision in using words and clarity in meaning.
- Mechanics refers to spelling, punctuation and capitalization

We deemed the use of Paulus's scale to assess the students' writing proficiency as appropriate for this study because the rubric provides the opportunity for both holistic and analytical scoring. Holistic scoring refers to the overall assessment of the work by combining many categories into one level, whereas analytical scoring gives a more detailed description of each category (Lee & VanPatten, 1995). In addition, the categories in Paulus's rubric are easy for the marker/teacher to grasp the student's writing which allocates marks on a scale of 1 to 10 rubric scale provided levels for each categories starting from 1 as the lowest and ending with 10 as the highest, the overall marking will be out of 60.

The full form of the rubric used in this research is provided in Appendix (05)

The results obtained from the scale above allowed us to have a deeper insight of the students' needs, ability and perception about ESP writing by measuring a number of tests such as means, median, the standard deviations and the T-test for two independent samples. The significance of these measures is described as follows:

- **Median:** the value in the exact middle of the data set when ordered from low to high.
- Mean: the sum of all values divided by the number of values.
- **Standard deviation:** the average distance between each value in your data set and the mean.
- A <u>T-test</u> is for exactly 1 or 2 groups when the sample is small.
- **ANOVA** is for 3 or more groups.

The data was analyzed by using SPSS v.16.0; it is worth to mention that the version of SPSS used is French one and the researcher translate the related terms to English (see appendix (04)).

To analyze the data collected from the questionnaire and the interview, we used both quantitative and qualitative methods. For the close-ended questions we counted the frequencies of all similar questions, the answers were put together and counted in order to get the percentage. As for the open-ended questions we analyzed them by using a qualitative method, we organized students' answered by clustering similar ideas together into categories.

3.7. Limitations of the Study

The results of the study are limited to the population it investigates (i.e. the High School of Banks ESB). The students who responded to the research tools are males and females studying different cycles (BSEB and BSB). However, the qualification variable is excluded as all the trainees study English together under the same conditions. Students were asked to mention whether or not they followed any ESP course apart of their academic program, and since there was only one student who studied a year in CFPA – Pins Maritime. Therefore, this variable is also excluded.

Conclusion:

This chapter aimed at describing the research methodology of this study. A number of issues were discussed in detail such as population and sample, the instruments of the study and their validity, design of the study, methods of data analysis and main procedures followed in the study.

The study aims at investigating the students' ability to transfer their knowledge from General English writing to ESP writing. The researcher used both qualitative and quantitative methods and instruments such as questionnaire, interview and students' drafts. These instruments, which showed high validity rates, were mainly intended to show the students' ability to write good formal letters according to their previous knowledge in general English and through triangulation, provide reliable results of the study as a whole.

Chapter 04: Presentation of the results

Chapter 04:

Presentation of the results

4.0 Introduction:

The aim of this study is to investigate ESB students' ability to write good formal letter based on their previous knowledge of general English. To answer the research questions the researcher implemented tools to collect data from the field investigated, these are students' drafts, the questionnaire and the interview.

This chapter examines the results of the study in relation to the research questions stated in the introduction and tests the hypotheses relating to these questions. These questions are:

- 1- What could be the difficulties (needs) met by students while transferring from General English to ESP writing?
- 2- Are these needs different between males and females?
- 3- Does the current program taught match the needs of students?
- 4- Are the ways of assessment efficient in evaluating the students performance?
- 5- What is the role of ESP teacher in improving the students' ESP writing?

4.1 The results:

To answer the first question, the researcher used students' drafts as a tool to collect data about the difficulties met by students while transferring their previous knowledge of general English to write a formal letter which is considered as ESP writing. Students were asked to write two letters, one at the beginning of the academic year 2018 and the second at the end of the same academic year 2019. The letters were scored according to Paulu's rubric 1999 through which we can have an idea about the needs in terms of organization, development, coherence, vocabulary, structure and mechanics.

That was the first part trying to meet the students' needs; the second one was dealt with thanks to the fifth part of the questionnaire which represents the formal letters' layout, this part of the questionnaire is divided in four sections (this part will be analyzed later in this chapter).

As for the second research question, it was answered through students' drafts too and the difference in needs existing between males and females is measured by the basic descriptive statistics which are: the means, frequencies, standard deviations, and T-test for two independent samples.

Concerning the third question, we tried to answer it according the students' view who are the best to know about their needs. The data was collected from the second part of the questionnaire which helps the students to express themselves about the current ESP writing program.

The fourth and he fifth research questions were answered through the third and the fourth parts of the questionnaire respectively.

The data analysis of the research tools was conducted by using SPSS 16.0. The statistics computed in the study were the means, frequencies, standard deviations and T-test for two independent samples for the students' drafts; as for the questionnaire and the interview we have used the frequencies, percentages clarified and explained by different charts and graphics.

4.1.1 The Result of the study Related to Question one: (What could be the difficulties (needs) met by students while transferring from General English to ESP writing?)

To answer this question as first stage, both first and second draft were rated and marked according to Paulu's (1999) scale. The drafts' rating was based on six categories of writing: organization, development, cohesion, vocabulary, structure and mechanics. Each category consists on ten levels from one as lowest to ten as highest; thus the letters were graded out of sixty.

The tables below show the grading of BSB and DSEB students for both the first draft and the second one. Instead of writing the students' names we replaced them by using numbers. The numbers from 01 to 42 represent the names of students for BSB cycle and from 01 to 46 are the names of DSEB students.

Table (07)
First and second draft scores of BSB students

	BSB	3					
			2ND				
Name	SEX	1ST DRAFT	DRAFT				
1	M	19	19				
2	F	17.5	20				
3	M	13	14.5				
4	F	17	18.5				
5	M	15	15				
6	M	21	23				
7	M	13	14.5				
8	F	18	19				
9	M	14	16				
10	M	15	16				
11	M	13	15				
12	M	18	18.5				
13	M	12	12				
14	M	11	14				
15	M	12	14				
16	M	11	10				
17	F	17	19				
18	F	14	16.5				
19	M	15	18				
20	F	20	20				
21	M	6	7				
22	F	7	10				
23	F	17.5	18				
24	M	17	18				
25	F	16	17				
26	M	5	6.5				
27	M	12	13.5				
28	M	5	5.5				
29	M	8	10				
30	F	8.5	11				

31	M	4	6
32	F	16	19
33	M	4	3
34	F	19	19
35	M	10	10.5
36	M	5	5
37	M	10	12
38	M	9	9.5
39	M	4	6
40	F	10.5	15
41	F	11	12
42	M	6	7

Table (08)
First and second draft scores of DSEB students

		DSEB	
Name	Sex	1st draft	2nd draft
1	F	20	22
2	M	9	11
3	F	17	18.5
4	M	12	12.5
5	M	13.5	13
6	F	18	20
7	M	14	16
8	F	19	20
9	M	7	7
10	M	12	13.5
11	M	14	15
12	F	18	20
13	M	13	15
14	F	17	19.5
15	F	19	19
16	M	10	11
17	M	10.5	12
18	F	20	21
19	F	15	18
20	F	16	17
21	M	13	14
22	F	18	18.5
23	F	20	21
24	F	31	36

25	M	12.5	14
26	M	15	16
27	F	19	21
28	M	9	10
29	F	18	19.5
30	F	17	17
31	M	11	11.5
32	F	15	18
33	M	13.5	14
34	F	16	17
35	M	14	16
36	F	19	21
37	M	12	13.5
38	F	19.5	20
39	F	18	20
40	M	6	7
41	M	11	13
42	F	18.5	21
43	M	7	9
44	F	20	21
45	F	17	14
46	M	15	19

The above tables (07) and (08) show the students rating for both BSB and DSEB. This evaluation is graded out of sixty, from the results obtained we can see clearly that students' draft have shown low level. Nevertheless their scores had increased in the second draft but it still considered as low in relation to their knowledge about English which represent intermediate level. As can be seen some students had the same marks without any increase, for example: students 5 and 13 BSB and students 9 and 30 DSEB who had 07 and 17 respectively. On the other hand, student N°45 DSEB obtained lower score in the second draft. In general the overall rating showed that the majority of students have better marks in the second draft.

As for the second step, and to answer the first research question and test the related hypotheses, the researcher computed the central tendency measures of the first and the second draft for each cycle namely: means, median, mode and standard deviations. Table (09) shows the detail as follows:

Table (09)

Descriptive Statistics of Students' Rating for Both BSB and DSEB

	cycle	Frequenci es	Means	Median	Mode	Std.De v	Maximu m mark	Minimu m mark
B S	1st draft	42	12.28	12.50	04.00	04.94	21.00	04.00
В	2 nd draft	42	13.64	14.50	19.00	05.05	23.00	03.00
D SE	1st draft	46	15.19	15.00	18.00	04.52	31.00	06.00
В	2 nd draft	46	16.58	17.00	21.00	04.96	36.00	07.00

The above table shows the results of the students' drafts rating for all the categories together. As can be seen, the students' ratings were clearly low as a whole for both BSB and DSEB. However the rating of the second draft was a bit higher than the first one where we find (M=13.64) for BSB, and (M=16.58) for DSEB when compared with the first draft (M=12.28) for BSB and (M=15.19) for DSEB. As for the marks of students, we have 23 as a maximum mark for BSB and 36 for DSEB, and 3 as minimum mark for BSB and 7 for DSEB.

4.1.1.1 Research hypotheses related to question one:

Various hypotheses were developed in order to answer the research questions. We attempt to test the ones related to the first question:

1 there will be a significant statistical difference between students' drafts for both BSB and DSEB.

To test this hypothesis we computed the means, the standard deviation and the T-test for two independent samples. The below table shows the details:

Table (10)

Results of T-test for BSB and DSEB Students' Draft

Cycle	Categories	N	Mean	Std.Dev	T	(Sig) P- value
BSB	1 st draft 2 nd draft		12.28 13.64	4.94 5.05	7.504	,000
ВЗВ	2 dian	42	13.04	3.03	-7,584	
	1 st draft		15.19	4.52	-7,765	,000
DSEB	2dn draft	46	16.58	4.96		

The table (10) shows the results of the differences between BSB and DSEB students' drafts. It reveals that there is a significant difference at the level <0.05. As shown in table (10), the mean of the total score obtained by BSB students' in the first draft was 12.28, and 13.64 for the second draft: whereas the mean of the first draft was 15.19 for DSEB students and 16.58 for the second draft. The P value was less than 0, 05 in both BSB and DSEB which confirms the hypothesis that there is a significant statistical difference between students' drafts in both cycles.

2 there will be a statistical significant difference of BSB students' First Drafts between the different categories.

To test this hypothesis the researcher examined and analyzed a number of measures and tests including the mean, the standard deviation and one-way ANOVA test. The results are displayed in the following table:

Table (11)

The Results of One-Way ANOVA Test for BSB Students' First Drafts

Cycle	Categories	N	mean	Std.Dev	F	(Sig) P-
						value

BSB	Organization	42	2,7738	1,24059	17,880	,000
Draft 01						
	Development	42	1,2143	,54261	3,490	,003
	Cohesion	42	1,3810	,66083	1,718	,113
	Structure	42	2,6310	1,45694	2,453	,024
	Vocabulary	42	1,1190	,67904	4,426	,001
	Mechanics	42	3,2619	1,55484	9,954	,000

As revealed in the table (11) above, there are statistical significant differences of BSB students' first drafts between the different categories. This is shown as follows: the organization (S.D=1.24 and M=2.77), development (S.D=0.54 and M=1.38), structure (S.D=1.45 and M=2.63), vocabulary (S.D=0.679 and M=1.119), mechanics (S.D=1.55 and M=3.26) However, the values of "cohesion" do not indicate any statistical difference with the other categories of knowledge (S.D=0.66 and M=1.38).

The results confirm the hypothesis that there is a significant statistical difference of BSB students' first drafts between the different categories at the level P<0.05. As we can see for all the categories the value of P<0.05 except for cohesion where the null hypothesis is accepted because the value of P=0.113 which is clearly above.

3 there will be a significant statistical difference in the BSB students' second drafts between the different categories.

To test this hypothesis, the researcher computed the means, the standard deviation and the one-way ANOVA test. The results are revealed in the table below.

Table (12)
The Results of One-Way ANOVA Test of BSB Students' Second Drafts

Cycle	Categories	N	Mean	Std.Dev	F	(Sig) P-
						value
BSB	Organization	42	2,9643	1,20159	9,447	,000
Draft 02						
Dian 02	Development	42	1,7381	,67389	3,775	,002
	Cohesion	42	1,6786	,63266	3,442	,004
	Structure	42	2,8571	1,24590	9,540	,000
	Vocabulary	42	,9762	,70670	1,932	,076
	Mechanics	42	3,4048	1,47433	10,887	,000

As shown in table (12), it is clear that there is a significant difference between the different categories of BSB students' Second Drafts. The values computed have shown the following: Organization (S.D=1.20 and M=2.96), *Development* (S.D=0.67 and M=1.738), *cohesion* (S.D=0.63 and M=1.678), *structure* (S.D=1.24 and M=2.857), *mechanics* (S.D=1.47 and M=3.40), however there was no statistically significant difference between *vocabulary* and the other categories (S.D=0.679 and M=1.119).

The significance of the values of probability score (P) indicates that the above mentioned hypothesis is accepted since all the values of the different categories are lower than 0.05, except for *vocabulary* which equals 0.76. Therefore the related hypothesis is rejected.

4 there will be a statistical significant difference of DSEB students' first draft between the different categories.

To test this hypothesis we have calculated the means, the standard deviation and ANOVA test.

Table (13)

The Results of One-Way ANOVA-test for DSEB Students' First Draft

Cycle	Categories	N	Mean	Std.Dev	F	(Sig) P-
						value
DSEB	Organization	46	3,2391	1,05272	5,377	,000
Draft 01						
Diant 01	Development	46	1,8261	0,81797	4,542	,000
	Cohesion	46	1,8043	0,93380	9,599	,000
	Structure	46	3,3696	1,24023	15,533	,000
	Vocabulary	46	1,1304	0,49927	4,361	,000
	Mechanics	46	3,8478	1,13465	19,820	,000

The above table shows the results related to DSEB students' first draft for the different categories. The values calculated show clearly that there is a high significant difference for all categories since the probability value computed equals 0.000 for all the categories, which is less than 0.05. This confirms the above mentioned hypothesis that there is a significant statistical difference of DSEB students' first draft in English between the different categories.

5 there will be a statistical significant difference of DSEB students' second draft between the different categories.

To test this hypothesis we have calculated the means, the standard deviation and ANOVA test.

Table (14)
The Results of One-Way ANOVA-Test for DSEB Students' Second Draft

Cycle	Categories	N	Mean	Std.Dev	F	(Sig)	P-
						value	

DSEB	Organization	46	3,4565	1,26853	7,624	,000
Draft 02						
	Development	46	1,9130	0,98491	5,169	,000
	Cohesion	46	2,0000	0,84984	5,338	,000
	Structure	46	1,0870	0,76959	6,085	,000
	Vocabulary	46	4,2935	1,13322	8,446	,000
	Mechanics	46	3,8152	1,07165	7,859	,000

The above table reveals the results of ANOVA test for DSEB students' second draft. The values calculated show that there is a statistical significant difference between DSEB students' second draft as follow: *Organization* (M=3.45 and S.D=1.26), *Development* (M=1.91 and S.D=0.98), *Cohesion* (M=2.00 and S.D=0.84), *Structure* (M=1.08 and S.D=0.76), *Vocabulary* (M=4.29 and S.D=1.13), *Mechanics* (M=3.81 and S.D=1.07). The results show clearly that there is a significant different of DSEB students' second draft, as can be seen that the value of P is less than .05 for all the categories which confirms the said hypothesis.

The overall percentages of the different categories for both BSB and DSEB students

As explain earlier students' drafts are ranked out of sixty, each of the six categories consisted on ten levels. If we consider the overall ranking we get 2520 (which means 60*42), this will represent 100% for BSB students. The overall ranking for DSEB students is 2760 (60*46) the percentages will be computed for each category accordingly.

Table (15)

Overall Percentages of the Different Categories for BSB Students

Rubrics	Total rating	percentage100%	classification

	1 st draft	2 nd draft	1 st D	2 nd D	1 st D	2 nd D
Organization	116.5	124.5	4.62%	4.94%	02	02
Development	51	73	2.02%	2.89%	05	04
Cohesion	58	70.5	2.30%	2.79%	04	05
Structure	110.5	120	4.38%	4.76%	03	03
Vocabulary	47	41	1.86%	1.62%	06	06
Mechanics	137	143	5.43%	5.67%	01	01
Total	520	572	20.63%	22.69%	06	06

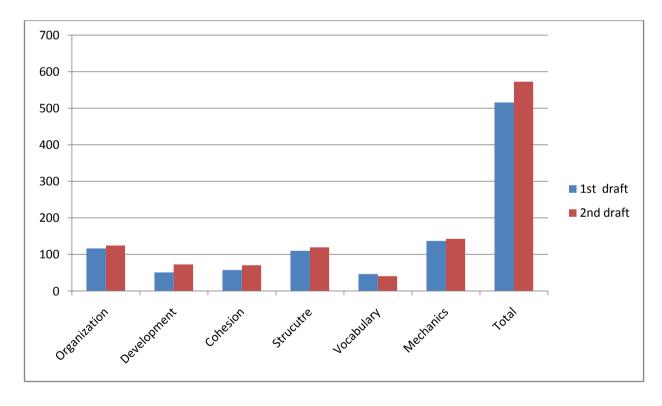


Figure (10)

Overall Ranking of BSB Students for all Writing Categories

The above table and figure show the overall ratings of BSB students for the different rubrics or categories of writing, they demonstrate where students find difficulty the most. As we can see the overall of students' rating is out of 2520 which is clearly low in all the categories and reflect low level of writing capacity. However

some categories mark even lower level than the others in both the first and the second drafts, for example: development, cohesion and vocabulary we marked 2.02% for the first draft and 2.89% for the second, (3.30% - 2.79%) and (1.86% - 1.62%) respectively.

Table (16)

Overall Percentages of the Different Categories for DSEB Students

Rubrics	Overall rating		percentag	e100%	classification	
	1 st draft	2 nd draft	1 st D	2 nd D	1 st D	2 nd D
Organization	149	159	5.39%	5.76%	03	03
Development	84	88	3.04%	3.18%	04	05
Cohesion	83	92	3.00%	3.33%	05	04
Structure	155	175.5	5.61%	6.35%	02	02
Vocabulary	52	50	1.88%	1.81%	06	06
Mechanics	177	197.5	6.41%	7.15%	01	01
total	700	762	25.36%	27.60%	06	06

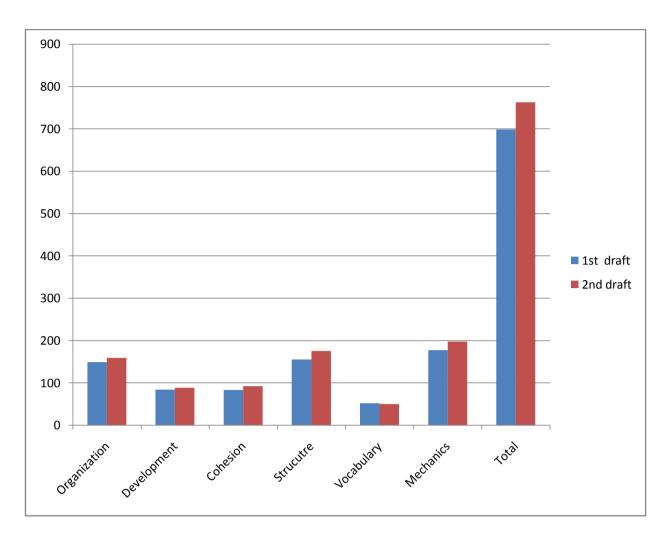


Figure (11)
Overall Ranking of DSEB Students for all Writing Categories

The results obtained from the above table and figure display the general ranking of DSEB students in the different rubrics. The findings show a great deficiency in all the categories of writing for the students, when comparing the first drafts grading and that of the second one we find some improvement but even though still considered as very low. Indeed, we noticed overall grading of the development rubric was 3.04 for the first drafts and 3.18% for the second drafts, the cohesion 2.30% for the first draft and 3.33% for the second drafts; yet we find a lower ranking for vocabulary in second draft with 1.88% the first draft and 1.81% for the second. However some categories where the ranking was a little better than others as follow: the organization 5.39% the first drafts and 5.76% the second drafts, the structure 5.61% the first and 6.35% for the

second drafts, and last the mechanics we have 6.41% in the first drafts and 7.15% the second drafts.

To sum up we can say that the above mentioned results show that ESB students have difficulty and low level of writing capacity in all the writing categories, but they need more help in some rubrics than others namely: development, coherence and vocabulary; this help is reflected in the results of both BSB and DSEB students.

4.1.2 The Result of the study Related to Question two: (Are students' needs different between males and females?)

To answer this research question, various hypotheses were developed; we attempt to test the related ones:

1 there will be statistical significant differences between males and females for BSB students:

To test this hypothesis, the researcher computed the means, the standard deviation and conducted T-test for two independent samples. The results are shown in table (17).

Table (17)
Results of T-test of BSB Students in Relation to Sex

Cycle	sex	N	Mean	Std.Dev	T	(Sig) P- value
1 st draft	Male	28	10.96	04.87	-2,617	,012
	Female	14	14.92	04.07		
and a g	Male	28	12.10	05.08	-3,057	,004
2 nd draft	Female	14	16.71	03.40		

As shown in the above table there is a significant difference noted at the level of 0.05 between male and female for both the first and the second draft. The results of this test show a significant difference in favor of the females for the first draft who scored 14.92, which is higher than the males who scored 10.96, where the value of P was .012 which is significant at the level of ($\infty \le .05$) as this value is clearly less than .05. The same difference was found for the second draft where female scored 16.71 which is clearly higher than the males who scored 12.10, where the value of P was .004 which represents a significant difference at the level of .05 as this value is also lower than .05.

2 there will be statistical significant differences between males and females for DSEB students:

To test this hypothesis, the researcher computed the means, the standard deviation and conducted T-test for two independent samples. The results are displayed in the below table (18).

Table (18)

Results of T-test of DSEB Students in Relation to Sex

Cycle	sex	N	Mean	Std.Dev	T	(Sig) P- value
1 st draft	Male	22	11.54	02.62	-8,299	,000
1 uran	Female	24	18.54	03.05		
	Male	22	12.86	02.94	-6,995	,000
2 nd draft	Female	24	20.00	03.86		

As revealed in the above table, there is a significant difference between males and females of DSEB students for both the first and the second draft. The results have shown that the females scored higher than males in the first draft, they scored 18.54 which higher than males who scored 11.54 with a difference of 07 which is highly significant. As for the second draft, we can see that there is clear significant difference also between males and females where the females score was higher than males, the females mean was (M=20.00) which is highly different compared with males score which was at (M=12.86). Therefore the related hypothesis is confirmed and we can say

that there is a clear significant difference between males and females for DSEB students in both first draft and second draft.

4.1.3 The Result of the study Related to Question three: (Does the current program taught match the needs of ESB students?).

As an attempt to answer this question, the researcher designed a questionnaire that was administered to the ESB students as a needs analysis process from which we can have a clear view point from the population concerned by the teaching of ESP writing program.

From the first and the second research questions we have seen that the ESB students have specific needs related to ESP writing which was reflected in their first and second drafts when writing formal letters, these needs were in all the categories of writing rubrics. Yet, students' draft can't give us a clear and complete picture of participants' writing ability. For this reason, we deemed it essential to use other research tools to reinforce and confirm the data collected and to complete any possible missing data.

To test and investigate whether the current program taught match and meets students' needs, we have designed a questionnaire which will give us a view of the difficulties that students may encounter and allow the participants freedom to express themselves and talk about the program taught at the ESB, i.e. expressing their needs when they try to transfer from General English to ESP writing. The questionnaire is divided into five parts where the second part deals with the different needs of ESB students concerning ESP writing.

The second part of the questionnaire consists of eight questions and for each question the participants needed to provide explanations if the answer is "no", thus the total number of questions was 16 questions.

To analyze the data collected from the second part of the questionnaire, we used both quantitative and qualitative methods. For the close-ended questions we counted the frequencies of all similar questions, the answers were put together and counted in order to get the percentage. As for the open-ended questions we analyzed them by using a qualitative method, we organized students' answered by clustering similar ideas together into categories.

4.1.3.1 Results Obtained from Students' Questionnaire:

Q 01: the English writing program provides me with technical vocabulary I need in my field of study.

ESB students are asked to answer by *YES* or *NO*, the answers were gathered in tables (13) and (14) as follows:

Table (19)

Frequencies and Percentages of BSB Students' Responses in Relation to Teaching

Vocabulary

Sex	yes	%	No	%
Male	00	00%	28	66.66
Female	00	00%	14	33.33
Total	00	00%	42	100%

Table (20)

Frequencies and Percentages of DSEB Students' Responses in Relation to

Teaching Vocabulary

Sex	Yes	%	No	%
Male	00	00%	22	47.82
Female	00	00%	24	52.17
Total	00	00%	46	100%

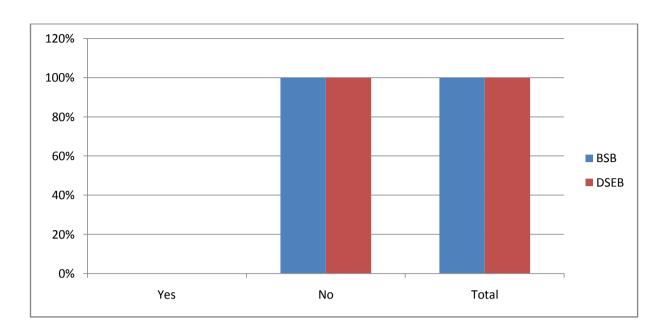


Figure (12)

Percentages of BSB and DSEB Students' Responses to the Teaching of Technical Vocabulary

As can be seen in tables (19), (20) and chart (12), no respondent answered *YES* to the first question of the questionnaire. All the respondents weren't satisfied with the current program in terms of teaching Technical Vocabulary, 42 for BSB students and 46 for DSEB students which represents the total number in both cycles they all answered *NO*.

Q 02: if NO, say why.

For this question, the students were asked to provide explanation in case the answer was NO. The answers collected from the participants varied in terms of the reasons presented:

- Some students reflected the reasons to themselves whether by blaming themselves for lack of knowledge, low level of English, the psychological factors (not loving the language) or even lack of serious work from their part.
- Other students blamed whether the teachers, the condition of the lesson in terms of the noise, the low voice of the teacher or even the number of hours allocated

- to the subject and the large classrooms among others.
- The rest of students didn't even know the exact reasons for not being satisfied about the current writing program in terms of teaching technical vocabulary.

Therefore, the reasons were divided into three categories:

- 1. Internal factors,
- 2. External factors
- 3. Others.

The following table shows the responses of both BSB and DSEB students.

Table (21)

Reasons Provided by BSB and DSEB Students in Relation to the their

Dissatisfaction about the Teaching of Technical Vocabulary

Reasons	S BSB DSEB		SEB	
	N	%	N	0/0
Internal		26.19%		13.04%
	11		6	
External		64.28%		78.26%
	27		36	
Other		9.52%		8.69%
	4		4	
Total		100%		100%
	42		46	

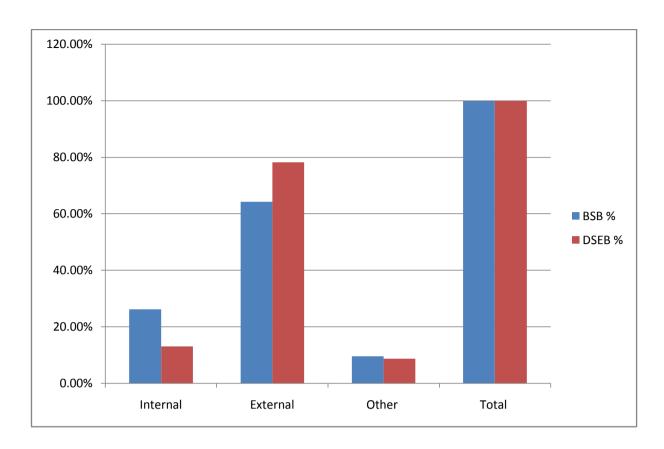


Figure (13)

Percentages of the Reasons Provided by BSB and DSEB Students for their Dissatisfaction about the Technical Vocabulary Teaching

From figure (13) and the table (21) we can clearly see that most of reasons provided by both BSB and DSEB students were external ones. This is quite comprehensive situation because ESB students expect to improve their technical vocabulary while studying in the school through the program taught since they don't have any prior knowledge in the field. Therefore, the reasons for not being satisfied with the teaching of Vocabulary are not theirs.

Q 03: the English writing program enables me to fix my problems with punctuation:

ESB students are asked to answer by YES or NO, the answers were presented in the tables below:

Table (22)

Frequencies and Percentages of BSB Students' Responses in Relation to Problems
of Punctuation

Sex	Yes	%	No	%
Male	10	23.80%	18	42.85%
Female	6	14.28%	8	19.09%
total	16	38.09%	26	61.90%

Table (23)

Frequencies and Percentages of DSEB Students' Responses in Relation to

Problems of Punctuation

Sex	Yes	%	No	%
Male	12	26.08%	10	21.73%
Female	15	32.60%	9	19.56%
total	27	58.69%	19	41.30%

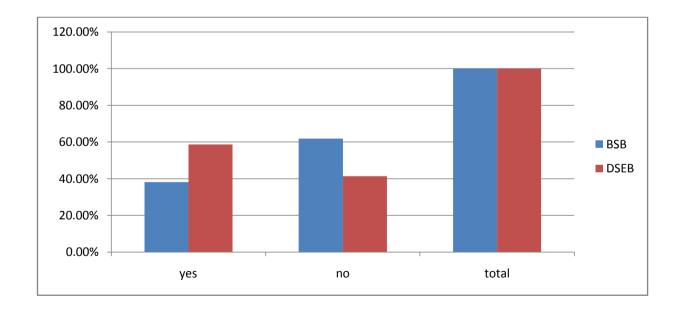


Figure (14)
Percentages of BSB and DSEB Students' Responses in Relation to Punctuation

The above tables and figure show the responses of BSB and DSEB students for the question about punctuation. The answers of the students show some discrepancies between BSB and DSEB. It is clear that there is difference in their responses, where 38.09% of BSB students answered *YES* and 61.90 didn't agree about the punctuation issue. Concerning DSEB students 58.69% answered *YES* and 41.30 answered *NO*. This difference may be due to the fact that the students have already studied punctuation before so they have some knowledge about it for this reason not all of them answered *NO*.

Q 04: if NO, say why.

For this question students provided different answers which varied between internal, external and other reasons not specified. The answers are shown in the following table:

Table (24)

Responses of BSB and DSEB Students for the Reasons Provided in Relation to
Problems of Punctuation

Reasons	I	BSB	D	SEB
	N	%	N	%
Internal		30.76%		68.42%
	8		13	
External		57.69%		15.78%
	15		3	
Other		11.53%		15.78%
	3		3	
Total		100%		100%
	26		19	

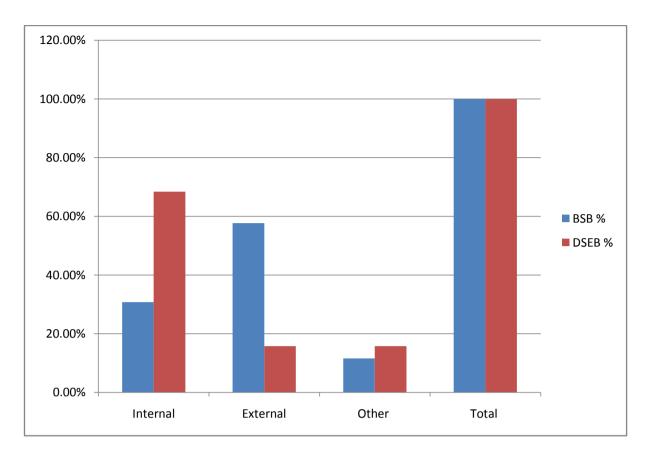


Figure (15)

Percentages of BSB and DSEB Students' Responses for the Problems of Punctuation

As shown in table (24) and figure (15) there are some discrepancies in the responses of both BSB and DSEB students. Indeed, the external reasons presented by BSB students represented 57.69% which is higher than the internal reasons and the none specified ones whereas for DSEB students, the internal reasons represented the higher percentage with 68.42%.

Q 05: the English writing program allows me to use texts and pieces of writing relevant to my field of study.

The following tables show the responses of the participants who had the choice to answer whether by YES or NO.

Table (25)

Frequencies and Percentages of BSB Students' Responses in Relation to the Use of Texts Relevant to the Baking Field

Sex	Yes	%	No	%
27.1		4.7.60/		c1 000/
Male	2	4.76%	26	61.90%
Female	1	2.38%	13	30.95%
total	3	7.14%	39	92.85%

Table (26)

Frequencies and Percentages of DSEB Students' Responses in Relation to the Use of Texts Relevant to the Baking Field

Sex	Yes	%	No	%
Male	1	2.17%	21	45.65%
Female	0	00%	24	52.17%
total	1	2.17%	45	97.82%

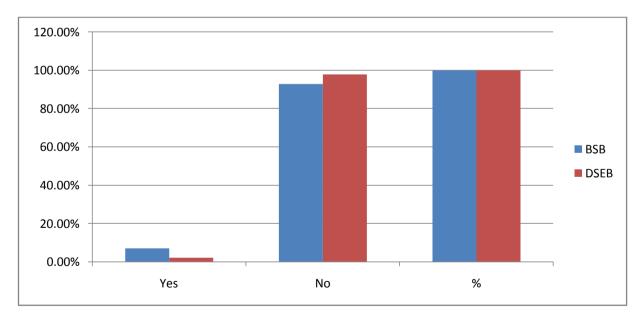


Figure (16)

Percentages of BSB and DSEB Students' Responses in Relation to Texts Relevance to the Banking Field

The tables (25),(26) and figure (16) display the results of students' responses to question five in relation to the use of texts and pieces of writing relevant to the field of banking in ESB. As revealed in the tables and figure, the students' answers about the above question were mostly negative, 92.85% and 97.82% of BSB and DSEB student answered NO respectively. Therefore, and from the students' answers we can have a clear view about the current writing program of ESP which doesn't provide the required knowledge about ESP writing in relation to texts and pieces of writing relevant to their field.

Q 06: if NO, say why.

The reasons students presented are displayed in the following table and demonstrated by the figure below:

Table (27)
Reasons Provided by BSB and DSEB Students in Relation to the Use of Texts and
Pieces of Writing Relevant to Banking

Reasons]	BSB	D	SEB
	N	%	N	%
Internal		25.64%		00%
	10		0	
External		71.79%		86.66%
	28		39	
Other		2.56%		13.33%
	1		6	
Total		100%		100%
	39		45	

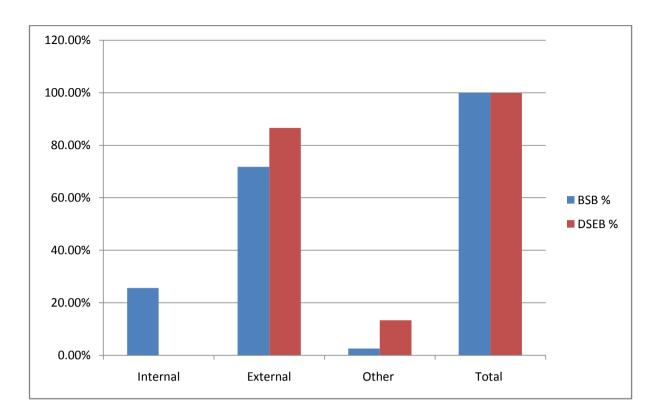


Figure (17)

Percentages of BSB and DSEB Students' Reasons for the Irrelevance of the Texts Related to the Banking Field

The above table and figure reveal students' responses related to question six (06). In this question, students were asked to provide reasons about their dissatisfaction in terms of the use of texts and pieces of writing relevant to their field. As can be seen the majority of students attributed the reasons of their non agreement about the question to the external factors. We find 71.79% for BSB and 86.66% for DSEB which represent the highest percentages compared with the internal reasons and the other ones not specified. This situation can be seen as follow: students start learning about their field while attending the lessons at ESB which means that they didn't have a prior knowledge about the subject. It is at the school that students start learning, they expect the ESP teacher to provide them with the necessary knowledge about the banking field. So they do not attribute the reasons to themselves, instead they refer that to the external factors apart from themselves.

Q 07: The English writing program enables to express myself in writing about my field of study.

The participants needed to show whether they agree with the statement above or not. To answer this question they had to answer by *YES* or *No*. the tables below show the results.

Table (28)

Frequencies and Percentages of BSB Students' Responses in Relation to Writing about Banking

Sex	Yes	%	No	%
Male		00%		66.66%
	0		28	
Female		00%		33.33%
	0		14	
total		00%		100%
	0		42	

Table (29)

Frequencies and Percentages of DSEB Students' Responses in Relation to
Writing about Banking

Sex	Yes	%	No	%
Male		00%		47.82%
	0		22	
Female		00%		52.17%
	0		24	
total		00%		100%
	0		46	

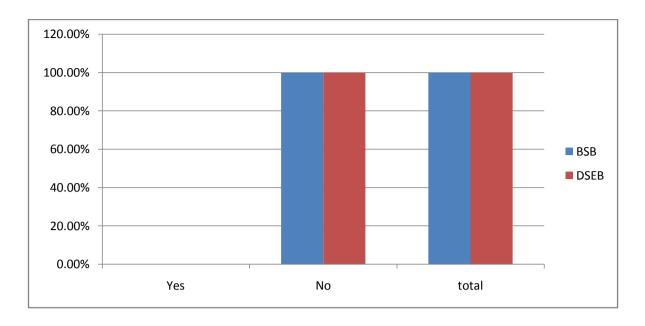


Figure (18)

Percentages of BSB and DSEB Students' Responses in Relation to Expressing Themselves in Writing about Banking

As shown in tables (28) (29) and figure (18), the responses of the subject for question (07) show that all the participants didn't agree about expressing themselves in writing about their field (banking). For both BSB and DSEB no one answered *YES*, 42 for BSB and 46 for DSEB which represents 100% answered *NO*. This means that all the participants are not satisfied with writing about banking.

Q 08: if NO, say why.

Table (30)
BSB and DSEB Students' Reasons Related to Writing about Banking

Reasons	1	BSB		SEB
	N	%	N	%
Internal	5	11.90%	1	4.34%
External	37	88.09%	41	89.13%
Other	0	00%	4	8.69%
Total	42	100%	46	100%

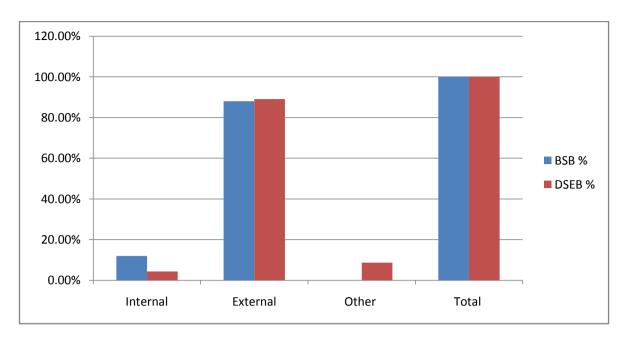


Figure (19)

Percentages of BSB and DSEB Students' Reasons for their Inability to Expressing Themselves in Writing about Banking

As revealed in the above table (30) and figure (19), the reasons presented by the students for not being satisfied in expressing themselves in writing about their field were mainly external for both BSB and DSEB. 88.09% of BSB students attributed the non agreement about writing expression in baking field for external reasons and 89.13% of DSEB students also reflected the reasons to external factors too.

Q 09: The materials provided in the English writing program can be easily obtained by all the students.

Here again students were asked to answer by YES or NO. The answers are displayed in the following tables and clarified by the figure that follows.

Table (31)

Frequencies and Percentages of BSB Students' Responses about the Availability of the Materials Provided in the English Writing Program

Sex	Yes	%	No	%
Male	25	59.52%	3	7.14%
Female	12	28.57%	2	4.76%
total	37	88.09%	5	11.90%

Table (32)

Frequencies and Percentages of DSEB Students' Responses about the Availability of the Material Provided in the English Writing Program

Sex	Yes	%	No	%
Male	21	45.65%	1	2.17%
Female	24	52.17%	0	00%
total	45	97.82%	1	2.17%

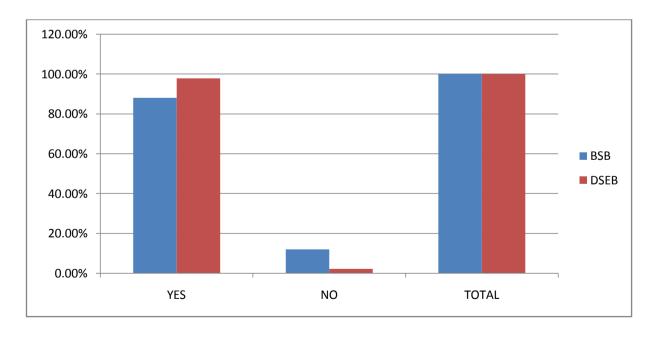


Figure (20)

Percentages of BSB and DSEB Students' Responses in Relation to the Materials
Provided in the English Writing Program

As can be seen from the above tables (31, 32) and figure (20), the majority of students agree about the availability of materials in the English writing program. 88.09% of BSB students answered *YES* and only 11.90% answered *NO*, as for DSEB students we have 97.82% of the total number of the participants answered *YES* and only 2.17% didn't agree and answered *NO*. Therefore, the majority of the subjects agreed that the materiel provided by the teachers were available for students.

Q 10: if **NO**, say why?

As the previous question of the same kind, here students are also asked to provide reasons for not agreeing with the availability of the material provided in the English writing program taught in ESB. As can be recognized there are few students who answered NO, the table and the figure below show the related responses.

Table (33)

Percentages of BSB and DSEB Students' Reasons for the Unavailability of the Materials Provided in the English Writing Program at ESB

Reasons	BSB		DS	SEB
	N	%	N	%
Internal	5	100%	1	100%
External	3	00%	1	00%
	0		0	
Other	0	00%	0	00%
Total		100%		100%
	5		1	

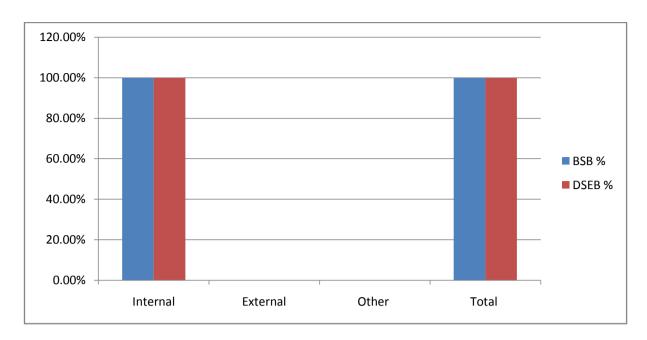


Figure (21)

Percentages of BSB and DSEB Students' Responses about the Reasons of the Materials' Unavailability in the English Writing Program

The above table and figure show the results of the students' responses about the unavailability of material in the English writing program at the ESB. The results show clearly that all the participants attributed the reasons of the unavailability of the materials to themselves not to any external reasons. Five (05) participants representing 100% of the subjects in BSB and the only student in DSEB they all chose the internal reasons. This can be seen as part of their responsibility to collect the handouts provided by the teacher since the latter is committed to give the students any material related to the subject.

Q 11: The training materials provided in the in the English writing program are appropriate to my level of English. (YES or NO)

The following tables and figure show the results related to this question as follow:

Table (34)

Frequencies and Percentages of BSB Students' Responses about the Appropriateness of the Materials Provided to the Level of Students

Sex	Yes	%	No	%
Male	3	7.14%	25	59.52%
Female	1	2.38%	13	30.95%
total	4	9.52%	38	90.47%

Table (35)

Frequencies and Percentages of DSEB Students' Responses about the Appropriateness of the Materials Provided to the Level of Students

Sex	Yes	%	No	%
Male	4	8.69%	18	39.13%
Female	6	13.04%	18	39.13%
total	10	21.73%	36	78.26%

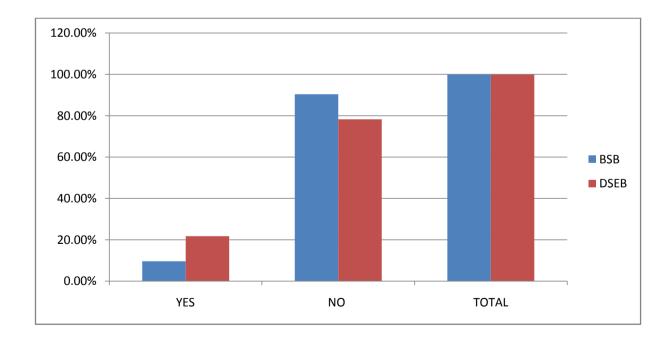


Figure (22)

Percentages of BSB and DSEB Students' Responses about the Appropriateness of the Materials in the English Writing Program

The tables (34) (35) and figure (22) show the frequencies and percentages of the appropriateness of the materials provided in the English writing program at the ESB. As can be seen the larger number of the responses was *NO* with 90.47% and 78.26% for both BSB and DSEB respectively. As for the respondent by *YES* were 9.52% for BSB and 21.73% for DSEB.

Q12: if no, say why

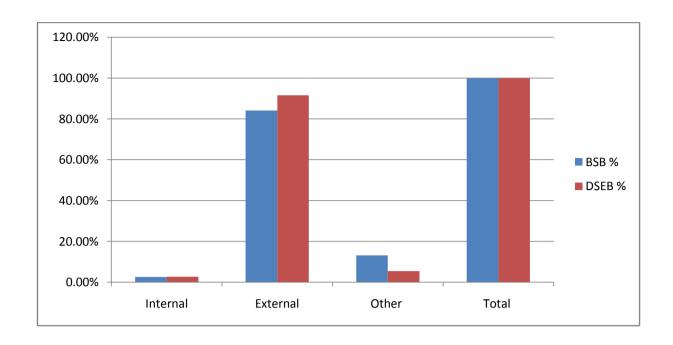
The answers for this question are displayed in the following table where the reasons varied between internal, external or other reasons not specified.

Table (36)

Reasons of the Inappropriateness of the Materials to the Level of BSB and DSEB

Students

Reasons	BSB		DSEB	
	N	%	N	%
Internal		2.63%		2.77%
	1		1	
External		84.21%		91.66%
	32		33	
Other		13.15%		5.55%
	5		2	
Total		100%		100%
	38		36	



Percentages of the Reasons Provided by BSB and DSEB Students about the Inappropriateness of the Materials to the Level of Students

Figure (23)

As can be seen in the table and figure above, the largest number of the reasons provided by the students about the inappropriateness of the materials to the level of students was given to the external factors as follow: 84.21% for BSB and 91.66% for DSEB. As for the internal reasons and the others not specified, they came second with very small numbers. The reasons that are not specified was 13.15% for BSB and 5.55% for DSEB, then come the external factors as third which comprise 2.63% for BSB and 2.77% for DSEB.

Q 13: the training materials provided in the English writing program are clear, interesting and nicely printed. (YES or NO)

Table (37)

Frequencies and Percentages of BSB Students' Responses about the Quality of the Materials Provided in the English Writing Program

Sex	Yes	%	No	%
Male	1	2.38%	27	64.28%
Female	1	2.38%	13	30.95%
total	2	4.76%	40	95.23%

Table (38)

Frequencies and Percentages of DSEB Students' Responses about the Quality of the Materials Provided in the English Writing Program

Sex	Yes	%	No	%
Male	10	21.73%	12	26.08%
Female	9	19.56%	15	32.60%
total	19	41.30%	27	58.69%

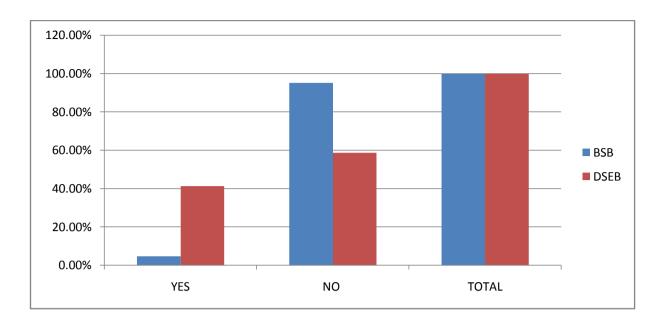


Figure (24)

Percentages of BSB and DSEB Students' Responses about the Quality of the Materials Provided in the English Writing Program

As revealed in the above tables and figure, the majority of the respondents didn't agree about the quality of the materials provided in the English writing program at ESB. 95.23% BSB students answered *NO* and only 4.76% responded *YES*, as for DSEB students 58.69% of them answered *NO* and the rest of students responded *YES*.

Q 14: if no, say why

There have been different reasons presented by the subjects which were the same as the previous questions similar to this one (internal, external and other reasons not specified) the table and figure below show the results to this question.

Table (39)

Reasons of BSB and DSEB Students' Dissatisfaction about the Quality of the Materials Provided in the English Writing Program

Reasons	BSB DSEB		SEB	
	N	%	N	%
Internal	0	00%	0	00%
External	39	97.5%	27	100%
Other	1	2.5%	0	00%
Total	40	100%	27	100%

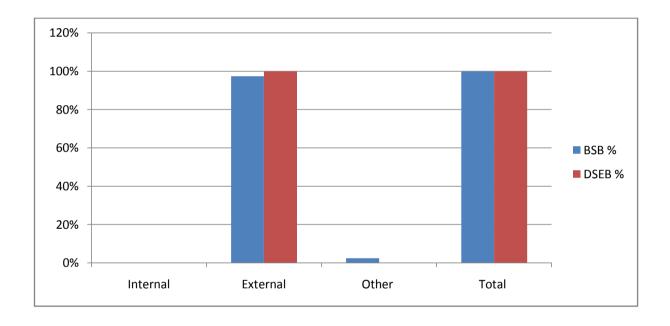


Figure (25)

Percentages of BSB and DSEB Students' Reasons for their Dissatisfaction about the Quality of the Materials Provided in the English Writing Program

From table (39) and figure (25), we can see clearly that almost all the participants reflected the reasons of their dissatisfaction about the quality of the materials provided in the English writing program to the external reasons, we have 97.5% of BSB students attributed their dissatisfaction to external reasons and only

2.5% fell under the category of other reasons not specified, concerning DSEB students they all chose the external reasons for not being satisfied with the said materials.

Q 15: the number of hours allocated to the subject is sufficient to acquire knowledge about ESP writing (YES or No)

Table (40)

Frequencies and Percentages of BSB Students' Responses about the Number of Hours Allocated to ESP Writing

Sex	Yes	%	No	%
Male	0	00%	28	66.66%
Female	0	00%	14	33.33%
total	0	00%	42	100%

Table (41)

Frequencies and Percentages of DSEB Students' Responses about the Number of
Hours Allocated to ESP Writing

Sex	Yes	%	No	%
Male	0	00%	22	47.82%
Female	1	2.17%	23	50.00%
total	1	2.17%	45	97.82%

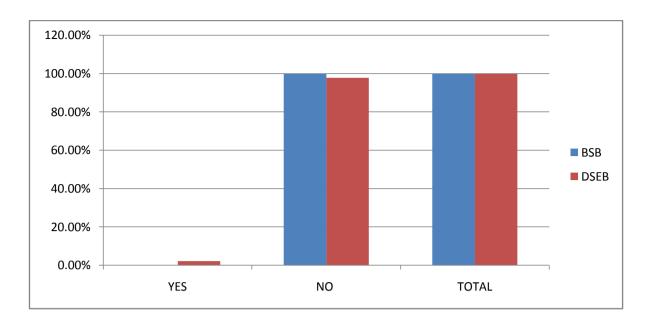


Figure (26)

Percentages of BSB and DSEB Students' Responses about the Number of Hours Allocated to ESP Writing

As shown in tables (40, 41) and figure (26), the results reveal that almost all the participants think that the number of hours allocated to the subject is not sufficient to acquire knowledge about ESP writing. 100% and 97.82% of BSB and DSEB students respectively answered *NO* to the question, only 2.17% representing one student in DSEB answered *YES*.

Q16: if no, say why: The table and figure below show the results as follow

Table (42)

Reasons of BSB and DSEB Students for their Dissatisfaction about the Number of Hours Allocated to ESP Writing Program

Reasons]	BSB		SEB
	N	%	N	%
Internal	12	28.57%	0	00%
External	21	50.00%	45	100%
Other	9	21.42%	0	00%
Total	42	100%	45	100%

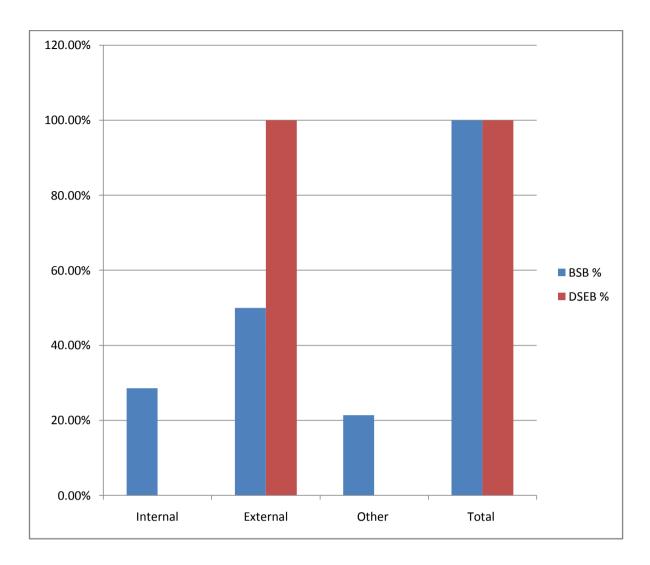


Figure (27)

Percentages of BSB and DSEB Students' Reasons for their Dissatisfaction about the Number of Hours Allocated to ESP Writing

Table (42) and figure (27) show the reasons presented by the students for their dissatisfaction about the number of hours allocated to the ESP writing. The results reveal that the majority of the participants reflect their dissatisfaction to external reasons with 50.00% for BSB and 100% for DSEB, which represents an important portion compared with the internal reasons and the other reasons not specified with 28.57% for BSB and 00% for DSEB, and 21.42% for BSB and 00% for DSEB respectively.

4.1.4 The Result of the study Related to Question Four: (Are the ways of assessment efficient in evaluating the students?)

The answer to this question is related to the third part of the questionnaire the researcher designed. She chose the Likert scale type, in this scale the respondents are asked to indicate the extent to which they "agree" or "disagree" with it by making one of the responses ranging from "agree" to "disagree".

The third part of the questionnaire consists of four statements in relation to tests and assessment. We will deal with them one by one in the next step.

N° 01: The teachers in the English writing program provide continuous assessment and give useful feedback about our progress during the lessons.

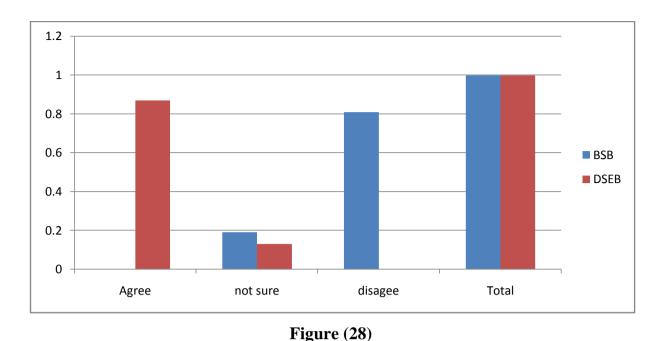
The answers to this question are displayed in the following tables for both BSB and DSEB.

Table (43)
Responses of BSB Students about the Continuous Assessment and Feedback

BSB				
Sex	Agree Not sure disagree total			
Male	0	3	25	28
Female	0	5	9	14
Total	0	8	34	42

Table (44)
Responses of DSEB Students about the Continuous Assessment and Feedback

DSEB					
Sex	Agree Not sure Disagree To				
Male	21	1	0	22	
Female	19	5	0	24	
Total	40	6	0	46	



BSB and DSEB Students' Responses to the Continuous Assessment and the

Related Feedback

As can be seen from the tables and figure above, the answers of the students ranged between "agree" and "disagree"; the students' opinion of the continuous assessment was relatively high. The answers of BSB students show that 80.95% disagreed about the fact that the teacher provides continuous assessment; however DSEB students agreed with 86.95%. Whereas the students who were "not sure" about the continuous assessment represented 19.04% for BSB and 13.04% for DSEB.

N° 02: The teachers in the English writing program provide summative assessment to all the students at the end of the program.

The below tables show the details of students' answers:

Table (45)
The Responses of BSB Students about the Summative Assessment

		BSB			
Sex	Agree Not sure disagree total				
Male	25	3	0	28	
Female	10	4	0	14	
Total	35	7	0	42	

Table (46)
The Responses of DSEB Students about the Summative Assessment

	DSEB			
	Agree	Not sure	disagree	total
Male	1	7	14	22
Female	0	9	15	24
Total	1	16	29	46

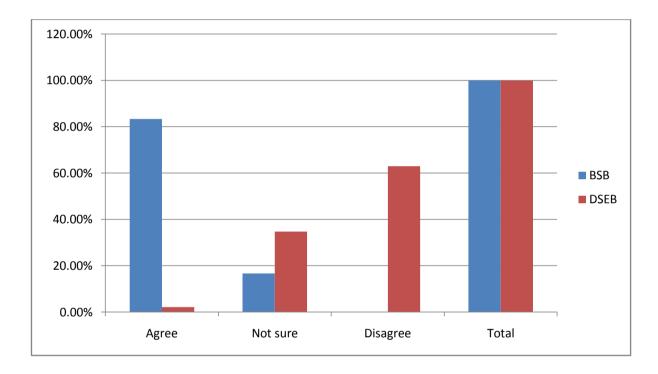


Figure (29)

BSB and DSEB Students' Responses about the Summative Assessment

Dealing with the summative assessment, and as shown in the above tables and figure BSB students responses were different from DSEB students as 83.33% agreed with summative assessment provided by the teacher at the end of the program whereas 63.04% of DSEB students disagreed with that. The small number remaining ranged between 16.66% of BSB students who agreed and 2.17% of DSEB students who were not sure about their answers.

N 3: The tests provided in the English writing program are suitable to levels of all the students.

Table (47)
Responses of BSB Students about the Suitability of the Tests to their Level

	BSB			
	Agree Not sure disagree total			
Male	0	13	15	28
Female	0	3	11	14
Total	0	16	26	42

Table (48)

Responses of DSEB Students about the Suitability of the Tests to their Level

	DSEB			
	Agree Not sure disagree total			
Male	0	0	22	22
Female	0	5	19	24
Total	0	5	41	46

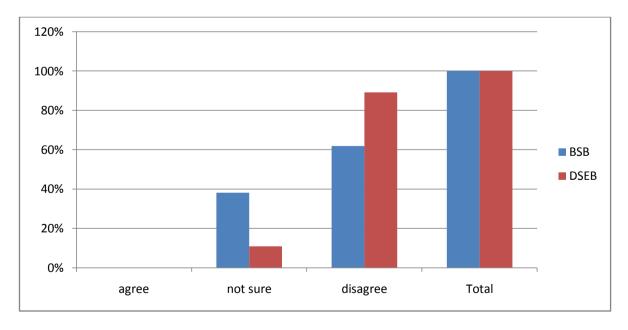


Figure (30)

Responses of BSB and DSEB Students for the Suitability of the Tests to the Level of all Students

For the suitability of the tests to the level of students, the answers of the respondent were relatively close; 61.90% of BSB students and 89.13 of DSEB students disagreed with that. No student agreed with the suitability of tests to the level of the students; however, some students could not decide and they answered with "not sure" for this question, we have 38.09 BSB students and 10.86 DSEB students which don't represent an important portion compared with those who disagreed.

N 04: The tests provided in the English writing program reflect what we need and what we are actually learning in the program

Table (49)
BSB Students' Responses about the Relation Between Tests and the Students'
Needs

	BSB			
	Agree Not sure disagree total			
Male	0	8	20	28
Female	0	2	12	14
Total	0	10	32	42

Table (50)

DSEB Students' Responses about the Relation Between Tests and the Students' Needs

	DSEB			
	Agree	Not sure	disagree	total
Male	0	0	22	22
Female	0	5	19	24
Total	0	5	41	46

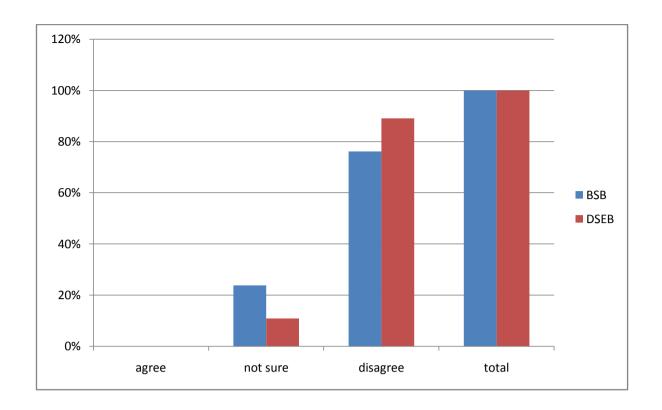


Figure (31)
Responses of BSB and DSEB Students for the Relation Between the Tests and the

Students' Learning Needs

The results presented in Figure (31) and tables (49, 50) show that the majority of the participants hold a negative attitude towards the relation between the tests and the students' learning needs. No participant agreed with the fourth statement about the tests and the students learning needs, 23.80% of BSB students and 10.86% of DSEB students were undecided or not sure and 76.19% of BSB students and 89.13% disagreed.

4.1.5 The Result of the study Related to Question five: (What is the role of ESP teacher in improving the students' ESP writing?)

The answer to this question is related to part four of the questionnaire. This part deals with the ESP teacher and how do ESB students see his role from different perspectives. It consists of seven opinions where students will answer them through choosing between 'agree', 'not sure' or 'disagree'

N 01: The teachers in the English writing program talk to us in English most of the time in a simple and clear way.

Table (51)
BSB Students' Responses to the ESP Teachers' Use of English

	BSB			
	Agree	Not sure	disagree	total
Male	20	7	1	28
Female	8	4	2	14
Total	27	11	3	42

Table (52)

DSEB Students' Responses to the ESP Teachers' Use of English

DSEB				
	Agree	Not sure	disagree	total
Male	19	2	1	22
Female	20	3	1	24
Total	39	5	2	46

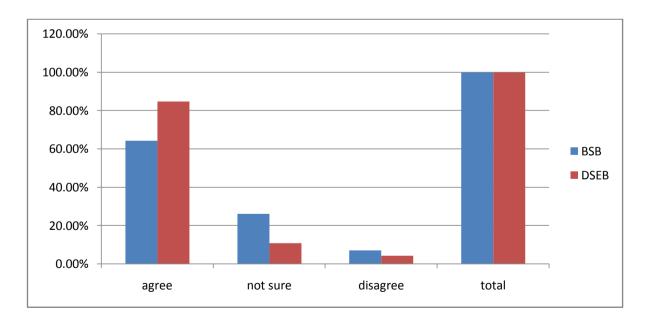


Figure (32)
BSB and DSEB Students' Responses for the ESP Teachers' Use of English

The results of "the ESP teachers' use of a clear and simple English most of the time" show that the majority of the participants hold a positive attitude towards it. 64.28 percent of BSB students and 84.78 percent of DSEB students agreed with it, 26.19 percent and 10.86 % of BSB and DSEB students respectively were undecided or not sure and only 7.14 percent of BSB students and 4.34% of DSEB students disagreed.

N 02: The teachers in the English writing program provide us good knowledge of the subject we study in English such as that related to banking, finance,...etc.

Table (53)
BSB Students' Responses about the Knowledge Provided by the ESP Teachers
Related to the Subject

BSB				
	Agree	Not sure	disagree	total
Male	0	10	18	28
Female	0	4	10	14
Total	0	14	28	42

Table (54)

DSEB Students' Responses about the Knowledge Provided by the ESP Teachers
Related to the Subject

DSEB				
	Agree	Not sure	disagree	total
Male	0	2	20	22
Female	0	3	21	24
Total	0	5	41	46

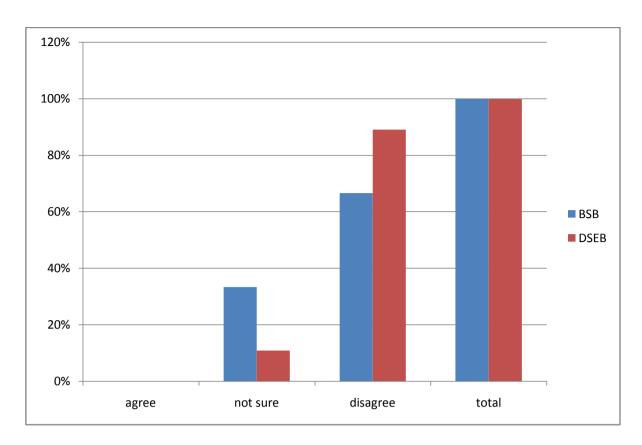


Figure (33)

BSB and DSEB Students' Responses about the Knowledge provided by the ESP Teachers Related to the Subject

The above tables and figure show that the majority of the participants have a negative opinion about 'the knowledge of subject provided by the ESP teachers'. 66.66% of BSB students and 89.13% of DSEB students disagreed with it, and 33.33% of BSB students and 10.86% of DSEB students were not sure. As for 'agree' no student responded for both BSB and DSEB.

N 03: The teachers in the English writing program use effective teaching techniques that help us understand the lessons more easily.

Table (55)
BSB Students' Responses for the Teaching Techniques Used by the Teachers

	BSB				
	Agree	Not sure	disagree	total	
Male	14	1	13	28	
Female	9	2	3	14	
Total	23	3	16	42	

Table (56)

DSEB Students' Responses for the Teaching Techniques Used by the Teachers

DSEB						
	Agree	Not sure	disagree	total		
Male	12	1	9	22		
Female	14	9	1	24		
Total	26	10	10	46		

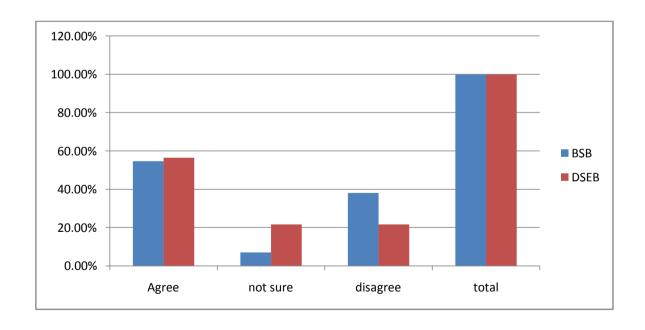


Figure (34)
BSB and DSEB Students' Responses for the Teaching Techniques Used by the Teachers

It is clear from the tables (55, 56) and figure (34) that there are some discrepancies in the students' responses about the use of teaching technique by the teachers. For BSB students, 54.76 percent agreed, 7.14 percent were neutral and 38.09 percent disagreed. As for DSEB students, 21.73% agreed, 67.39% weren't sure and 10.86% disagreed.

N 04: The teachers in the English writing program are clear about their objectives and the steps of their lessons, and deal with any teaching problem successfully.

Table (57)

BSB Students' Opinion about the Teachers' Objectives and the Teaching

Problems

BSB				
	Agree	Not sure	disagree	total
Male	7	21	0	28
Female	5	9	0	14
Total	12	30	0	42

Table (58)

DSEB Students' Opinion about the Teachers' Objectives and the Teaching

Problems

DSEB				
	Agree	Not sure	disagree	total
Male	3	19	0	22
Female	7	12	5	24
Total	10	31	5	46

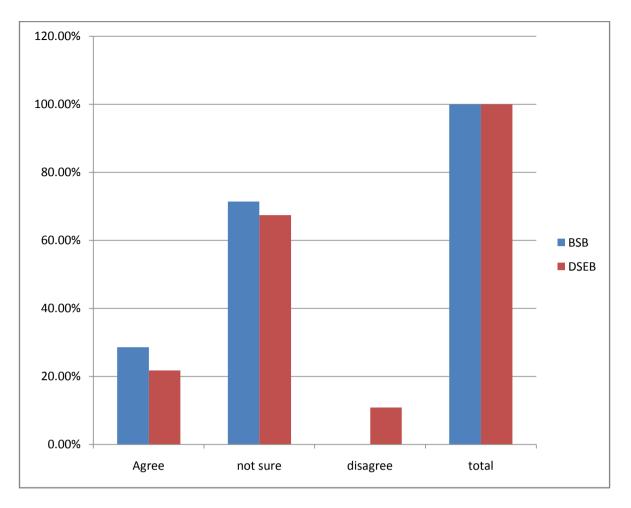


Figure (35)

BSB and DSEB Students' Responses about the Teachers' Objectives and the Teaching Problems

As can be seen from the above tables and figure concerning the teachers' objectives and the teaching problems, the answers varied between 'agree' and 'not sure' and a very small number of 5 students representing 10.86% only disagreed. Indeed, for BSB students we have 28.57% of the participants agreed, 71.42% who were not sure and no student disagreed. As for DSEB students: 21.73% of the total number of students agreed, 67.39% were neutral and 10.86% disagreed.

N 05: The teachers are aware of the students' individual differences and needs and adapt their teaching accordingly

Table (59)

BSB Students' Responses for the Teachers' Awareness of the Students'

Individual Differences

	BSB				
	Agree Not sure disagree to				
Male	0	25	3	28	
Female	0	13	1	14	
Total	0	38	4	42	

Table (60)

DSEB Students' Responses for the Teachers' Awareness of the Students'

Individual Differences

		DSEB			
	Agree Not sure disagree total				
Male	2	19	1	22	
Female	3	14	7	24	
Total	5	33	8	46	

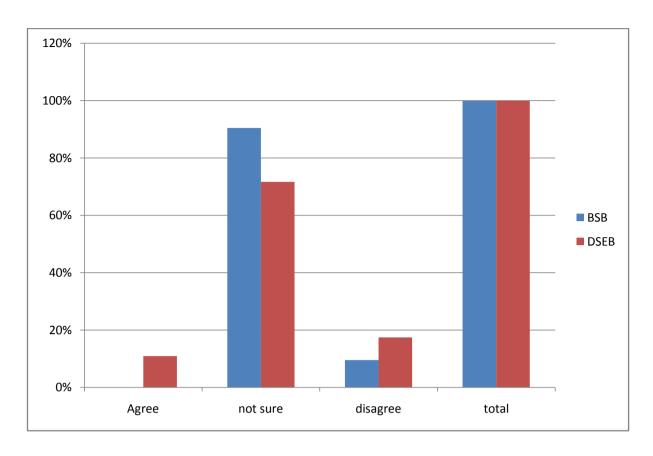


Figure (36)

BSB and DSEB Students' Responses for the Teachers' Awareness of the Students' Individual Differences

The tables and figure above reveal the students' answers for the teachers' awareness of the students' individual differences. For BSB students: no student agreed with it, 90.47% weren't sure and 9.52% disagreed. For DSEB students: 10.86% agreed, 71.73% not sure and 17.39% were dissatisfied

N 06: English teachers have good knowledge of how to motivate students

Table (61)

BSB Students' Responses for the Teacher' Knowledge on How to Motivate students

	BSB			
	Agree	Not sure	disagree	total
Male	14	1	13	28
Female	6	0	8	14
Total	20	1	21	42

Table (62)

DSEB Students' Responses for the Teacher' Knowledge on How to Motivate students

		DSEB			
	Agree Not sure disagree tota				
Male	6	2	14	22	
Female	5	6	13	24	
Total	11	8	27	46	

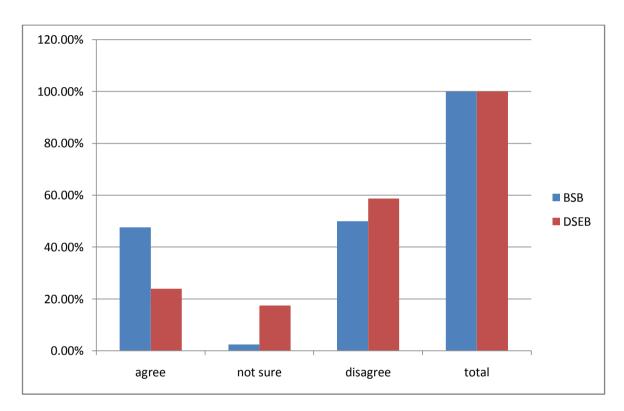


Figure (37)

BSB and DSEB Students' Responses for the Teachers' Knowledge on How to Motivate Students

Concerning the students' responses about the teachers' knowledge for motivating students, we can seen from the results displayed in the above tables and figure that 47.61% of BSB students agreed with the teachers' knowledge in motivating students, 2.38% were not sure and 50.00% disagreed. Concerning DSEB students 23.91% agreed, 17.39% weren't sure and 58.69% disagreed.

N 07: English teachers know well how to teach writing activities

Table (63)
Responses of BSB Students for the Teachers' Knowledge about the Teaching of
Writing Activities

vviiting fieuvities				
	BSB			
	Agree Not sure disagree total			
Male	0	15	13	28
Female	0	5	9	14
Total	0	20	22	42

Table (64)
Responses of DSEB Students for the Teachers' Knowledge about the Teaching of Writing Activities

	DSEB			
	Agree Not sure disagree total			
Male	0	12	10	22
Female	1	14	9	24
Total	1	26	19	46

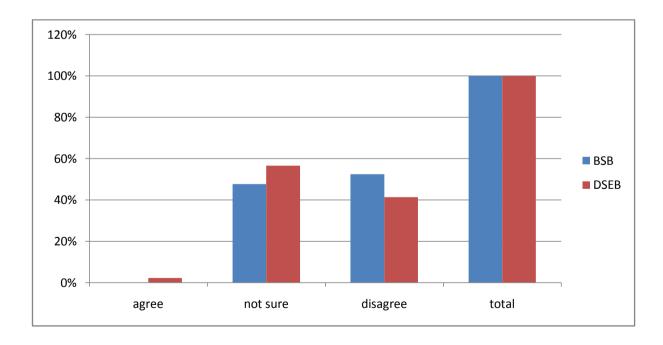


Figure (38)

BSB and DSEB Students' Responses for the Teachers' Knowledge about the Teaching of Writing Activities

Students' opinion about teachers' knowledge of writing activities was expressed

through the above tables and figure. The results varied between those who were not

sure and the students who disagreed. For BSB students: no student agreed with the

teachers' knowledge of the writing activities, 47.61% were not sure and 52.38%

disagreed. As for DSEB students only 2.17% agreed, 56.52% were neutral and

41.30% disagreed with the teachers' knowledge of the writing activities.

Part V of the Questionnaire:

The fifth part of the questionnaire and the last, deals with the participants' view

and knowledge of the formal letter's layout, it is divided into four sections namely: the

Opening sentences, closing sentences, formal phrases, and the formal letter content.

This part of the questionnaire is linked to the first research question dealing with the

students' needs and difficulties in transferring their knowledge from general English

writing to ESP. The first part of the first research question was answered through

students' drafts using Paulu's scale in terms of organization, development, coherence,

vocabulary, structure and mechanics. Yet, this part will investigate students'

knowledge from another perspective i.e. the formal letters' layout, the formal

expressions used (opening and closing sentences) and the letter content.

This part will give us a clear vision about the students' perception and

knowledge of the formal letters' writing, through it we will know in depth about the

difficulties that encounter the students while transferring their prior knowledge

acquired in general English to ESP writing. With this part of the questionnaire we

attempt to gather more information about students' difficulties and investigate the

students' needs thoroughly. We will start presenting the results related to each of them.

Section 01: the Letter Layout

1 In a formal letter you put your address on: (Circle the right answer)

The right hand side

the left hand side

the center of the page

196

Table (65)
BSB Responses for the Place of the Sender's Address in a Formal Letter

	BSB			
	Right	Left	Center	Total
Male	27	1	0	28
Female	14	0	0	14
Total	41	1	0	42

Table (66)

DSEB Responses for the Place of the Sender's Address in a Formal Letter

	DSEB			
	Right	Left	Center	Total
Male	22	0	0	22
Female	22	2	0	24
Total	44	2	0	46

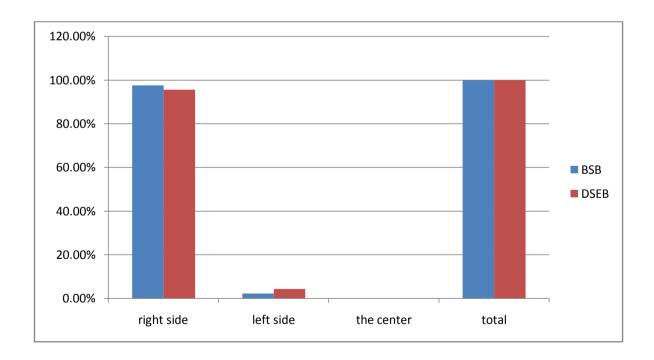


Figure (39)
BSB and DSEB Students' Responses for the Place of the Sender's Address in the Formal Letter

When asked the students to decide about the place of the sender's place in a formal letter, the majority of both BSB and DSEB students chose the right had side. The results show that 97.61% of BSB students selected the right hand side, 2.38% chose the left had side and no participant chose the center of the page. As for DSEB we have 95.65% of the students agreed, 4.34% neutral and no one selected the center of the page.

2 In a formal letter you write the full date:

The right hand side the left hand side the center of the page

Table (67) BSB Responses for the Place of the Date in the Formal Letter

	BSB			
	Right	Left	Center	Total
Male	0	28	0	28
Female	0	14	0	14
Total	0	42	0	42

Table (68)
DSEB Responses for the Place of the Date in the Formal Letter

	DSEB			
	Right	Left	Center	Total
Male	1	21	0	22
Female	0	24	0	24
Total	1	45	0	46

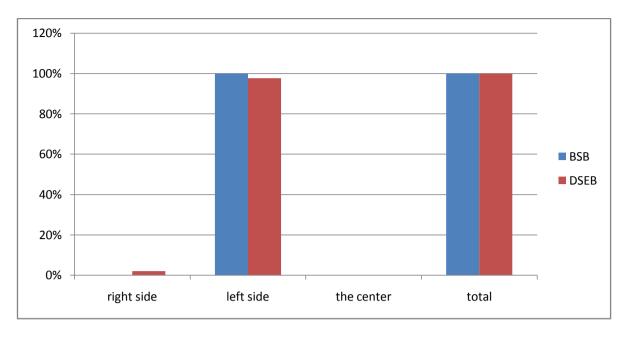


Figure (40)

BSB and DSEB Students' Responses for the Place of the Date in the Formal Letter

The results show that almost all the participants decided to put the date in left hand side of the formal letter 100% of BSB students and 97.82% of DSEB students, only 2.17% of DSEB students chose right hand side.

3 In a formal letter you put the name and address of the person you are writing to on:

The right hand side the left hand side the center of the page

Table (69)
BSB Responses for the Place of the Receiver' Name and Address

		BSB			
	Right	Left	Center	Total	
Male	0	28	0	28	
Female	0	14	0	14	
Total	0	42	0	42	

Table (70)

DSEB Responses for the Place of the Receiver' Name and Address

	DSEB				
	Right	Left	Center	Total	
Male	1	21	0	22	
Female	0	24	0	24	
Total	1	45	0	46	

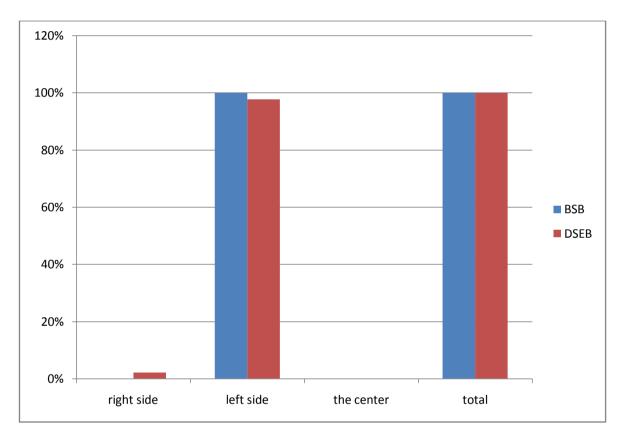


Figure (41)

BSB and DSEB Students' Responses for the Place of the Receiver's Name and Address

The above tables and figure clarify that the participants agree with the left hand side for the name and the address of the receiver where 100% of BSB students and 97.82% of DSEB students selected it, no participant from BSB chose the right hand side or the center of the page, 2.17% of DSEB students answered by the right hand side.

4 the reference number or/and order number in a letter at work is written

a Under the date b under your address c under the receiver's address

Table (71)
BSB Students' Responses for the Place of the Reference/Order Number in the Formal letter

		BSB				
	A	В	C	Total		
Male	0	8	20	28		
Female	0	9	5	14		
Total	0	17	25	42		

Table (72)

DSEB Students' Responses for the Place of the Reference/Order Number in the Formal letter

	DSEB				
	A	В	C	Total	
Male	0	9	13	22	
Female	0	10	14	24	
Total	0	19	27	46	

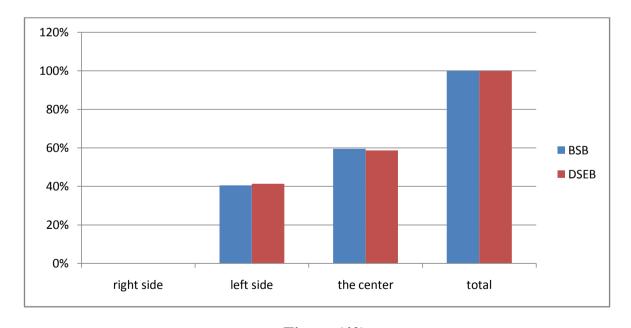


Figure (42)
BSB and DSEB students' Responses for the place of the Reference/Order
Number in the Formal Letter

The above tables and figure show the results related to the place of the reference and/or the order number in the formal letter. The results reveal that no student selected the right hand side for both BSB and DSEB. 40.47% of BSB students selected the left hand side and 59.52% of them decided on the center of the page. As for DSEB students 41.30% answered by choosing the left hand side of the page and 58.69% decided on the center of the page.

5 If you begin the letter by using the person's name, eg. Dear Mr. Drihmatt. Do you end your letter?

a Yours sincerely

b Yours faithfully

Table (73)
BSB Responses to the Salutation when it Begins with "Dear + the Name of the Receiver"

		BSB				
	A	A B Total				
Male	14	14	28			
Female	0	14	14			
Total	14	28	42			

Table (74)

DSEB Responses to the Salutation when it Begins with "Dear + the Name of the Receiver"

	DSEB				
	A B Total				
Male	2	20	22		
Female	3	21	24		
Total	5	41	46		

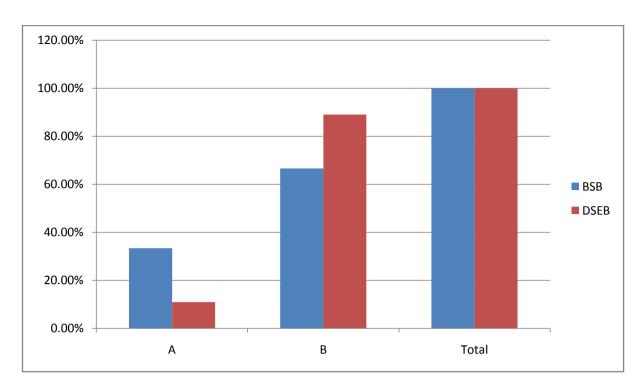


Figure (43)

BSB and DSEB Responses to the Salutation when it Begins with (Dear + the Name of the Receiver)

In response to the question related to the salutation when it begins with Dear + the name of the receiver, BSB students answered 33.33% for "Yours sincerely" as an end to a formal letter and 66.66% answered "Yours faithfully". Whereas 10.86% of DSEB students answered "Yours sincerely" and 89.13% answered "Yours faithfully".

6 when you begin your letter using Dear Sir or Madame, you end your letter by:

a Yours sincerely b Yours faithfully

Table (75)
BSB Responses to the Salutation when it Begins with "Dear + Sir/Madame"

	BSB				
	A B Total				
Male	14	14	28		
Female	1	13	14		
Total	15	27	42		

Table (76)
DSEB Responses to the Salutation When it Begins with "Dear + Sir/Madame"

		DSEB				
	A	A B Tota				
Male	3	19	22			
Female	4	20	24			
Total	7	7 39 46				

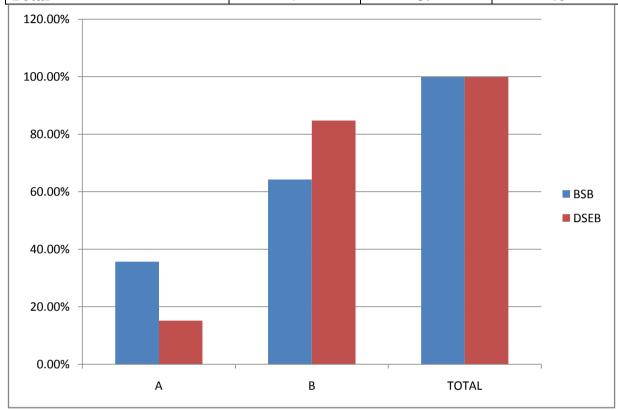


Figure (44)

BSB and DSEB Students' Responses about the Salutation when it Begins with (Dear + Sir/Madame)

According to the figure and tables about the salutation when it starts with "Dear Sir or Madame" without mentioning the name of the receiver, 35.71% of BSB students selected "Yours sincerely" to end a formal letter and 64.28% selected "Yours faithfully". For DSEB students, 15.21% chose "Yours sincerely" and 84.78% chose "yours faithfully".

7 enumerate the following according to their position in the formal letter. (put 1 for the first and 2 for the second, etc...)

Dear	Opening sentence	Signature
Reference number	You name printed	Main points
Their address	Yours	Closing sentence
date	Your address	

Table (77)

Frequencies of BSB and DSEB Students' Responses in Relation to the Order of the Different Parts of the Formal letter

		Frequ	iencies
Expressions	Position/order	BSB	DSEB
Dear	5	38	41
Reference number	3	6	4
Their address	4	12	15
Opening sentence	6	9	13
Your name printed	11	8	10
Yours	9	6	8
signature	10	5	7
Main points	7	8	6
Closing sentence	8	7	10

your address	1	40	42
date	2	39	41

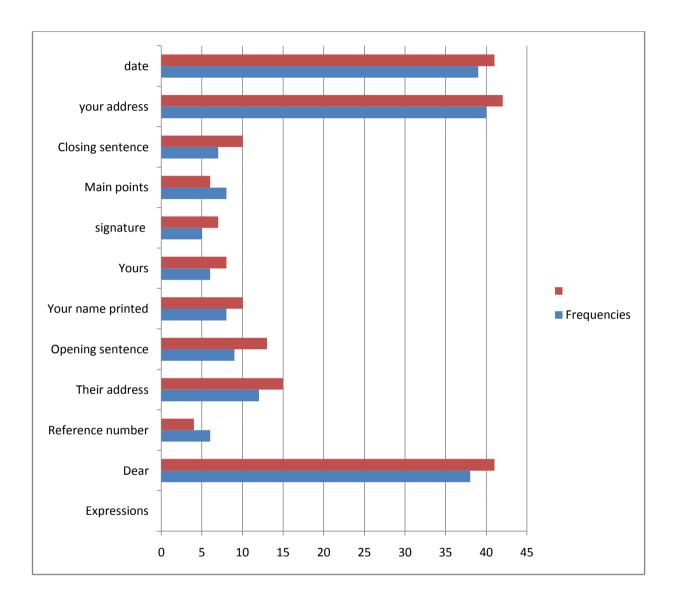


Figure (45)
Frequencies of BSB and DSEB Students' Responses to the Order of the Different
Parts of the formal Letter

The above table and figure display the answers of both BSB and DSEB students about the order the different parts of the formal letter. When asked to order them, we have recognized that many of the students hesitated about the right position of each part. Some of the answers were correct with quite high number but the majority had a clear low rate of correct answers. For "the Senders' address (your address)" was

selected by 40 BSB students and 42 DSEB students," the Date" we had 39 BSB students and 41 DSEB students, "dear" was selected by 38 BSB students and 41 DSEB students. As for the correct answers for which we calculated small number; we find "the reference number" with six (06) BSB students out of 42 and four (04) DSEB students out of 46, "the signature" selected by five (05) BSB students and seven (07) DSEB students, "the main points" we find eight (08) BSB students and six (06) DSEB students. The same for "their address/ the receivers' address" where we have a relatively low number of correct answers we find twelve (12) BSB students out 42 and fifteen (15) DSEB students out of 46. We have also "the opening sentence" with nine (09) BSB students and thirteen (13) DSEB students. Another part that received a small number of correct answers is "your name printed" which was selected by eight (08) BSB students and ten (10) DSEB students. In addition to "yours" with six (06) BSB students and eight (08) DSEB students; the last one is "closing sentence" selected by seven (07) BSB students and ten (10) DSEB students.

Section 02: Opening Sentences

In this section the students were asked to decide whether some common expressions of starting letters are formal or informal, they needed to write "F" next the formal ones and "I" next to the informal.

The results of this section are displayed in the following table and clarified through the figure below.

Table (78)

The Frequencies of BSB Students' Responses Related to the Opening Sentences

		BSB		
Expression	Formal	Informal	No answer	
1 Further to our telephone conversation of	30	5	7	
2 In reply to your advertisement in	37	2	3	
3 It was good to hear from you	15	23	4	

	1		
4 I am contacting you regarding	19	15	8
5 I am writing to complain	33	5	4
6 In reply to your letter dated	20	19	3
7 Thank you for your kind invitation	15	21	6
8 Sorry I haven't written for ages	5	30	7
9 I would like to enroll on the following course	36	0	6
10 I would like to apply for the post of	40	1	1
11 I apologize for the delay in replaying	12	16	14
12 I wrote to you onconcerning	17	11	14
13 Thank you for your letter dated	11	15	16
14 Thanks for your last letter	9	26	7
15 Thank you for your letter dated	8	9	25
16 We were so pleased to hear from you	10	11	21
17 How are you all	4	20	18
18 I wish to complain about	23	2	17
19 We were so pleased to hear from you	8	10	24

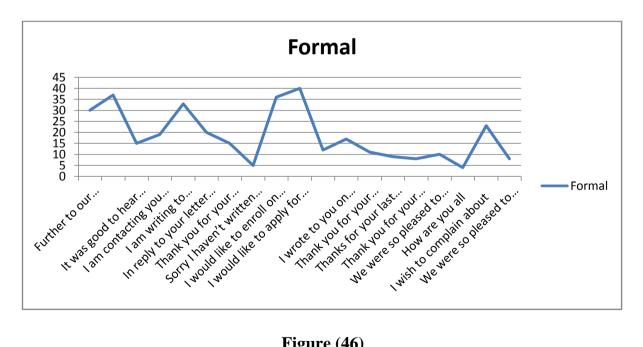


Figure (46)
The Formal Opening Expressions Selected by BSB Students

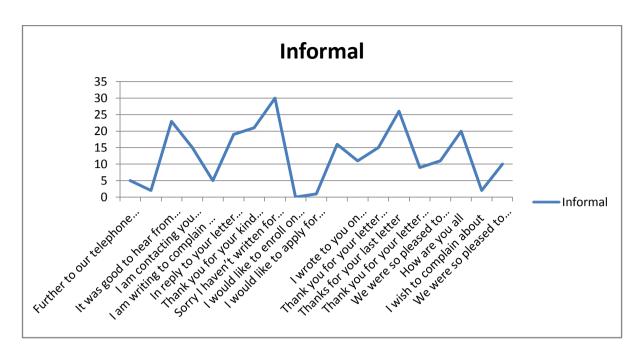


Figure (47)
The Informal Opening Expressions Selected by BSB Students

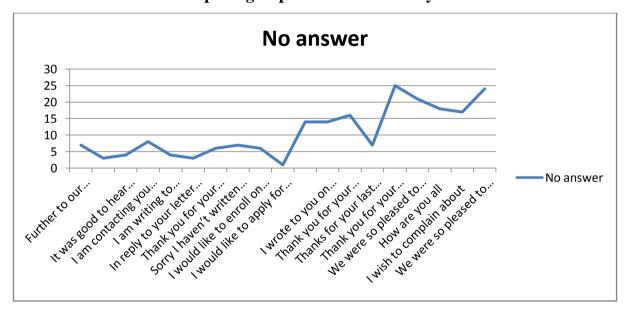


Figure (48)
The Unselected Opening Expressions by BSB Students

The above Figures (46, 47, and 48) and table (78) show that there have been differences in BSB students' responses related to the formal, informal and the non specified expressions. As can be seen for some expressions, a large number of BSB students could decide about whether or not the expressions suggested are formal, the larger number of students who selected the formal expressions is as follow: we have

30 students selected the expression number one as formal, 37 students selected number two, 33 selected number five, 36 selected number nine and 40 selected number ten. As for the informal expressions the number was less important, yet we can find quite large number for some expressions as follow: 30 students decided that the eighth expression is informal, 23 students selected the third and 26 select the fourteenth. Regarding the expressions which were not selected by the BSB students, we can see that the number of students was not that important where 25 students is considered as the highest for the fifteenth sentence followed by 24 students for the nineteenth one.

Table (79)

The Frequencies of DSEB Students' Responses Related to the Opening Sentences

Opening Sentences	Formal	Informal	No answer
1 Further to our telephone conversation of	28	3	15
2 In reply to your advertisement in	42	0	4
3 It was good to hear from you	6	38	2
4 I am contacting you regarding	21	11	14
5 I am writing to complain	25	19	2
6 In reply to your letter dated	20	19	4
7 Thank you for your kind invitation	22	21	3
8 Sorry I haven't written for ages	1	33	12
9 I would like to enroll on the following course	34	4	8
10 I would like to apply for the post of	42	0	4
11 I apologize for the delay in replaying	23	21	23
12 I wrote to you onconcerning	21	19	6
13 Thank you for your letter dated	18	15	13
14 Thanks for your last letter	4	29	13
15 Thank you for your letter dated	9	7	30
16 We were so pleased to hear from you	5	14	27
17 How are you all	4	40	2

18 I wish to complain about	19	8	19
19 We were so pleased to hear from you	14	14	18

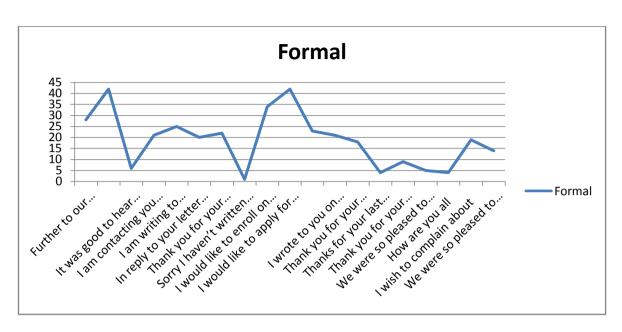


Figure (49) The Formal Opening Expressions Selected by DSEB Students

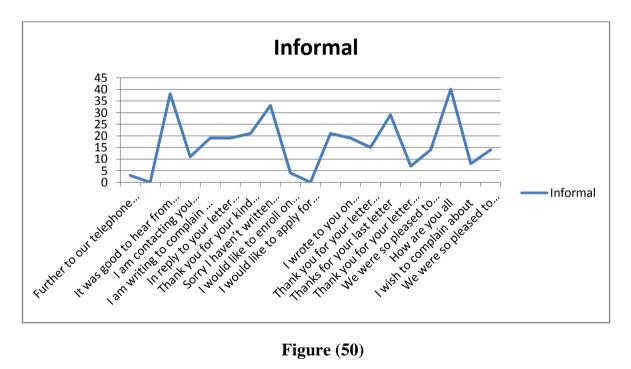


Figure (50)

The Informal Opening Expressions Selected by DSEB Students

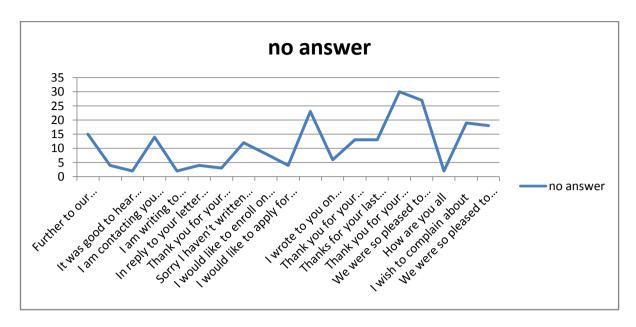


Figure (51)

The Unselected Opening Expressions by DSEB Students

As shown in the above table and figures the number of students who could decide whether the above mentioned sentences are formal or informal is relatively different. Indeed, the highest numbers of the students who selected the formal sentences are 42 students, they chose the second expression and 42 students chose the tenth. For the informal sentences, the biggest numbers are 40 students selected the seventeenth sentence, 38 students selected the third sentence and 33 students selected the eighth one. In relation to the undecided students we have 30 out of 46 selected the fifteenth sentence and 27 students selected the sixteenth.

Section 03: Closing Sentences

This section is the same as the previous one but with the expressions of endings letters. The students needed to decide whether they are formal or informal. The results are displayed in the following table.

Table (80)
Frequencies of BSB Students' Responses Related to the Closing Sentences

Closing Sentences		BSB	
	Formal	Informal	No answer
1 Please give this matter your attention	33	4	6
2 I enclose a cheque for DZD 15.00	39	0	3
3 I hope you can settle this matter to my satisfaction	29	6	7
4 Love to everyone	0	41	1
5 Write soon	2	39	1
6 Best wishes from us all	2	31	9
7 I hope you will consider my application	30	1	11
8 Do give my regards to everyone	5	30	7
9 I should be grateful if you would send me the information as soon as possible	36	0	6
10 If you cannot settle this matter to my satisfaction, I shall be forced to take legal action	42	0	0
11 Pease contact me if you require further details	14	6	22
12 Looking forward to seeing you on Sunday	6	5	31
13 I look forward to hearing from you at your earliest convenience	15	10	17
14 I would like to discuss this matter as soon as possible. Please let me know when it would be			
convenient for you	20	6	16
15 Thanks once again for your lovely present	5	20	17
16 I hope you will consider my application	21	2	19
17 Please let me know if you require further details	19	5	18
18 I look forward to meeting you on	16	14	12
19 Thank you for your co-operation	12	3	27
20 Best wishes	1	21	24

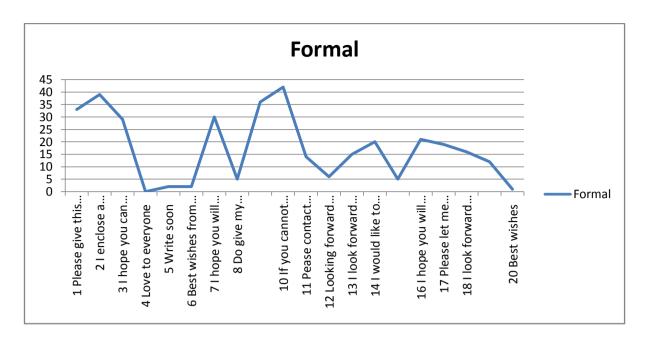


Figure (52)
The formal Closing Expressions Selected by BSB Students

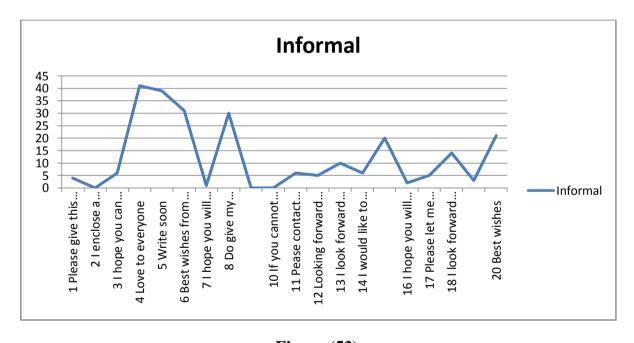


Figure (53)
The Informal Closing Expressions Selected by BSB Students

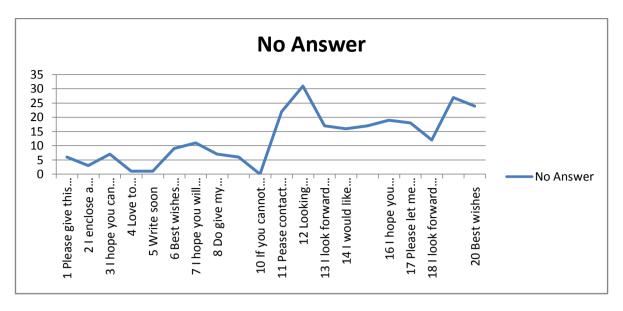


Figure (54)

The Unselected Closing Expressions by BSB Students

The results displayed in the above table (80) and figures (52, 53, 54) show that BSB students could decide easily for some closing expressions where we find a large number of respondents, for the formal closing sentences we find 42 BSB students selected the tenth sentence, 36 students selected the ninth and 39 students selected the second expression. As for the informal closing expressions, 41 students chose the fourth expression, 39 students chose the fifth one and 31 students selected the sixth sentence. In relation to the students who couldn't decide, their number was relatively lower where we have 31 students selected sentence number 12 and 27 students chose the nineteenth closing sentence. However, the remaining sentences were selected by a small number of BSB students or even not selected at all.

Table (81)
Frequencies of DSEB Students' Responses Related to the Closing Sentences

Closing Sentences	DSEB			
	Formal	Informal	No	
			answer	
1 Please give this matter your attention	35	1	6	
2 I enclose a cheque for DZD 15.00	45	0	1	
3 I hope you can settle this matter to my satisfaction	35	1	10	
4 Love to everyone	1	45	0	
5 Write soon	10	19	17	

6 Best wishes from us all	6	29	11
7 I hope you will consider my application	32	2	12
8 Do give my regards to everyone	12	18	16
9 I should be grateful if you would send me the information as soon as possible	33	2	11
10 If you cannot settle this matter to my satisfaction, I shall be forced to take legal action	44	0	2
11 Pease contact me if you require further details	25	4	17
12 Looking forward to seeing you on Sunday	28	6	12
13 I look forward to hearing from you at your earliest convenience	25	1	20
14 I would like to discuss this matter as soon as possible. Please let me know when it would be			
convenient for you	31	1	14
15 Thanks once again for your lovely present	3	30	13
16 I hope you will consider my application	24	1	21
17 Please let me know if you require further details	15	11	20
18 I look forward to meeting you on	18	7	21
19 Thank you for your co-operation	15	6	25
20 Best wishes	2	19	25

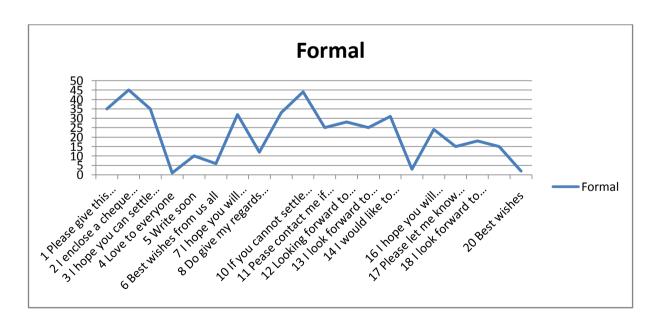
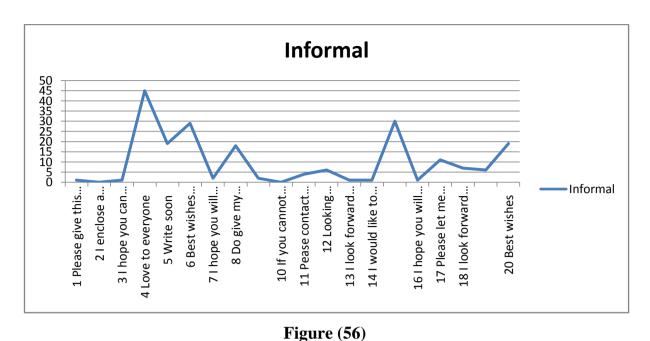


Figure (55)
The Formal Closing Expressions Selected by DSEB Students



The Informal Closing Expressions Selected by DSEB Students

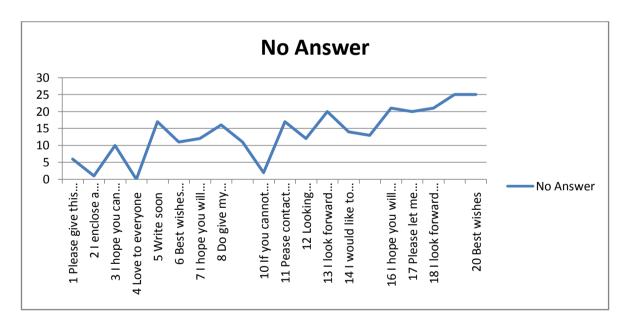


Figure (57)

The Unselected Closing Expressions by DSEB Students

From the results shown in table (81) and figures (55, 56, 57) of DSEB students for the closing expressions, we can see again that the responses were generally low; however we find some students decided about whether the sentences suggested are formal or not with a large number of students. 45 DSEB students selected the second

sentence as formal, 44 students selected the tenth one, the first and the third sentences were both selected by 35 students. Concerning the informal expressions, 45 students selected the fourth sentence which represents the largest number and 30 students selected the fifteenth. The rest of the respondents represent a lower number compared with those who decided about the formal and the informal closing expressions, the highest number for the undecided students was 25 for the nineteenth sentence and the same number for the twentieth one.

Section 04: Letter Content:

1 Here the students were asked to enumerate some questions about "what to write and how to write" a good formal letter. To do so they needed to put 1 for the first and 2 for the second, etc... according to the development of the formal letter's content.

The answers to this question are displayed in the following table.

Table (82)
Responses of BSB Students for the Organization of the Content in the Formal Letters

]	BSB			
	1st 2nd 3rd 4th					
What do I want them to do?	0	0	25	17		
what do I need to tell them	0	0	17	25		
Why am I writing?	8	15	2	0		
Who am I writing to?	21	7	1	1		

Table (82) shows the details of BSB students' responses about what and how to write a good formal letter. In ordering the different questions, the students' answers varied, for the first question "What do I want them to do?' we find 25 students put it in the third position and 17 put it in the fourth place, whereas no student classified it in the first or the second position. The second question "what do I need to tell them?" was classified by 17 students in third position and 25 other students classified it in the fourth position. Regarding the third question "Why am I writing?" we have eight (08) students put it in the first place, 15 students put it in the second position, two placed it the third position and no students put it in the fourth place. As for the last question

"Who am I writing to?" we found 21 students put it in the first position, seven (07) students placed it second and one student for both the third and the fourth position.

Table (83)

Responses of DSEB Students for the Organization of the Content in the Formal Letters

		DSEB				
	1st 2nd 3rd					
What do I want them to do?	0	0	25	12		
what do I need to tell them	0	0	16	18		
Why am I writing?	19	20	0	0		
Who am I writing to?	24	21	0	0		

The above table (83) shows the classification the students attributed to the questions suggested. The first question "What do I want them to do?" was classified as the third by 25 DSEB students and 12 other students put it in the fourth position. The second question "what do I need to tell them" was classified the third by 16 DSEB students and 18 students put it in the last position. The third question "Why am I writing?" was classified the first, 20 students put it in the second position and no student chose the third or the fourth position. As for the fourth question "Who am I writing to?" we find 24 students put it in the first position, 21 students classified it second, yet no students selected the third or the fourth position.

2 here students were asked to order some characteristics about the style of a good formal letter. They needed to order them according to their importance 1 (very important) to 4(not important).

The results of this question are displayed in the following table.

Table (84)

BSB Students' Order for the Characteristics of the Formal letters

	BSB							
		01		02		03	0	4
clear	34	80.95%	8	19.04%	0	0%	0	0%
concise	39	92.85%	3	7.14%	0	0%	0	0%
courteous	20	47.61%	22	52.38%	0	0%	0	0%
easy to								
follow	40	95.23%	2	4.76%	0	0%	0	0%
to the point	40	95.23%	2	4.76%	0	0%	0	0%

The table above (84) shows that BSB students recognize that all the mentioned characteristics of a good formal letter are important since they all ordered them in whether the first or the second position, no student placed them in the third or even the fourth. Therefore, we can see that the largest number of students selected number one as very important and the number of students who selected the second position was clearly lower. Indeed, forty students considered "easy to follow" and "to the point" as very important representing 95.23% each, then comes "concise" selected by 39 students with 92.85%. As for the second position, it was selected by a lower number but still considered as important; we find 22 students selected "courteous" representing 52.38% of the total number of students which is 42. Concerning the third and the fourth position there have been no answers.

Table (85)

DSEB Students' Order for the Characteristics of the Formal letters

		DSEB						
		01		02		03	0	4
clear	45	97.82%	1	2.17%	0	0%	0	0%
concise	43	93.47%	3	6.52%	0	0%	0	0%
courteous	38	82.60%	8	17.39%	0	0%	0	0%
easy to								
follow	40	86.95%	6	13.04%	0	0%	0	0%
to the point	44	95.65%	2	4.34%	0	0%	0	0%

As can be seen from the above table (85) the results of DSEB students related to the characteristics of the formal letter are relatively close to those of BSB students, DSEB students consider the above mentioned feature as important this is why they put them all whether in the first and second place. 45 students consider "clear" as very important representing 97.82% and 44 students selected "to the point" as being very important too with 95.65%, 43 considered "concise" as very important as well. The same with "courteous, easy to follow" where we find 38 and 40 students putting them in the first position with 82.60% and 86.95% respectively. However no student selected the third or the fourth position.

The Results Obtained from the Students' Interview:

The questionnaire and the students' draft were considered central in this study, and it was expected that the data collected would be sufficient to determine whether or not first year ESB students are capable to write a good formal letter based on their prior knowledge of general English acquired in the secondary school. However, the questionnaire and the students' draft couldn't give us an in-depth view about students' knowledge of the formal letters' writing. Thus, we opted for the use of the interview method which was also used in this research to provide supporting or supplementary information on the students' attitudes and perceptions about the formal letters' writing.

The interview in this study was used to explore students' attitudes towards certain points related to formal letters e.g. the different kinds of the formal letters and the differences existing between them and the informal ones. It therefore helped the researcher to obtain more data about the students' attitudes and perceptions regarding the information and the knowledge that ESB students have about the formal letters writing; this more in-depth information was used to supplement that obtained through the questionnaires and the students' drafts.

The interview is used as a tool of research to investigate the students' needs and knowledge of the formal letters writing from another perspective. Indeed, the students' drafts and the questionnaire couldn't give us a clear idea about the different types of formal letters the students know and in which way they differ from the informal letters. Through the interview we could also know about the students' capability of writing a good formal letter in different situations in the work place.

The researcher used semi-structured interviews in this study because she wanted the interviewees to express their view points and opinions about formal letters writing freely, the main characteristics of the semi-structured interview, are both the freedom in talking and the control over the questions by the researcher are considered; The positive characteristic of the semi-structured interview is that it encourages interviewees to talk freely without any stress, and without the interviewer forcing them to answer any specific questions. According to Nunan (1992: 150), the semi-structured interview gives the interviewee full control and power to take in free and flexible environments. Denscombe (2003) and Bryman (2004) mention that the semi-structured interview is a free and flexible method in which the researcher is able to exercise control and guidance.

The results obtained from Q 01: (What are the different kinds of letters do you know?)

This question aims at knowing whether participants have an idea about the different letters. It reveals whether the participants are able to distinguish the formal letters from the informal ones.

The answers to this question varied, the students' answers ranged between:

- Write to a friend,
- To my family (mother, father, brothers, sisters, uncles, etc)
- Apply for a job
- Write a CV
- Write a Cover letter

- Some students didn't answer because they didn't know the answer and others asked for more time, the thing we couldn't offer since we were limited in time; but this suggests that they didn't know the answer and they wanted more time to search for it.

As can be seen from the students' answers, we couldn't collect precise kinds of letters; so we put the answers obtained in two categories: 1. Formal letters (write a CV and a cover letter), 2. Informal letters (like write to a friend and to the family members) and 3. Represents the students who didn't answer. The following table reveals the students results.

Table (86)

The Responses of BSB and DSEB Students in Relation to their Knowledge about the different Kinds of Letters

	BSB	%	DSEB	%
FORMAL	10	23.80%	12	26.08%
INFORMAL	13	30.95%	18	39.13%
No answer	19	45.23%	16	34.78%
TOTAL	42	100%	46	100%

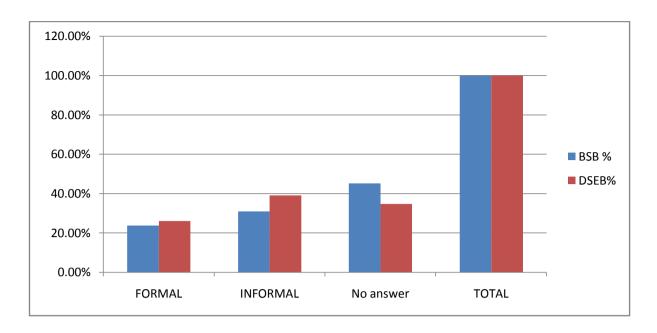


Figure (58)

Percentages of BSB and DSEB Students' Responses in Relation to their Knowledge about the Different Kinds of Letters

The above table (86) and figure (58) show that the students knowledge about the different kinds of letters varied. We find 10 BSB students representing 23.80% suggested some formal letter, 13 students selected the informal letters with 30.95% and 19 students representing 45.23% who didn't answer. As for the DSEB students we have 26.08% mentioned the formal letters, 39.13% answered to the informal letters and 34.78 as the biggest portion of students didn't have any answer to this question.

Q 02: Make a list of different types of formal letters you need to write?

This question deals more with the formal letters and it reveals whether the participants have specific knowledge of formal letters. Here the subjects needed to mention the different formal letters they know to be written at home or at the work/college. The answers are shown in the following table:

Table(87)
Responses of BSB and DSEB Students' About their Knowledge of the Formal Letters

	BSB	%	DSEB	%
At home	12	28.57%	10	21.73%
At work	14	33.33%	16	34.78%
No answer	16	38.09%	20	43.47%
TOTAL	42	100%	46	100%

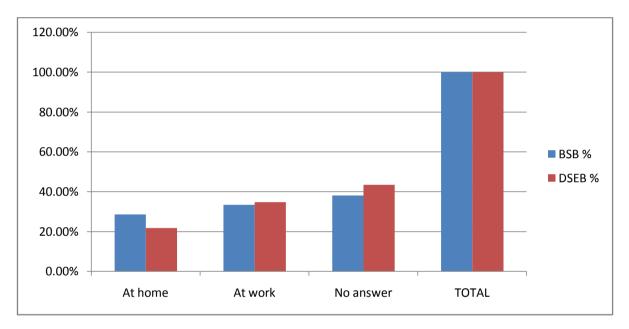


Figure (59)

Percentages of Students' Responses about their Knowledge of the Formal Letters

The results shown in the above table (87) and figure (59) reveal that the participant could suggest some types of letters they know which can be written at home and those that can be written at work or college but other students couldn't answer or decide. In fact, we calculated 28.57% of BSB students, who put the letter to be written at home forward, 33.33% of BSB students suggested the letters at work and 38.09% had no answer which represents quite important portion. Concerning the DSEB students, we have 21.73% listed some formal letters to be written at home, 34.78% listed other letters they need to write at work or at college but 43.47% of the participants couldn't decide about the formal letters writing.

Q 03: What are the differences between informal letters and the formal letters?

This question reveals whether the participants are able to distinguish the formal letters from the informal ones. They needed to mention the differences existing between the formal letters and the informal letters. The responses of the participants varied in terms of the letters layout, the content of the formal letters and those who couldn't decide about any kind of difference. The results of this question are displayed in the following table:

Table (88)

Responses of BSB and DSEB Students about the Differences between the Formal and the Informal Letters

	BSB	%	DSEB	%
Layout	8	19.04%	9	19.56%
Content	5	11.90%	4	8.69%
No answers	29	69.04%	33	71.73%
TOTAL	42	100%	46	100%

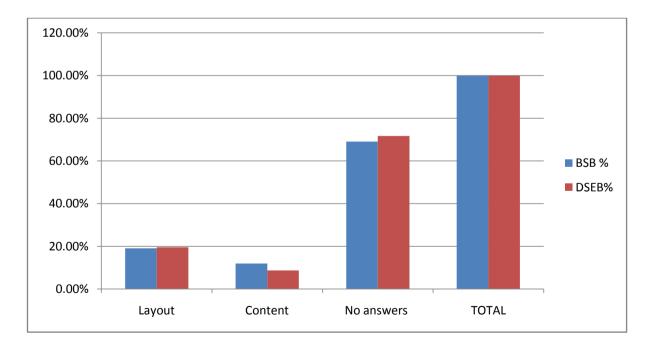


Figure (60)

Percentages of students' Responses about the Differences between the Formal and the Informal Letters

As can be seen from table (88) and figure (60), the results to this question show that a big proportion of students couldn't decide about the differences that exist between the formal letters and the informal letters with 69.04% BSB students and 71.73 DSEB students. As for the letters' layout, 19.04% BSB students could suggest some differences and 19.56% others from DSEB students suggested some differences. In relation to the letters' content, we find 11.90% BSB students and 8.69% DSEB students who proposed some differences. These percentages about the letter's layout and content are clearly low in relation to the students who did answer.

Q 04: Can you write formal letters to? (Make "X" next to the type of letter you're able to write).

The last question deals with the writing of formal letters the subject matter of the current research. It suggests a list of formal letters that the participants may forget of even do not know. The reason of suggesting a list instead of asking them tell the researcher about the different formal letters the participants are able to produce, is that the participants found difficulty in naming or mentioning the correct type of letter, the majority could describe the situation within which they needed to write a formal letter but they were incapable of naming it; so we suggested some to help them and save time in conducting the interview. The following table displays the results to this question:

Table (89)
Responses of BSB and DSEB Students about their Ability to Write Formal
Letters

Type of letters				
	BSB	%	DSEB	%
Give information	0	0%	0	0%
Apologize	0	0%	0	0%
Seek promotion	0	0%	0	0%
Hurry up an order	0	0%	0	0%
Ask for advice	0	0%	0	0%

Give advice	0	0%	0	0%
Complain	0	0%	0	0%
Seek pay rise	0	0%	0	0%
Ask for permission	0	0%	0	0%
Change an order	0	0%	0	0%
Give instructions	0	0%	0	0%
Get the job	0	0%	0	0%
Place an order	0	0%	0	0%
ask for information	0	0%	0	0%
Give an explanation	0	0%	0	0%
		0%	0	0%
TOTAL				

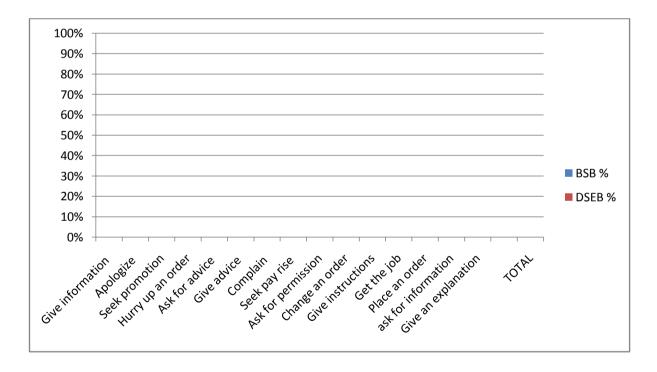


Figure (61)

Percentages of the Students' Responses for their Ability to Write Formal Letters

The above results revealed in the table (89) and figure (61) show that no student selected any of the suggested letters. It is clear that all the participants found themselves incapable to write or produce a good formal letter.

4.2 Summary of the Results:

This study aimed to investigate the ability of ESB students to transfer writing knowledge from General English to ESP writing, the knowledge acquired in the middle and secondary school which is equivalent to the intermediate level of English language. The present study dealt with different aspects of the writing program, it attempted to meet the needs of the ESB students through their drafts in terms of organization, development, cohesion, structure, vocabulary and mechanics.

These needs are thoroughly investigated in the fifth part of the questionnaire designed by the researcher. This part gives us another view and perspective about the needs and the difficulties met by ESB students while transferring their prior writing knowledge to ESP writing in relation of the Opening sentences, closing sentences, formal phrases, and the formal letter's content. With this part of the questionnaire we could gather more information about students' difficulties and investigated the students' needs thoroughly.

Through the current study we could find out whether those needs and difficulties met by ESB students are different between males and females. The present survey could test related hypothesis.

We could encounter the students' view and perception about the current program taught at the ESB. This could be done through the second part of the questionnaire administered to the participants to allow them freedom to express themselves and talk about the program taught at the ESB to permit us find out whether this program fits and matches the students' needs.

Thanks to this study we could also investigate whether the ways of students' assessment are efficient or not. In addition, we could examine the role the ESP teacher at the institution.

That's right that the interview was not considered as an essential tool in this research but it could provide us with valuable data and information about the students' knowledge of the formal letters. It revealed the students' background about the different formal letters, the differences that exist between the formal and the informal letters, and their ability to write a good formal letter in different situations.

The results obtained from this research were analyzed using both quantitative and qualitative methods and they have shown the following:

- The students had a great deficiency in all the aspects of writing; however it was less important in the organization, structure and mechanics.
- There were a significant difference between males and females at the level of $(\infty \le 0.05)$.
- The students showed a great dissatisfaction with all aspects of the writing programs taught at the institution.
- The students' answers about the ways of assessment at the ESB showed that they were not satisfied with the majority of them.
- The students didn't show a lot of positive reactions about the ESP teacher, they were undecided most of the time.
- ESB students did not have large knowledge of formal letters writing.

Chapter Five

Discussion the Results

Chapter Five

Discussing the Results

5.0. Introduction

In this chapter, I discuss the results more thoroughly and deeply. I also attempt to give interpretations of these results, and then I compare them with other related studies in an attempt to reach sound explanations of the findings of this study.

At the end of this chapter, I give suggestions and recommendations for the people concerned such as researchers, teachers and institutions.

5.1. Discussion of the Findings:

The present study aimed at investigating the ESB students' ability to write good formal letters based on their previous knowledge of English language which is equivalent to six or seven year of studying English. That ability of writing formal letters means that ESB students are able to transfer their prior knowledge of English to ESP writing (the formal letters). A number of questions emerged from that, they are:

- While transferring their English knowledge from general English to ESP writing what could be the needs or the difficulties met by the students?
- Are those needs different between males and females?
- Does the current program taught match the needs of the students?
- Are the ways of assessment efficient in evaluating the students?
- What is the role of the ESP teacher in improving the students' SP writing?

To answer these questions the researcher implemented three tools namely: students' drafts, the questionnaire and an interview. The tools were administered to eighty eight (88) ESB students who were males and females. They were divided into two groups studying in different cycles, 42 BSB students and 46 DSEB students.

The instruments used in this research are meant to answer the research questions, the use of students' drafts helped us to know about the students needs in writing formal letters in terms of organization, development, coherence, structure, vocabulary and mechanics. The needs of students were analyzed from another perspective trough the last part of the questionnaire which dealt with the formal letters' layout, the opening sentences, the closing sentences and the formal letters' content. Thus the last part of the questionnaire allowed the researcher to have a thorough view about the students' knowledge of the formal letter and know more about their needs and difficulties they met while transferring that knowledge from general English to ESP writing.

Those needs were highlighted more through the semi structured interview which could interpret the ESB students' perception of the formal letters by giving them freedom to express themselves about the formal letters in terms of the different kinds of letters, the formal letters they can write at home or at work, the differences existing between the informal letters and the formal ones and the students' ability to write a formal letter in some situations. We were able to identify the differences in needs between males and females as well.

The third, the fourth and the fifth questions were answered through the second, the third and the fourth parts of the questionnaire respectively.

The results obtained from the research tools are analyzed using different methods: students' drafts were analyzed through writing rubrics based on a scale from 01 as the lowest score to 10 as the highest score for six categories of writing whey are: organization, development, cohesion, structure, vocabulary and mechanics (they were explained in chapter three). After scoring the students' draft the mean, standard deviation, T-test and ANOVA test were computed.

As for the questionnaire and the interview we have used both quantitative and qualitative methods. For the close-ended questions we counted the frequencies of all

similar questions, the answers were put together and counted in order to get the percentage. Concerning the open-ended questions we analyzed them by using a qualitative method, we organized students' answered by clustering similar ideas together into categories. In addition to the above mentioned methods of statistics we clarified the results obtained using figures to explain forward and make the numbers easier to be understood.

All the above mentioned information contributed in gathering important results about the students' ability to transfer their knowledge from general English to ESP writing. Therefore, answering the research questions and help us understand the reasons of such inadequacy between having a quite good level of English language and not be able to write a formal letter.

5.1.1Results of Question One :(What could be the difficulties (needs) met by students while transferring from General English to ESP writing?)

The results of this question have shown that ESB students have great deficiency in all the categories of writing. The students' draft demonstrate low level of students writing although it has increased in the second draft but it still considered as low for both BSB and DSEB students.

For the first hypothesis: 'there will be a significant statistical difference between students drafts for both BSB and DSEB students'.

This hypothesis was highly significant (see chapter 04), we have seen that the means of the total score obtained by BSB students in the second draft was higher than that of the first draft, the same for DSEB students. Moreover, if we recognize the value of the Probability we find that it is less than 0.05 for both BSB and DSEB students. This confirms the hypothesis that there is a significant statistical difference between students' drafts in both cycles in all categories grouped together. These findings suggest that the improvement noticed in students' second draft is reflected to the knowledge acquired by students during the academic year since the second draft was

written at the end of the same academic year which is quite important period to improve their English, however that improvement still considered as insufficient considering the students' scores in the different categories of writing.

The second hypothesis: 'there will be a significant statistical difference in the first drafts of BSB students between the different categories':

This hypothesis was confirmed. When we compare the mean difference we found that there are differences between the different values and we found that the P value is less than <0.05. By contrast, the value of 'cohesion' didn't indicate any significant difference so the null hypothesis is accepted. The interpretation to this result could lead to the fact that students were given a number of supporting ideas through which they could build up their letters and according to them the only thing they needed to do is to connect between them, consequently the results didn't show any significant difference where we find the P-value higher than 0.05; although this value still considered relatively low.

The suggested Interpretation to this assumption is that students in the secondary school were taught in a way to make them apply specific techniques and methods about writing especially in the baccalaureate exam preparation which made the students used to them, the thing that lead the participants to apply those techniques without awareness emphasizing on some aspects of writing categories rather on other. For this we could see that some categories a little bit higher than others but still considerably low. This suggests that those methods taught at the secondary school should be thoroughly revised.

The third hypothesis: 'there will be a significant statistical difference in the second drafts of BSB students for the different categories'/

This hypothesis is confirmed, there was a significant difference between all the categories except for 'vocabulary' where the value of P=0.76 which is clearly above 0.05. This result show that there are differences between the different categories especially when we compared the mean values we found that the organization, structure and mechanics improved and had higher values (2.96), (2.85), (3.40)

respectively compared with development and cohesion where the means were (1.73) and (1.67) respectively. We have recognized that for vocabulary this hypothesis is rejected but still with no considerable difference. These results were higher than those computed for the first drafts.

This situation suggests that the improvement in students' draft is the result of the knowledge acquired during the academic year. However those results still considered as low which confirms the fact that the better marks is the result of the number of hours spent in learning English at the ESB that helped the students to produce relatively better organized and a little bit well structured. The outcome of this hypothesis put forward the importance that should be given to the subject matter to help the students improve their English since we could notice the change and the improvement happened in the second draft of the students after receive courses throughout the academic year even if it was little.

The fourth hypothesis: 'there will be a significant statistical difference of the first draft of the DSEB students between all the categories':

This hypothesis was confirmed since we could find differences between the different categories. The findings show that the results were considerably low with some differences between the categories. The mean computed for the 'organization, structure and mechanics' were higher than the three other categories namely development, cohesion, and vocabulary. These results are close to the BSB students' first draft but considered a little bit higher.

This assumption suggests that the difference between the different categories of writing is due to the prior knowledge of students acquired in the secondary school which emphasized some aspects of writing more than others as explained earlier; for example some students could tell us while the interview protocol that "they take the mechanics in to account better then developing the different ideas of the letter because they knew that the proper name must be capitalized, for example if they have to start a

new sentence they must capitalize the first letter. The same for the punctuation: a student told the researcher that she applies the same rule as in French".

The fifth hypothesis: 'there will be a significant statistical difference of the DSEB students' second drafts for the different categories':

This hypothesis was highly significant and consequently confirmed since all the values of P were less the 0.05. As could be seen from the Mean values four categories out of six were higher than the two others. The organization M=3.45, coherence M=2.00, vocabulary M=4.29 and mechanics M=3.81; these values were clearly higher if we consider development M=1.91 and structure M=1.08.

These results suggest that added to their prior knowledge DSEB students could improve their writing in some aspects through learning during the academic year taking into account that this improvement was not that important or considerable compared with the level required. The ESB students still need help in ESP writing. This, in fact, agrees with the questionnaire responses which show that students were unsatisfied with almost all the aspects of the program taught at ESB and their needs still exist.

From the above shown results another possible interpretation to the low level of the students in English may refer to the fact that the selection for admission to the school is based mainly on high marks in the essential modules like mathematics, physics, accounting in addition to the streams which must be whether 'Scientific or Economy and Management' this explains the low level of students since they were not selected as literary oriented who could have better knowledge of English.

5.1.2 Results of Question Two: (Are these needs different between males and females?)

To answer this question two hypothesis were tested,

Hypothesis one: 'there will be statistical significant difference between males and females for BSB students':

This hypothesis showed a high significance when we contrast the values of the Means; for the first draft M=10.96 for males and M=14.92 for females in favor the females the same significant difference existed for the second draft where M=12.10 for males and M=16.71 for the females which shows also that there is a clear difference in favor the females. Thus the above mentioned hypothesis was confirmed and we find the P values less than <0.05. This suggests that female students have the ability to write better letters than the males.

Hypothesis two: 'there will be statistical significant difference between males and females for DSEB students'

This hypothesis was confirmed since there was a clear significant difference between males and females in both the first and the second draft. The females scored (18.54) in the first draft and (20.00) in the second whereas males scored (11.54) in the first draft and (12.86) in the second which is clearly different.

The above mentioned assumption suggests that female students have more ability to write formal letters than the males. This agrees with the questionnaire's responses and supports its findings. Indeed, we found that the number of female students was less in the majority of the answers for both cycles BSB and DSEB where students were unsatisfied with the different aspects of the current program taught at ESB; therefore they have less problems with writing than the males. Though to the best knowledge of the researcher, there is no scientific evidence supporting this assumption.

5.1.3. Results of Question Three: (Does the current program taught match the needs of students?)

This question was answered through the second part of the questionnaire that was administered to both BSB and DSEB students. This part deals with different aspects of writing program which could provide the researcher with important information that supported the students' drafts in terms of needs, it gives more details

about students' needs but from the view point of the students themselves. The draft of students provided the researcher with students' difficulties and needs in terms of organization, development, cohesion, structure, vocabulary and mechanics. Whereas the second part of the questionnaire gives us an in depth view and a clear view about the students needs.

The results collected showed a great dissatisfaction from the part of students with almost all the aspects of the writing program. A great majority of the participants (more than 50%) chose to answer with NO for all the questions addressed to them. In some question all the participants representing 100% of the population answered NO for example: the first question, question 07, question 15 for BSB students. This means that the program taught at the ESB doesn't match the needs of students.

The results to this question confirm those obtained from the students' drafts because the students still need help in writing ESP. As could be seen from the students' answers, the reasons of their dissatisfaction about the program was rejected to external factors in nearly all the questions. The possible interpretation to this assumption will be that students expect the teacher to provide them with the necessary knowledge about the field because they joined the school in this purpose, yet the teachers themselves are not trained as ESP teachers but rather general English teachers, this suggests that the teachers need a specific training in the banking field.

5.1.4. Results of Question Four: (Are the ways of assessment efficient in evaluating the students?)

The answer to this question was through the third part of the questionnaire. It consisted of four questions dealing with tests and assessments. The Results showed the existence of some discrepancies in students' responses especially for the two first questions. For the first question 80.95% of the participants disagreed with it and 86.95% agreed with the first question in relation to the continuous assessment.

As for the second question 83.33% of BSB students agreed with the summative assessment and 63.04% of DSEB students disagreed. The reason for this difference lies under the fact that students had different teachers; this suggests that each teacher has a different method of assessing the students. As we have explained in chapter three the teacher are free to chose and adopt the methods of teaching and the materials provided, consequently the methods of assessment. When asked to decide about suitability of the tests and the students learning needs, the majority of the students disagreed. The possible interpretation for this situation refers to the teachers' capacity to adopt and adapt the test and methods of assessment to the level of students and the situation circumstances. And again we need to mention here the role of the ESP teacher who should be trained in this field and should acquire the necessary experience in ESP teaching. The next part deals with the ESP teacher thoroughly.

5.1.5. Results of Question Five: (What is the role of the ESP teacher in improving the students' ESP writing?)

The answers gathered from this question representing the fourth part of the questionnaire showed that the majority of the participants were unsure about their teachers except for the first question related to the teachers' use of English where all the participant agreed. This is explained by the fact that the English teachers at the ESB are university teachers whose qualifications raged between Magistere and PhD with quite long experience, which explains the fluency of the teachers in English. As for the knowledge of the subject the majority of students disagreed, this emphasize the fact that the English teachers are trained as general English teacher not ESP teachers therefore; they have no knowledge about the field of specialism which is banking; which consequent that teacher need help in this part.

For the rest of the questions the students were most of the time undecided. A possible interpretation of this can be that the students feel themselves not qualified enough to assess or judge their teachers.

Part Five of the Questionnaire: a- the formal letter

This part is considered as a follow-up to the students' drafts, it is divided into four sections namely: letter layout, the opening sentences, the closing sentences and the content of the letter. The results gathered from this part have shown that the majority of the students made reference to the French letters writing; for example the sender's address, the date and the receiver's name and address.

The explanation that could be attributed to this situation is the case of the Algerian administration that uses French as first language in most of its correspondences, thus students refer to it as the correct way to write a good formal letter. Students found difficulties in selecting the formal expressions in terms of opening sentences and the closing ones. Their answers reflect that they couldn't distinguish the formal expressions from the informal ones most of the time. This shows again the low level of the participants in English language as explained earlier dealing with the selection of registration at the school (the streams of the students at the high school).

The Interview:

The interview was used in this research to provide either supportive or supplementary information regarding students' knowledge and perception of the formal letter which is divided into four questions. The students were gathered in a room where the researcher called the participant one by one to record their answers. We could notice the students' excitement about speaking in English; we were able to hear them trying to speak between them in English. This was motivating to the researcher at the beginning but when we started asking the questions the students found a great difficulty in using the language and expressing themselves in English. This confirms that ESB students have a serious problem with English not only in writing but in speaking as well. This was confirmed when listening to them; they used the English commonly used in everyday language and the social media.

As for their knowledge of the formal letter we have noticed that they do not know a great deal about formal letters, in order to answer the interview questions the researcher was obliged to explain the questions in Arabic and try to help them to elicit answers for the third question for instance; even thought they were incapable to provide answers to this question, the number of students who didn't answer represented 69.64% of BSB students and 71.73% DSEB students.

As a result, the findings obtained from the interview supported those of the students' drafts and showed that the current program doesn't provide the learners with the necessary knowledge about ESP writing. Indeed, students found themselves incapable to write a formal letter when asked to in the last question of the interview, all the answers were negative.

These findings of this research, in fact, are supported by other related studies in the field which investigated similar programs and had similar results. The results of the present study agree with many of these studies that many ESP programs had deficiencies and weakness. (For example, Abu Zahra and Shayeb, 2004; Alharby, 2005; Alhuqbani, 2008)

Despite the fact that some of these studies used different approaches to the problem and used different instruments such as observation scales, interviews, many researchers share their worries about the teaching of English for specific purposes and the effectiveness of many ESP programs in general (Abu Zahra and Shayeb, 2004; Dakhmouche, 2008; Maleki, 2009; Javdani et al, 2011)

5.2. Pedagogical Implementations and Recommendations:

This study aimed at investigating the students' ability to transfer their knowledge from general English to ESP writing at the High School of Banks - Bouzareah. It provided useful information about the ESP program in general and ESP writing specifically, it highlights the teaching of ESP writing in a number of areas, namely the needs of the learners, an evaluation of the writing program taught at the school, the trainers, the evaluation and assessment techniques implemented.

The study also gave useful information about the learners (such as their numbers, sex, level) and the ESP teachers and knowledge of the ESP writing in order to help researchers interested in making further research on students' ability to produce ESP writing in the country.

The method of marking the students' letters in this study was inspired from a version of Paulus's rubric (1999). This rubric was found to be an interesting and useful tool that could be recommended to ESP teachers to rate and mark the writing of their students. It gives not only an overall assessment of the essay but also a full description of the different aspects of writing: organization, development, cohesion, structure, vocabulary and mechanics.

The tools and methodology used in this study to gather information are of great important to help other researchers, it provided useful tools for the evaluation of other ESP programs in the country or in any similar contexts.

5.3. Recommendations:

A- Recommendations to Researchers:

- Conduct more studies on the students' ability of ESP writing in other areas of the country.
- conduct more studies on ESP taking the different aspects of the program into consideration (such as: material, goals, the different aid and technologic material, teacher training)
- Conduct more studies on ESP that include more disciplines and specializations in other schools, universities and institutions.

B- Recommendations to EFL teachers:

- increase their knowledge of vocational and specific language in general
- Inform the people concerned about their actual needs to be considered in the future plans of English language teacher training programs.
- Collaborate with other teachers from different institutions to exchange knowledge and experience.
- Try to improve their knowledge in different skills like Listening and Speaking and Reading.

C- Recommendations to the MHESR:

• The MHESR should be aware of the learners' needs; this should also be prior before developing any ESP program.

- The ESP courses should not be considered as a single project or selected to be taught for one or two semesters, but they should be well organized a long term curriculum
- The socio-cultural environment and the political and economic situation of the Algerian society should be taken into consideration in the design of ESP programs.
- Materials, aids and technological facilities should be available in the different schools and universities in Algeria to allow the learners to better improve their English.
- Review the current teaching program prepared for ESP learners in general
- Improve the quality of ESP teachers' training and provide an advanced training programs for teachers so that they can satisfy the needs of their learners.

Conclusion

ESP writing is considered as the central activity of the modern life. No one can imagine the academic and professional institutions without writing. Yet, students freshly graduated from the Algerian universities having some knowledge about general English find themselves in a very difficult situation while discovering the mysterious code that they can't even understand. In this context this study presented an in depth view of the ESB students' needs in relation to ESP writing, it investigated their ability to transfer their prior knowledge of general English to ESP writing.

The researcher proceeded by gathering data about the ESP setting and writing. In the first chapter, the literature review dealt with the definition of ESP, its emergence, its characteristics and the stages of its development. It also presented some knowledge about needs analysis in terms the theoretical background and insights about the different approaches to needs analysis. The latter is considered as an important first step for the syllabus design; therefore, various views about ESP syllabus design were presented which were preceded by a clear distinction between the "syllabus" and "curriculum" to remove any confusion between the two terms found in literature.

To present a complete image of the ESP landscape, it was important to implement other components namely program evaluation and the ESP teachers. Indeed, the current survey showed the importance of program evaluation in ESP teaching and learning environment and introduced the various frameworks commonly used in ESP program evaluation.

Another important party in the ESP teaching is the ESP practitioner. ESP teachers play a crucial role in providing the learner with the necessary knowledge in relation to their field of specialism. However the role of the ESP teacher or the ESP practitioner (as known in the field of ESP) is different from that of the EFL teacher; consequently, the researcher showed that through the presentation of the EFL teachers' qualities then we demonstrated the different roles of the ESP teacher and the difficulties s/he encounters in doing his/her job. The ESP teachers are primarily teacher of general English and have no prior knowledge about their students' field of specialism, in relation to this claim the researcher demonstrated diverse opinions about the ESP teacher training as an attempt to help teacher overcome their deficiencies and become more efficient as ESP teachers.

Since the current study investigates the writing ability of the ESB students, the theoretical consideration of the second chapter was devoted to writing. As first step we presented some notions and definitions on writing in general, and then we introduced the different issues about writing; after that we dealt with the writing assessment through showing the different writing rubrics used in assessing writing and emphasized on Paulus rubric since it was the main method used in assessing the students' writing in the current research. At the end of this chapter we presented some related studies to the main topic, the review of the related studies consolidated the study and provided a reliable evidence of the importance of the main topic, it also presented a wider view of the survey.

To examine the reasons of the inadequacy in transferring the students' knowledge from General English to ESP, the researcher implemented a number of instruments they are: students' drafts, a questionnaire and an interview. The students' drafts were analyzed using writing rubrics based on organization, development, cohesion, structure, vocabulary and mechanics. As for the questionnaire and the interview the researcher used both quantitative and qualitative methods of analysis; the quantitative analysis was through computing the frequencies and the percentages whereas the qualitative was done through clustering the information obtained into similar groups.

The research tools were administered to eighty eight first year students studying at ESB Bouzareah who were males and females divided into two groups BSB and DSEB; the number of BSB student was 42 and DSEB represented 46 students.

The results of this study didn't only show different shortcomings related to the students' ability to write good formal letters, but it also demonstrated that the methods of assessments and testing were inefficient and should be revised. It could show that the ESP teacher didn't have the necessary knowledge about the subject and must be trained in that field to become more efficient as well.

The present study can be considered as important from different perspectives.

The findings of this study provide a basis for other researchers to investigate and research further the effectiveness of using the methodology the researcher adopted in

this survey. The methods of data analysis used in this research were both quantitative and qualitative which is considered as helpful to obtain deeper insights into the perceptions and attitudes of ESP students writing skills. The importance of the present study is shown also through its findings which provide other researchers with useful and true information about the ESP students' needs that can be used in further research in different fields.

The study suggested a number of recommendations to the people concerned namely: the researchers, the Ministry of Higher Education and the Scientific Research and the EFL teachers. This suggests that the researchers should conduct more studies in other areas in different institutions and including more disciplines. The EFL teachers are also invited to improve their knowledge in ESP to meet and satisfy the students' needs in relation to ESP. As for the MHESR, which represents the decision maker about all the aspects the ESP programs, should put the students' needs forward in addition to give more attention to teachers' training to allow them get informed about the latest knowledge in relation of the field of specialism they are teaching.

Bibliography:

- Abbott-Chapman, J., Hughes, P., & Williamson, J. (2001). Teachers'
 Perceptions of Classroom Competencies over a Decade of Change. Asia Pacific
 Journal for Teacher Education. 29, 2, 171-186
- Abdel-Kabeer S. A., M. S Mubarak, H. A. Abdullah, A. A. Ba-Ghaffar, A. & A. Ahmad (2002). The Specialized English Teaching Competencies and the Degree of Practicing these Competencies by Elementary School Teachers. Sana'. Yemen. Retrieved 24/11/2009 from http://search.yahoo.com/r/_ylt=A0oG7llNCYtNdWsA8JBXNyoA;_ylu=X3oD MTEyY21 kaGljBHNIYwNzcgRwb3MDMQRjb2xvA2FjMgR2dGlkA0RGUjVfODc-/SIG=12k21ubcc/EXP=1300979117/**http%3a//www2.ohchr.org/english/bodies/crc/doc s/CRC.C.YEM.4_ar.doc
- Abu-Zahra, M. and Shayeb, A. (2004). Is ESP a Need? Birzeit Public
 Administration Students: Birzeit Public Administration Students as a Case
 Study. Birzeit: Birzeit University. Retrieved 17/01/2012 from: www.edu-doc.com/file_2fd0ed1f354c367212cada63db1c0981.html
- Afolabi, F. O., Oyewusi, L. M. and Ajayi, M. A (2008). Allocation and Management of Resources for the Sustenance of Free Qualitative Secondary Education in Ondo State. Retrieved 22/ 11/2010 from www.nobleworld.biz/images/A_O_A.pdf
- Alexander, L.G. (1990) Essay and Letter writing. England: Longman
- Al-Haysony, M. H. (2008) Saudi Female English Major Students' Writing Strategies in L1 (Arabic) and L2 (English), Unpublished PhD thesis, University of Essex.
- Al-Hazmi, S. H. & Scholfield, P. (2007) Enforced Revision with Checklist and Peer Feedback in EFL Writing: The Example of Saudi University Students', Scientific Journal of King Faisal University, 8 (2).
- Alharby, M. (2005). ESP Target Situation Needs Analysis: The English Language Communicative Needs As Perceived By Health Professionals in the

- Riyadh Area. Unpublished Ph.D Dissertation. The University of Georgia. Retrieved 17/01/2012 from:
- Alhishoush, M. M. (2008). The Use of L1 in the EFL Classroom by English
 Teachers in South Ghour Directorate of Education. Unpublished study. South
 Ghour Directorate of Education.
- Alhishoush, M. M. (2012). Evaluation of the Teaching Competencies of English Teachers in Jordan from Multiple Perspectives. Unpublished PhD Thesis, the University of Algiers II
- Alhuqbani, M. (2008). "Identifying the English Language Needs of Saudi Police Officers." Retrieved 17/01/2012 from: http://www.saolt.net/en/news/plugins/spaw/uploads/files/033-Assessing%20the%20English%5B1%5D.....pdf
- Aljamhoor, A. A. (1986) The English writing process of two Saudi graduate students before and after ESL instruction, Unpublished PhD thesis, Michigan State University, East Lansing, MI.
- Al-Mekhlafi, A. (2007). The Development of Prospective EFL Teachers' Specialist Language. Ajman, Ajman University of Science and Technology Network.
- Al-Mutawa, N. (1997). Evaluation of EFL Primary School Teachers' Competencies in Kuwait. Evaluation & Research in Education, 11, 1, 27 52.
- Al-Mutawa, N and Al-Dabous, J. (1997). Evaluation of Student Teacher Performance in TEFL Practicum at Kuwait University. Kuwait, Kuwait University. Eric Document. Serial No. 435195
- Alnofal, A. (2003) Arabic first language writing and English second language writing processes: a comparative study, Unpublished PhD thesis, the University of Kansas.
- http://faculty.ksu.edu.sa/majed/Documents/alharby_majid_200505_phd.pdf
- Alderson, J. K. (1992). Guidelines for Evaluation of Second Language Education. In J. C. Anderson and A. Beretta (Eds.). *Evaluating Second Language Education*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

- Al-Jurf, R. (1994). An ESP program model for graduate students at King Saud University Based on Academic and Occupational Need. *King Saud University Journal of Education and Islamic Science*, 6 (1), 67-95.
- Allen J.P.B., and Widdowson, H.G., (1975). Grammar in Language Teaching."
 In Allen, J.P.B. and Coder, S.P. (Eds.) the Edinburg Course in Applied
 Linguistics: Volume two: Papers in Applied linguistics. Oxford University

 Press.
- Anderson, J. K. (1992). Guidelines for Evaluation of Second Language Education. In J. C. Anderson and A. Beretta (Eds.). Evaluating Second Language Education. (pp: 274-304). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press
- Anderson, T. (1998). Do we Want Certified Teachers or Qualified Ones?
 Modern Language Journal, 4, 231-235
- Andrews, S. (2003) Teacher Language Awareness and the Professional Knowledge Base of the L2 Teacher. Language Awareness, 12, 2, 81-95.
- Anthony, L. (1998). Defining English for Specific Purposes and the Role of the ESP Practitioner: Proceedings of the Japan Conference on English for Specific Purposes. Retrieved 15/01/2012 from: www.antlab.sci.waseda.ac.jp
- Ashwell, T. (2000) Patterns of Teacher Response to Student Writing in a MultipleDraft Composition Classroom: Is Content Feedback Followed by Form Feedback the Best Method? In Journal of Second Language Writing
- Bachman, L. (1990) Fundamental Considerations in Language Testing. Oxford:
 Oxford University Press.
- Bachman, L. F. & Palmer, A. S. (1996) Language Testing in Practice:
 Designing and Developing Useful Language Tests, Oxford University Press.
- Badger, R. & White, G. (2000) A process genre approach to teaching writing,
 ELT Journal, 54 (2)
- Ballard, B. & Clanchy, J. (1992) Assessment by conception: cultural influence and intellectual traditions. In L. Hamp-Lyons (ed.), Assessing second language writing in academic contexts. Norwood, HJ: Ablex.
- Barkaoui, K. (2007) Revision in Second Language Writing: What Teachers
 Need to Know. TESOL CANADA. Vol. 25/1:81-92.

- Basturkmen, H. (2005). *Ideas and Options in English for Specific Purposes*.
 Routledge.
- Belcher, D. (Ed.) (2009). English for Specific Purposes: Theory and Practice.
 Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press.
- Belinda, H. (2006) Effectiveness of using the process approach to teach writing in six Hong Kong primary classrooms. Perspectives: Working Papers in English and Communication, 17(1).
- Bell, J.(1999)Doing Your Research. England: Open University Press.
- Bell, T. R. (2005). Behaviours and Attitudes of Effective Foreign Language Teachers: Results of a Questionnaire Study. Foreign Language Annals, 38, 259–270.
- Beretta, A. (1992). Evaluation of Language Education: An overview. In Alderson, J. and A. Beretta, (Eds.) *Evaluating Second Language Education*. Cambridge University Press.
- Berg, E. C. (1999) The effects of trained peer response on ESL students'
 revision types and writing quality, Journal of Second Language Writing, 8 (3)
- Berwick, R., (1989). Needs Assessment In Language Programming: from Theory to Practice. In R.K. Johnson (Ed.), the Second Language Curriculum (pp. 48–62). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Berry, R. (1990). The Role of Language Improvement in In-Service Teacher Training: Killing Two Birds with one Stone. System 18, 1, 97-105.
- Bhatia, V. K. (2008). Genre analysis, ESP and professional practice. English for Specific Purposes, 27 (2), 161-174.
- Biber, D., Connor, U. & Upton, T.A. (2007). Discourse on the Move, Using Corpus Analysis to Describe Discourse Structure. Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins.
- Bloor, M. & Bloor, T. (1986). Languages for Specific Purposes: Practice and Theory. Dublin: Trinity College Dublin
- Bocanegra, A., Lario de Oñate, M.C. & López, E. (Eds.) (2007). English for Specific Purposes: Studies for Classroom Development and Implementation. Cádiz: Universidad de Cádiz.

- Bocanegra, A. (2010). Evaluating and designing materials for the ESP classroom. In M.F. Ruiz, J.C: Palmer & I. Fortanet (Eds.), English for Professional and Academic Purposes (pp. 141-166). Amsterdam/New York: Rodopi.
- Bosher, S., & Smalkoski, K. (2002). From Needs Analysis to Curriculum
 Development: Designing: A Course in Health-Care Communication for
 Immigrant Students in the USA. English for Specific Purposes, (21), 59-79.
- Bramely, P. and Newby, A. C., (1984). The Evaluation of Training Part II: The
 Organizational Context. *Journal of European and Industrial Training*. 8 (7),
 17-21.
- Breitenstein, P. H (1974). About Teacher Training. ELT, 29, 1, 42-46.
- Brinkerhoff, R. O. (1987). Achieving Results from Training: How to Evaluate Human Resource Development to Strengthen Programs and Increase Impact. Jossey-Bass Publishers. San Francisco
- Brooke,K.H.(1984)"The Components of Written Response: A Practical Synthesis of Current Views". Rhetoric Review. Vol. 2/2. [JStor. Retrieved on 06/07/2010.]
- Brown, H. D. (1994) Principles of Language Learning and Teaching, 4th. Ed,
 Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall
- Brown, J. D. (1995). *The Elements of Language Curriculum: A Systematic Approach to Curriculum Development*. Boston: Heinle and Heinle.
- Brown, H. D. (2001). Teaching by Principles: An Interactive Approach to Language Pedagogy (2nd. Ed.). New York, NY: Longman.
- Bull,S.(2000)Second Language Writing in a Computer Environment. Broady,
 E. (ed.) AFLS/CILT, 157-175
- Bryman, A. (2004) Social Research Methods, 2nd Edition, Oxford University
 Press.
- Burke, P. J. and others (1987). The Teacher Career Cycle: Model Development Research Report. Paper presented at the American Educational Research Association, Washington, D.C.

- Byrne, C. J. (1983). Teacher Knowledge and Teacher Effectiveness: a
 Literature Review, Theoretical Analysis and Discussion of Research Strategy.
 Paper presented at the Meeting of the Northwestern Educational Research
 Association, Ellenville, NY.
- Campbell, C.(1998) Teaching Second Language Writing: Interacting With Text. London: Heinle & Heinle Publishers.
- Cardelle, M., & Corno, L. (1981) Effects on second language learning of variations in written feedback on homework assignments, TESOL Quarterly, 15 (3).
- Carver, D. (1983). Some propositions about ESP. The ESP Journal, 2, 131-137.
- Chamberlain, D. & Baumgardner, R.J. (Eds.) (1987). ESP in the Classroom. Practice and Evaluation. London: Macmillan.
- Chambers, F. (1980). A re-evaluation of needs analysis. ESP Journal, 1 (1), 25-33.
- Chang, K., Sung, Y. & Zheng, J. (2007) Hypermedia authoring with writing process guidance, British Journal of Educational Technology, 38 (5)
- Clanchy, J. & Ballard, B. (1992) How to write essays: a practical guide for students, Longman Cheshire.
- Clark,I.L.(2003)Concepts In Composition: Theory and Practice in Teaching
 Writing. London: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers.
- Cohen, L., Manion, L. & Morrison, K. (2000) Research methods in education (5th Ed.), London: Routledge Falmer.
- Craft, A. (1996). Continuing Professional Development: A Practical Guide for Teachers and Schools. London, Routledge.
- Cullen, R. (1994). Incorporating a Language Improvement Component in Teacher Training Programs. ELT Journal 48, 2, 162-172.
- Dalton-Puffer, C. (2011). CLIL: From practice to principles? Annual Review of Applied Linguistics, 31, 182-204.
- Darling-Hammond, L. (2000). Teacher Quality and Student Achievement: A Review of State Policy Evidence. Educational Policy Analysis Archives, 8, 1.

- De Lopez, C.L. (1989). The Role of the Teacher in Today's Language Classroom. English Teaching Forum, 27, 3, 2-5.
- Doff, A. (1987). Training Materials as an Instrument of Methodological Change. In R. Bowers (Ed.), Language Teacher Education: an Integrated Program for ELT teacher training. ELT Documents, 125, 67-71. Basingstoke, UK: Macmillan for Modern English Publications.
- Doff, A. (1988). Teaching English: A Training Course for Teachers.
 Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Doiz, A., Lasagabaster, D. & Sierra, J.M. (Eds.) (2013). English-medium Instruction at University. Global Challenges. Bristol: Multilingual Matters.
- Dornyei, Z. (2007) Research methods in applied linguistics, Oxford University
 Press. El-Aswad, A. (2002). A study of the L1 and L2 writing processes and
 strategies of Arab learners with special refrences to third-year Libyan university
 students. Unpublished PhD thesis, University of Newcastle, Newcastle
 University library, UK
- Doyle, W. (1986). Classroom Organization and Management. In M. C.
 Wittrock (Ed.), Handbook of Research on Teaching. (3rd edition), pp. 392–431). New York: Macmillan
- Drummond, R. J. (1991). Beginning Teachers: What they have to Say about their Performance and Preparation. ERIC: Record Details ED340670
- Dudley-Evans, T. (1977). Planning a course for science and engineering students. In S. Holden (Ed.), English for Specific Purposes (pp. 38-40). Oxford: Modern English Publications.
- Dudley-Evans, T. (1988). Recent developments in ESP: The trend to greater specialization. In M. L. Tickoo (Ed.), ESP: State of the Art (pp. 27-32).
 Singapore: SEAMEO Regional English Language Centre.
- Dudley-Evans, T. (1995). Common core and specific approach to the teaching of academic writing. In D. Belcher & G. Braine (Eds.), Academic Writing in a Second Language (pp. 293-312). Norwood, N.J.: Ablex.
- Dudley-Evans, T. (1998). *Developments in English for Specific Purposes: A multi-disciplinary approach*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

- Dudley-Evans, T., & St John, M. (1998). Developments in English for Specific Purposes: A multi-disciplinary approach. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Edge, J. (1988). Training, Education, and Development: Worlds Apart? Paper presented at the Annual Conference of the British Association for Teaching and Research in Overseas Education: Moray House College, Edinburgh.
- Edwards, S. P. (2010). The Competencies of an English Teacher: Beginning Student Teachers' Perceptions. Australian Journal of Teacher Education. 35, 2, 49-66
- Elbow, P. (1975) Writing without teachers, New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- El-Koumy, A. (2004) Effect of self-assessment of writing process versus products on EFL students' writing, Online Submission, Paper presented at the Tenth EFL Skills Conference, the American University in Cairo, Center for Adult and Continuing Education (Jan 12-14, 2004).
- Ellis, R. (1990). Activities and Procedures for Teacher Preparation. In J. C. Richards & D. Nunan (Eds.), Second Language Teacher Education. (pp. 26-36).
 Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- El Mortaji. (2001) Writing ability and strategies in two discourse types: A cognitive study of multilingual Moroccan university students writing in Arabic (L1) and English (L3). Unpublished PhD thesis, University of Essex, UK
- Ewer, J. & Latorre, G. (1969). *A Course in Basic Scientific English*. London: Longman. Fujieda, Y.
- Ferris, D. (2001) Error feedback in L2 writing classes: How explicit does it need to be? Journal of Second Language Writing, 10 (3)
- Ferris, D. (2002) Treatment of Error in Second Language Student Writing, The University of Michigan Press.
- Flower, L. & Hayes, J. R. (1981) Cognitive process theory of writing, College Composition and Communication, 32 (4), 365-387.

- Flowerdew, L. (2000). Using a genre-based framework to teach organizational structure in academic writing. ELT Journal, 54 (4), 369-78. Focus series. 1977-1983. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Fortanet, I. (2013). CLIL in Higher Education. Towards a Multilingual Language Policy. Bristol: Multilingual Matters.
- Freedman, A., Pingle, I. and Yalden, J.(1983)Learning to Write :First Language/Second Language. Canada : Longman
- Freedman, S. W. (1987) Response to student writing (Research Report No. 23),
 National Council of Teachers of English: Urbana, IL.
- Freeman, D. (1989). Teacher Training, Development, and Decision Making: A
 Model of Teaching and Related Strategies for Teacher Education. TESOL
 Quarterly, 23, 1, 27-46.
- Freeman, D. (1990). Intervening in Practice Teaching. In J. C. Richards & D.
 Nunan (Eds.), Second Language Teacher Education (pp. 103-117). Cambridge,
 UK: Cambridge University Press
- Gebhard, J. (2000) Teaching English as a Foreign or Second Language, The University of Michigan Press.
- Grabe, W. and Kaplan ,R.(1996) Theory and Practice of Writing: An Applied Linguistic Perspective. London: Pearson Education.
- Grami, A. (2010) The Effects of Integrating Peer Feedback into University-Level ESL Writing Curriculum: A Comparative Study in a Saudi Context, Doctoral dissertation, Newcastle University.
- Griffin, C.W. (1982) Theory of Responding to Student Writing: The State of the Art. College Composition and Communication. Vol.33/3:296-301. [JStor. Retrieved on 06/07/2010]
- Hamblin, A. C. (1974). Evaluation and Control of Training. McGraw Hill Book Company Ltd. London.
- Harmer, J. How to teach English: An introduction to the practice of English language teaching. Edinburgh Gate, Harlow, England: Addison Wesley Longman. Hyland, K. Writing and teaching writing (1998)-45 p.

- Harmer,J(2007)The Practice of English Language Teaching. England: Longman.
- Harper E. and Bell C., (1982). "Developing Training Materials: An Evaluation-Production Model". *Journal of European and Industrial Training*, **6** (**4**), 24 26.
- Harris,J.(1993)Introducing Writing .(Eds. Carter, R. and Nunan, D) .London: Penguin English
- Harris, K.R. and Graham, S(1996) Making the Writing Process Work.
 Cambridge: Brookline Books.
- Hedge, T. (2000) Teaching and learning in the language classroom, Oxford:
 Oxford University Press
- Hewings, A. & Curry, M. (2003) Teaching academic writing: A toolkit for higher education, Routledge, London and New York.
- Huhta, M. et al. (2013). Needs Analysis for Language Course Design: A
 Holistic Approach to ESP. Cambridge University Press.
- Hutchinson, T. & A. Waters, (1978). English for Specific Purposes. A Learning
 Centered Approach. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Hutchinson, T. (1987). Making materials work in the ESP classroom. In D. Chamberlain & R. J. Baumgardner (Eds.), ESP in the Classroom. Practice and Evaluation (pp. 71-75). London: Macmillan.
- Huot, B. (1990) Reliability, validity, and holistic scoring: What we know and what we need to know, College Composition and Communication, 41 (2), 201-213
- Hyland, F. and Hyland, K. (2001) Sugaring the Pill: Praise and Criticism in Written Feedback, Journal of Second Language Writing, 10 (3), 185-212.
- Hyland, K. (2001) Teaching and researching writing, Pearson: London.
- Hyland, K. (2003) Second language writing, Cambridge University Press.
- Hyland, K. & Bondi, M. (Eds.) (2006). Academic Discourse across Disciplines.
 Bern/New York: Peter Lang.

- Hyland,K. and Hyland,F. (2006) Feedback on second language students' writing. Language Teaching. Vol.39/2:83-101
- Hyland, K. (2013) ESP and Writing, in *The Handbook for Specific Purposes*,
- In J. C. Richards (Ed.), Second language writing. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. Kroll, BSecond language writing: research insights for the classroom. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. (1990) p24-25.
- Javdani, J. Ghafoori, N. and Mahboudi, H. (2011). The Attitude of ESP Learners towards the Role of Self-Access Language Learning Centers in Improving their Reading Comprehension. Retrieved15/12/2011 from: http://www.esp-world.info/Articles_32/DOC/Javdani.pdf
- Johns, Ann M. & Dudley-Evans, Tony (1991). English for Specific Purposes:
 International in Scope, Specific in Purpose. TESOL Quarterly, 25 (2), 297-314.
- Johns, A. M. & Dudley-Evans, T. (1993). English for specific purposes: International in scope, specific in purpose. In S. Silberstein (Ed.), State of the Art TESOL Essays: Celebrating 25 Years of the Discipline (pp. 115-132). Alexandria: TESOL.
- Johnson, D.M. and Roen, D.H.(1989) Richness in Writing. London and New York: Longman
- Jordan, R.R. (1997). English for Academic Purposes: A Guide and Resource Book for Teachers. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press
- Kaewpet, C (2009). "A Framework for Investigating Learner Needs: Needs Analysis Extended to Curriculum Development." Rajamangala University of Technology Krungthep, Thailand Retrieved 17/01/2012 from: http://e-flt.nus.edu.sg/v6n22009/kaewpet.htm
- Kay, H. & Dudley-Evans, T. (1998) Genre: what teachers think, ELT Journal, 52 (4), 308-314.
- Kelly, A. & Graham, J. (1998) Writing under control, teaching writing in the primary school, David Fulton Publishers, London.
- Kennedy, C. & Bolitho, R. (1984). Approaches to ESP. English for Specific Purposes. London: Macmillan.

- King, R. & Chapman, C. (2003) Differentiated instructional strategies for writing in the content areas, Corwin Press, INC
- Kirkpatrick, D. L. (1994). Evaluating Training Programs: The Four Levels.
 San Francisco. Berret Koehler Publishers.
- Kirkpatrick, D. (1996). "Evaluation". In R.L. Craig and L.R. Bitten (Eds.). *The ASTD Training and Development Handbook*. (4th ed. pp. 294 –312) New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Kojima, H. and Kojima, Y. (2006). Course Design for EFL Teacher Education.
 Bulletin of the Faculty of Education, Hirosaki University, 95, 103-112
- Kroll,B.(1990)Second Language Writing. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Kroll, B. (2003) Exploring the dynamics of second language writing, Cambridge University Press.
- Lange, D. L. (1990). A Blueprint for a Teacher Development Program. In J. Richards & D. Nunan (Eds.), Second Language Teacher Education. Cambridge, U.K.: Cambridge University Press.
- Language Writing in English. London: Routledge.
- Larsen-Freeman, D. (1983). Training Teachers or Educating Teachers. In J.F
 Altis, H. H. Tern and P. Stevens (Eds.), D.C: Georgetown University Round
 Table on Language and Linguistics. Washington, D.C: Georgetown University
 Press.
- Larson-Hall, J. (2010) Doing statistics in second language research using SPSS,
 Routledge.
- Leki, I. (1991) Teaching second language writing: where we seem to be, English Teacher Forum, April: 8-11.
- Leki, L. (1992) Understanding ESL writers: A guide for teachers. Portsmouth,
 NH: Hein Hemann. Matsuda, P. K. Second language writing in the twentieth century: A situated history perspective (1992) p-67-69
- Leki.I., Cumming.A., and Silva. T.(2008) A Synthesis of Research on Second
- Long, M.H. (2005a). "Methodological Issues in Learner Needs Analysis. In

- M.H. Long." (Ed.), *Second Language Needs Analysis* (pp. 19–76). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Long, M.H. (2005b). "Overview: A Rationale for Needs Analysis and Needs Analysis Research." In M.H. Long (Ed.), *Second Language Needs Analysis* (pp. 1–16). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Macklay, R. and Mountford, A. (1978). English for Specific Purpose, eds.
 London: Longman.
- Maleki, A. (2009). ESP Teaching: A Matter of Controversy. Retrieved 12/2/2012 from: http://www.espworld.info/Articles_17/PDF/ESP%20Teaching%20Iran.pdf
- Maleki, A. (2009). ESP Teaching: A Matter of Controversy. Retrieved 16/01/2012 from: http://www.espworld.info/Articles_17/PDF/ESP%20Teaching%20Iran.pdf
- Marsden, M, J. (1991) Evaluation: Towards a Definition and Statement of Purpose. Australian Journal of Educational Technology. 7, 1, 31-38.
- Martinović, A & Poljaković, I (2010). Attitudes toward ESP among University
 Students. Fluminensia, god. 22 (2), 45-161
- McDonald, F. (1978). Evaluating Pre-service Teacher's Competence. Journal of Teacher Education. 29, 2, 9-13.
- Medlin, L. (2009). English for Specific Purposes (ESP): Nursing in the U.S.
 Hospital. California: California State University.
- Min, H. (2008) Reviewers Stances and Writer Perceptions in EFL Peer Review
 Training, In English for Specific Purposes, 27 (3), 285-305.
- Munby, J. (1978). Communicative Syllabus Design. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- New, E. (1999) Computer-aided writing in French as a foreign language: A qualitative and quantitative look at the process of revision, The Modern Language Journal, 83 (1), 80-97.
- New York: Addison Wesley Longman. Elbow, P. Writing without teachers.
 New York: Oxford University Press(1973)

- Nunan, D. (1989) Designing tasks for the communicative classroom,
 Cambridge University Press.
- Nunan, D. (1998)Language teaching methodology: A textbook for teachers
- Nunan, D. (1992) Research methods in language learning, Cambridge University Press.
- Paltridge, B and Starfield, S (2013). The Hand Book of English for Specific Purposes., John Wiley & Sons, Inc
- Paulus, T. M. (1999). The effect of peer and teacher feedback on student writing, Journal of Second Language Writing, 8 (3), 265-289.
- Peacock, C. (1986) Teaching writing, Library of Congress Cataloguing.
- Peacock, M. (2009). The Evaluation of Foreign Language-Teacher Education Programmes. Language Teaching Research, 13, 3, 259–278.
- Perl, S. (1978). Five writers writing: case studies of the composing processes of unskilled college writers. Unpublished PhD thesis. New York University.
- Peterson, S.S. and McClay, J.(2010) Assessing and providing feedback for student writing in Canadian classrooms. Assessing Writing. Vol.15:86-99.
- Pham, H. (2001). Teacher Development: A Real Need for English Departments in Vietnam. English Teaching Forum, 39, 4, 30-35
- Pincas, A. (1882) Teaching English writing, London: MacMillan
- Qin, G (2006). The Basic Components of the Quality of EFL Teachers. US-China Foreign Language, 4, 1. Retrieved 12/10/2010 From: www.linguist.org.cn/doc/uc200601/uc20060115.pdf
- Raimes,A.(1983)Techniques in Teaching Writing. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Raimes, A. (1984) Anguish as a second language, remedies for composition teachers, in S. McKay (ed.), pp. 81-96, Composing in a Second Language, Cambridge, MA: Newbury House Publisher.
- Raimes, A. (1985) What unskilled ESL students do as they write: A classroom study of Composing, TESOL Quarterly, 19 (2), 229-258.

- Raimes, A. (1991) Out of the woods: emerging traditions in the teaching of writing, TESOL Quarterly, 25 (3), 407-430.
- Rasekh, A and Simin, S. (2005). Teaching English for Specific Purposes: A no man's land area of activity: Investigating ESP courses administered in Iranian Universities. Retrieved 16/01/2012 from: http://www.esp-world.info/Articles_32/DOC/Simin.pdf
- Reid, J. (1993) Teaching ESL writing, Regents/Prentice Hall.
- Reid, J., Forrestal, P. & Cook, J. (1989) Small group learning in the classroom, Chalk face Press, Oxford University Press.
- Richards, J.C.(1990)The Language Teaching Matrix. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press
- Richards, J. C. and R. Schmidt. (2002). Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching & Applied Linguistics. London: Longman.
- Richterich, R., & Chancerel, J. L. (1977). *Identifying the Needs of Adults Learning a Foreign Language*. Oxford: Pergamon Press
- Rivers, W. M. (1981). Teaching Foreign-Language Shills. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Robinson, P. C. (1991): *ESP Today: a Practitioner's Guide*. New York: Prentice Hall.
- Robinson, B. (2003). Evaluation, Research and Quality. In Robinson, B. and Latchem, C. (Eds.), *Teacher Education through Open and Distance Learning* (pp. 193–211). London: Routledge/Farmer.
- Rosenberg, M. (2004). Never the Twain shall Meet. *English Teaching Professional* 11(35): 36–37.
- Seliger, H. W. & Shohamy, E. (1989) Second language research methods,
 Oxford University Press.
- Shi, L. (1998) Effects of prewriting discussions on adult ESL students' compositions. Journal of Second Language Writing, 7 (3), 319-345.
- Silva,T. and Mastuda, P.K.(2001)On Second Language Writing. London: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Publishers.

- Somapee, S. (2002) The effectiveness of using cooperative learning to enhance students' critical thinking skills in business English at Chiangrai commercial school in Chiangrai, M.A. Dissertation, Payap University.
- Somers, N. (1980) Revisions strategies of student writers and experienced adults, College Compositions and Communications, 31 (4), 378-388.
- Stevens, P (1977). New Orientations in the Teaching of English. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Strevens, P. (1988). ESP after twenty years: A Re-appraisal. In M. Tickoo (Ed.), *ESP: State of the Art* (1-13). SEAMEO Regional Language Centre, Singapore.
- Stronge, J.H., Tucker, P., & Hindman, J. (2004). Handbook for Qualities of Effective Teacher. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Swales, J. (1971). Writing Scientific English. London: Nelson.
- Swales, J.M. (1990) Genre analysis: English in academic and research settings,
 Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Tribble, C. (1996) Writing, Oxford University Press.
- Tribble, C. (2003) Writing, Oxford University Press.
- Turner, C. E. (1992). Evaluation of an In-service EFL Teacher Training

 Project across Costa Rica. Retrieved 15/12/2011 from:

 http://3lib.org/mamf/opt/amf/3lib/eric/1999/59.amf.xml
- Van Dyk P.S, Nel P.S., Loe dolff P.V.Z, and Haesbroek, G.D. (1997). *Training Management*. Johannesburg: Tomson.
- Ur, P. (1996). A course in Language Teaching: Practice and Theory. Cambridge University Press. Cambridge.
- Wadsworth, B. J. (1989) Piaget's theory of cognitive and affective development, Harlow, UK.
- Wallace, M J. (1991). Training Foreign Language Teachers. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press

- Wallace, M. (1998) Action research for language teachers, Cambridge University Press.
- Wang, Q. (2009) Design and evaluation of a collaborative learning environment, Computers & Education, 53 (4), 1138-1146.
- Weigle, S.C. (2002) Assessing Writing . Cambridge: Cambridge University Press
- West, R. (1994). Needs Analysis in Language Teaching. Language Teaching.
 Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- White, R. V. & Arndt, V. (1991) Process writing, London: Longman
- White, E.M. (1992) Assessing, Responding, Evaluating: A Writing Teacher's Guide. N.Y.: St. Martin's Press
- White, C (2007) Focus on the language learner in an era of globalization: Tensions, positions and practices in technology-mediated language teaching, Language Teaching, 40 (4), 321-326.
- Widdowson, H.G. (1983). *Learning Purpose and Language Use*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Wigglesworth, G. & Storch, N. (2009) Pair versus individual writing: effects on fluency, complexity and accuracy, Language Testing, 26 (3), 445-266.
- Wilkins, D. (1976). *Notional Syllabuses*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Williams G., (1976). "The Validity of Methods of Evaluating Learning".

 Journal of European Industrial Training, 5 (1), 12 20.
- Williams, J. (2003) Preparing to teach writing: Research, theory, and practice,
 Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Third edition
- Zamel, V. (1982) Writing: The process of discovering meaning, TESOL Quarterly, 16 (2), 195-209.

•

Appendices

Appendix (01)

Writing business letter:

You produce ten thousand copies of a clothing catalogue at very short notice for a customer, SARL Drihmatt design. The terms of credit in the contract of sale were for payment within thirty days of receipt of invoice. You sent him the first reminder with a copy of the invoice when the payment was four weeks overdue, then a second request for payment four weeks after that. The account is now a further six weeks overdue

- Write a letter to Mr. Drihmatt asking him to pay his outstanding invoice.

To organize your letter here are some suggestions

- Review the situation with his account
- Make him think about his moral obligation and remind him of the terms and conditions of your sales agreement
- Say what action you intend to make.

Appendix (02)

Students' Questionnaire:

Dear students

The researcher is currently making a research study that aims at investigating

students' ability to transfer knowledge from general English writing to ESP

writing. One of the study instruments she must use for the study is the

questionnaire with ESP students.

As such, you are kindly requested to complete the personal information in part I,

and then answer the question in the other Parts.

This interview is strictly confidential, and writing your name is optional. Your

answers to the questions will be of great value to my research study and to

scientific research in general.

Thank you for taking time to answer the questions and for your kind

collaboration.

Hassina Bouchareb.

Part I. Personal Information:

Name: (optional):

Gender: male/female

Qualifications: (university degrees or other)

Have you studied ESP apart from your academic program:

269

Part II: Writing

1 the English writing progr my field of study.	am provides me with technical vocabulary I need in
Yes	No .
2 if no, say why	
3 the English writing progr	ram enables me to fix my problems with punctuation
Yes	No .
4 if no, say why	
5 the English writing progr relevant to my field of stud	am allows me to use texts and pieces of writing y.
Yes	No
6 if no, say why	
7 The English writing progfield of study.	gram enables to express myself in writing about my
Yes	No
8 if no, say why	

	the students.	i the English writing program can be easily obtained
Yes		No
10 if 1	no say why	
		rovided in the in the English writing program are
Yes		No
12 if 1	no, say why	
	e training materials p	rovided in the English writing program are clear, ed.
Yes		No
14 if 1	no, say why	
	e number of hours allo ledge about ESP writi	ocated to the subject are sufficient to acquire
Yes		No
16 if 1	no, say why	

Part III

Students' Assessment	agree	Not	disagree
		sure	
The teachers in the English writing program provide continuous			
assessment and give useful feedback about our progress during the			
lessons.			
The teachers in the English writing program provide summative			
assessment to all the students at the end of the program.			
The tests provided in the English writing program are suitable to levels of			
all the students.			
The tests provided in the English writing program reflect what we need		•	
and what we are actually learning in the program			

Part IV: ESP Teachers

The Teacher	agree	Not	disagree
		sure	
The teachers in the English writing program talk to us in English most of the time in a simple and clear way.			
The teachers in the English writing program provide us good knowledge of the subject we study in English such as that related to banking, finance,etc.			
The teachers in the English writing program use effective teaching techniques that help us understand the lessons more easily.			
The teachers in the English writing program are clear about their objectives and the steps of their lessons, and deal with any teaching problem successfully.			
The teachers are aware of the students' individual differences and needs and adapt their teaching accordingly			
English teachers have good knowledge of how to motivate students			
English teachers know well how to teach writing activities			

Part V/ The formal letter:

Section 01: letter layout

1 In a formal letter you put your address on: (Circle the right answer)

The right hand side the left hand side the center of the page

2 In a formal letter you write the full date:

The right hand side the left hand side the center of the page

3 In a formal letter you put the name and address of the person you are writing to on:

The right hand side the left hand side the center of the page

4 the reference number or/and order number in a letters at work is written

a Under the date **b** under your address **c** under the receiver's address

5 If you begin the letter by using the person's name, eg. Dear Mr. Drihmatt. Do you end your letter?

a Yours sincerely **b** Yours faithfully

6 when you begin your letter using Dear Sir or Madame, you end your letter by:

a Yours sincerelyb Yours faithfully

7 enumerate the following according to their position in the formal letter. (put 1 for the first and 2 for the second, etc...)

Dear	Opening sentence	Signature
Reference number	You name printed	Main points
Their address	Yours	Closing sentence
date	Your address	

Section 02: Opening Sentences

Here are some common ways of starting letters. Decide whether they are formal or informal (write "F" next the formal ones and "I" next to the informal)

Further	to	our	telephone	I would like to apply for the post of		
conversat	ion of					
In reply to your advertisement in		I apologize for the delay in				
		replaying				

It was good to hear from you	I wrote to you onconcerning
I am contacting you regarding	Thank you for your letter dated
I am writing to complain	
In reply to your letter dated	Thanks for your last letter
Thank you for your kind invitation	Thank you for your letter dated
Sorry I haven't written for ages	We were so pleased to hear from
	you
	How are you all
	I wish to complain about
I would like to enroll on the	We were so pleased to hear from
following course	you

Section 03: Closing Sentences

Here are some ways of endings letters. Decide whether they are formal or informal (write "F" next the formal ones and "I" next to the informal)

Please give this matter your attention	Pease contact me if you require further details
I enclose a cheque for DZD 15.00	Looking forward to seeing you on Sunday
I hope you can settle this matter to my satisfaction	I look forward to hearing from you at your earliest convenience
Love to everyone	I would like to discuss this matter as soon as possible. Please let me know when it would be convenient for you
Write soon	Thanks once again for your lovely present
Best wishes from us all	I hope you will consider my application
I hope you will consider my application	Please let me know if you require further details
Do give my regards to everyone	I look forward to meeting you on
I should be grateful if you would send me the information as soon as possible	Thank you for your co-operation
If you cannot settle this matter to my satisfaction, I shall be forced to take legal action	Best wishes

Section 04: Letter Content:

1 To write a good formal letter you need to answer some questions that help you decide what to write and how to write it. Please enumerate them according to the development of the formal letter's content (put 1 for the first and 2 for the second, etc...).

vriting to?
vriting?
need to tell them?
vant them to do?

2 A good formal letter should be: Please order them according to their importance 1 (very important) to 4(not important)

Thanks for your cooperation.

Appendix (03)

ESP Students' Interview

Dear students

The researcher is currently making a research study that aims at investigating

students' ability to transfer knowledge from general English writing to ESP

writing. One of the study instruments she must use for the study is an interview

with ESP students.

As such, you are kindly requested to complete the personal information in part I,

and then answer the question in Part II.

This interview is strictly confidential, and writing your name is optional. Your

answers to the questions will be of great value to my research study and to

scientific research in general.

Thank you for taking time to answer the questions and for your kind

collaboration.

Hassina Bouchareb.

Part I. Personal Information:

Name: (optional):

Gender: male/female

Qualifications: (university degrees or other)

276

Part II					
1 What are the different kinds of letters	1 What are the different kinds of letters do you know?				
-					
-					
-					
-					
-					
-					
2 Make a list of different types of forma	l letters you need to write?				
At home	At work or college				
3 what are the differences between infor	rmal letters and the formal letters?				
-					
-					
-					
-					
-					
4 Can you write formal letters to? (Mak	e "X" next to the type of letter you're				

4 Can you write	formal letters to?	(Make "X"	' next to the	type of letter	you're
able to write).					

Give information	Give advice	Give instructions
Apologize	Complain	Get the job
Seek promotion	Seek pay rise	Place an order
Hurry up an order	Ask for permission	ask for information
Ask for advice	Change an order	Give an explanation

Appendix (04)

SPSS Outcomes

Fréquences

Statistiques								
		SEX_BSB	SEX_DSEB					
N	Valide	42	46					
	Manquant	4	0					
Moyenne		1.3333	1.5217					
Médiane		1	2					
Mode		1	2					
Ecart type		0.47712	0.50505					
Somme		56	70					
Percentiles	25	1	1					
	50	1	2					
	75	2	2					

Table de fréquences

rable de frequences									
SEX_BSB									
Fréquence Pourcentage Pourcentage valide Pourcentage cumu									
	Male	28	60.9	66.7	66.7				
Valide	Female	14	30.4	33.3	100				
	Total	42	91.3	100					
Manquant	Manquant Système		8.7						
Total		46	100						

SEX_DSEB									
		Fréquence	Pourcentage	Pourcentage valide	Pourcentage cumulé				
Valide	Male	le 22 47.8		47.8	47.8				
valide	Female	24	52.2	52.2	100				
	Total	46	100	100					

Fréquences

Statistiques								
	BSB_DRAFT_1							
N	Valide	42						
IN	Manquant	4						
Moyenne		12.2857						
Médiane		12.5						
Ecart type		4.94746						
Plage		17						
Minimum		4						
Maximum		21						

	Statistiques								
	BSB_DRAFT_1 BSB_DRAFT_2 DSEB_DRAFT_1 DSEB_DRAFT								
NI	Valide	42	42	46	46				
N	Manquant	4	4	0	0				
Moye	enne	12.2857	13.6429	15.1957	16.587				
Médi	ane	12.5	14.5	15	17				
Mo	de	4,00 ^a	19	18	21				
Ecart	Ecart type 4.94746 5.0513 4.52337		4.52337	4.9669					
	a. Présen	ce de plusieurs mode	es. La plus petite v	aleur est affichée.					

Statistiques						
	BSB_DRAFT_2	2				
N	Valide	42				
IN	Manquant	4				
Moyenne	Moyenne					
Médiane		14.5				
Ecart type		5.0513				
Plage		20				
Minimum		3				
Maximum		23				

Statistiques						
DSEB_DRAFT_1						
N	Valide	46				
IV	Manquant	0				
Moyenne		15.1957				
Médiane		15				
Ecart type		4.52337				
Plage		25				
Minimum		6				
Maximum		31				
	Statistiques					
DSEB_DRAFT_2						
N	Valide	46				
IV	Manquant	0				
Moyenne		16.587				
Médiane		17				
Ecart type		4.9669				
Plage		29				
Minimum		7				
Maximum		36				

Statistiques de groupe									
	SEX_BSB N Moyenne Ecart type Moyens								
DOD DDAFT 4	Male	28	10.9643	4.87231	0.92078				
BSB_DRAFT_1	Female	14	14.9286	4.07552	1.08923				
BSB_DRAFT_2	Male	28	12.1071	5.0833	0.96065				
BSB_DRAFT_2	Female	14	16.7143	3.40087	0.90892				

	Test des échantillons indépendants								
Test de Levene sur l'égalité des variances			lité des		Test t pour égalité des moyennes				
		F	Sig.	t	ddl	Sig. (bilatéral)	Différence moyenne	Différence erreur standard	Intervalle de confiance de la différence à 95 %
									Inférieur
DOD DDAFT 4	Hypothèse de variances égales	0.511	0.479	-2.617	40	0.012	-3.96429	1.51501	-7.02623
BSB_DRAFT_1	Hypothèse de variances inégales			-2.779	30.676	0.009	-3.96429	1.42627	-6.87444
	Hypothèse de variances égales	3.645	0.063	-3.057	40	0.004	-4.60714	1.50716	-7.65322
BSB_DRAFT_2	Hypothèse de variances inégales			-3.484	36.398	0.001	-4.60714	1.3225	-7.28827

Statistiques de groupe									
	SEX_DSEB N Moyenne Ecart type Moyenne errer standard								
DSEB_DRAFT_1	Male	22	11.5455	2.62274	0.55917				
DSEB_DRAFI_I	Female	24	18.5417	3.05357	0.62331				
DOED DRAFT 2	Male	22	12.8636	2.9487	0.62866				
DSEB_DRAFT_2	Female	24	20	3.86174	0.78827				

Test des échantillons indépendants										
		l'égali	evene sur té des inces	Test t pour égalité des moyennes						
		F	Sig.	t	ddl	Sig.		Différence erreur	Intervalle de confiance de la différence à 95 %	
						(bilatéral)	moyenne	standard	Inférieur	Supérieur
DOED DDAET 1	Hypothèse de variances égales	0.376	0.543	-8.299	44	0	-6.99621	0.843	-8.69518	-5.29725
DSEB_DRAFT_1 -	Hypothèse de variances inégales			-8.355	43.827	0	-6.99621	0.83737	-8.684	-5.30842
de variance égales	Hypothèse de variances égales	0.101	0.752	-6.995	44	0	-7.13636	1.02014	-9.19232	-5.08041
DSEB_DRAFT_2	Hypothèse de variances inégales			-7.078	42.661	0	-7.13636	1.00826	-9.17019	-5.10254

Statistiques des échantillons appariés									
		Moyenne	N	Ecart type	Moyenne erreur standard				
Doire 1	BSB_DRAFT_1	12.2857	42	4.94746	0.76341				
Paire 1	BSB_DRAFT_2	13.6429	42	5.0513	0.77943				
Doire 2	DSEB_DRAFT_1	15.1957	46	4.52337	0.66693				
Paire 2	DSEB_DRAFT_2	16.587	46	4.9669	0.73233				

Corrélations des échantillons appariés										
	N Corrélation Sig.									
Paire 1	BSB_DRAFT_1 & BSB_DRAFT_2	42	0.973	0						
Paire 2	DSEB_DRAFT_1 & DSEB_DRAFT_2	46	0.972	0						

	Test des échantillons appariés										
			Dif	férences appa	ariées						
		Moyenne	Ecart type	Moyenne type erreur Intervalle de confiance différence à 95 %			t	ddl	Sig. (bilatéral)		
		-		standard	Inférieur	Supérieur					
Paire 1	BSB_DRAFT_1 - BSB_DRAFT_2	-1.35714	1.15972	0.17895	-1.71854	-0.99575	-7.584	41	0		
Paire 2	DSEB_DRAFT_1 - DSEB_DRAFT_2	-1.3913	1.21524	0.17918	-1.75219	-1.03042	-7.765	45	0		

		ANOVA				
		Somme des carrés	ddl	Carré moyen	F	Sig.
	Intergroupes	59.601	20	2.98	17.88	0
Organization_BSB_DRAFT_1	Intragroupes	3.5	21	0.167		
	Total	63.101	41			
	Intergroupes	9.28	20	0.464	3.49	0.003
Development_BSB_DRAFT_1	Intragroupes	2.792	21	0.133		
	Total	12.071	41			
	Intergroupes	11.113	20	0.556	1.718	0.113
Cohesion_BSB_DRAFT_1	Intragroupes	6.792	21	0.323		
	Total	17.905	41			
	Intergroupes	60.946	20	3.047	2.453	0.024
Strucutre_BSB_DRAFT_1	Intragroupes	26.083	21	1.242		
	Total	87.03	41			
	Intergroupes	15.28	20	0.764	4.426	0.001
Vocabulary_BSB_DRAFT_1	Intragroupes	3.625	21	0.173		
	Total	18.905	41			
	Intergroupes	89.661	20	4.483	9.954	0
Mechanics_BSB_DRAFT_1	Intragroupes	9.458	21	0.45		
	Total	99.119	41			

				Descriptiv	/es				
		N	Moyenne	Ecart type	Erreur		confiance à 95 moyenne	Minimum	Maximum
		N			standard	Borne inférieure	Borne supérieure	iviinimum	Waxiiiuiii
Organization_BSB_DRAFT_1									
	Total	42	2.7738	1.24059	0.19143	2.3872	3.1604	1	5.5
Development_BSB_DRAFT_1									
BovolopinionBob_Brivii 1_1	Total	42	1.2143	0.54261	0.08373	1.0452	1.3834	0	2
Cohesion BSB DRAFT 1									
Odicalon_BOB_BIVILT_1	Total	42	1.381	0.66083	0.10197	1.175	1.5869	0	4
Strucutre_BSB_DRAFT_1									
Strucutie_BSB_BIXALT_T	Total	42	2.631	1.45694	0.22481	2.1769	3.085	0	6
Vocabulary_BSB_DRAFT_1									
	Total	42	1.119	0.67904	0.10478	0.9074	1.3307	0	2
Mechanics_BSB_DRAFT_1									
	Total	42	3.2619	1.55484	0.23992	2.7774	3.7464	1	6

		ANOVA				
		Somme des carrés	ddl	Carré moyen	F	Sig.
	Intergroupes	54.238	22	2.465	9.447	0
Organization_BSB_DRAFT_2	Intragroupes	4.958	19	0.261		
	Total	59.196	41			
	Intergroupes	15.152	22	0.689	3.775	0.002
Development_BSB_DRAFT_2	Intragroupes	3.467	19	0.182		
	Total	18.619	41			
	Intergroupes	13.119	22	0.596	3.442	0.004
Cohesion_BSB_DRAFT_2	Intragroupes	3.292	19	0.173		
	Total	16.411	41			
	Intergroupes	58.36	22	2.653	9.54	0
Strucutre_BSB_DRAFT_2	Intragroupes	5.283	19	0.278		
	Total	63.643	41			
	Intergroupes	14.151	22	0.643	1.932	0.076
Vocabulary_BSB_DRAFT_2	Intragroupes	6.325	19	0.333		
	Total	20.476	41			
	Intergroupes	82.569	22	3.753	10.887	0
Mechanics_BSB_DRAFT_2	Intragroupes	6.55	19	0.345		
	Total	89.119	41			

				Descript	ives				
					Erreur	Intervalle de co 95 % pour la n			
		N	Moyenne	Ecart type standard		Borne inférieure	Borne supérieu re	Minimum	Maximum
Organization_BSB_DRAFT									
_2	Total	42	2.9643	1.20159	0.18541	2.5898	3.3387	1	5
Development_BSB_DRAF									
T_2	Total	42	1.7381	0.67389	0.10398	1.5281	1.9481	0	3
Cohesion BSB DRAFT 2									
Odnesion_Bob_Brown 1_2	Total	42	1.6786	0.63266	0.09762	1.4814	1.8757	0	3
Strucutre_BSB_DRAFT_2									
Structure_BOB_BIXALT_2	Total	42	2.8571	1.2459	0.19225	2.4689	3.2454	1	5
Vocabulary_BSB_DRAFT_									
2	Total	42	0.9762	0.7067	0.10905	0.756	1.1964	0	2
Mechanics_BSB_DRAFT_									
2	Total	42	3.4048	1.47433	0.22749	2.9453	3.8642	1	6

		ANOVA				
		Somme des carrés	ddl	Carré moyen	F	Sig.
	Intergroupes	39.753	19	2.092	5.377	0
Organization_DSEB_DRAFT_1	Intragroupes	10.117	26	0.389		
	Total	49.87	45			
	Intergroupes	23.138	19	1.218	4.542	0
Development_DSEB_DRAFT_ 1	Intragroupes	6.971	26	0.268		
·	Total	30.109	45			
	Intergroupes	34.343	19	1.808	9.599	0
Cohesion_DSEB_DRAFT_1	Intragroupes	4.896	26	0.188		
	Total	39.239	45			
	Intergroupes	63.613	19	3.348	15.533	0
Strucutre_DSEB_DRAFT_1	Intragroupes	5.604	26	0.216		
	Total	69.217	45			
	Intergroupes	8.538	19	0.449	4.361	0
Vocabulary_DSEB_DRAFT_1	Intragroupes	2.679	26	0.103		
	Total	11.217	45			
	Intergroupes	54.193	19	2.852	19.82	0
Mechanics_DSEB_DRAFT_1	Intragroupes	3.742	26	0.144		
	Total	57.935	45			

Descriptives										
		N	Moyenn	Format have a	Erreur		confiance à la moyenne	NAI	Mandania	
		Z	N Ecart type		standard	Borne inférieure	Borne supérieure	Minimum	Maximum	
Organization_DSEB_DRAFT										
_1	Total	46	3.2391	1.05272	0.15521	2.9265	3.5517	1	5	
Development_DSEB_DRAFT										
_1	Total	46	1.8261	0.81797	0.1206	1.5832	2.069	1	5	
Cohesion_DSEB_DRAFT_1										
00.000.01.2023_5.0.0.1.2.	Total	46	1.8043	0.9338	0.13768	1.527	2.0817	1	7	
Strucutre DSEB DRAFT 1										
	Total	46	3.3696	1.24023	0.18286	3.0013	3.7379	1	7	
Vocabulary_DSEB_DRAFT_										
1	Total	46	1.1304	0.49927	0.07361	0.9822	1.2787	0	2	
Mechanics_DSEB_DRAFT_1										
	Total	46	3.8478	1.13465	0.1673	3.5109	4.1848	1	6	

		ANO	VA			
		Somme des carrés	ddl	Carré moyen	F	Sig.
	Intergroupes	62.213	20	3.111	7.624	0
Organization_DSEB_DRAFT_2	Intragroupes	10.2	25	0.408		
	Total	72.413	45			
	Intergroupes	35.152	20	1.758	5.169	0
Development_DSEB_DRAFT_2	Intragroupes	8.5	25	0.34		
	Total	43.652	45			
	Intergroupes	26.333	20	1.317	5.338	0
Cohesion_DSEB_DRAFT_2	Intragroupes	6.167	25	0.247		
	Total	32.5	45			
	Intergroupes	22.111	20	1.106	6.085	0
Vocabulary_DSEB_DRAFT_2	Intragroupes	4.542	25	0.182		
	Total	26.652	45			
	Intergroupes	50.338	20	2.517	8.446	0
Mechanics_DSEB_DRAFT_2	Intragroupes	7.45	25	0.298		
	Total	57.788	45			
	Intergroupes	44.588	20	2.229	7.859	0
Strucutre_DSEB_DRAFT_2	Intragroupes	7.092	25	0.284		
	Total	51.679	45			

Descriptives										
		N			Erreur	Intervalle de confiance à 95 % pour la moyenne		Minimum	Manifester	
		N	Moyenne	Ecart type	standard	Borne inférieure	Borne supérieure	Williaman	Maximum	
Organization_DSEB_DRAFT_2										
9	Total	46	3.4565	1.26853	0.18704	3.0798	3.8332	1	7	
Development DSEB DRAFT 2										
	Total	46	1.913	0.98491	0.14522	1.6206	2.2055	0	6	
Cohesion DSEB DRAFT 2										
	Total	46	2	0.84984	0.1253	1.7476	2.2524	1	6	
Vocabulary DSEB DRAFT 2										
,	Total	46	1.087	0.76959	0.11347	0.8584	1.3155	0	3	
Mechanics DSEB DRAFT 2										
	Total	46	4.2935	1.13322	0.16708	3.957	4.63	2	7	
Strucutre_DSEB_DRAFT_2										
	Total	46	3.8152	1.07165	0.15801	3.497	4.1335	2	7	

Appendix (05)

Paulus' scoring rubric (1999)

	Organization	Development	Cohesion	Structure	Vocabulary	Mechanics
1	No organization evident; ideas random, related to each other but not to task; no paragraphing; no thesis; no unity	No development	Not coherent; no relationship of ideas evident	Attempted simple sentences; serious, recurring, unsystemati c grammatical errors obliterate meaning; nonEnglish patterns predominate	Meaning obliterated; extremely limited range; incorrect/unsystemat ic inflectional, derivational morpheme use; little to no knowledge of appropriate word use regarding meaning and syntax	Little or no command of spelling, punctuation, paragraphing capitalization
2	Suggestion of organization; no clear thesis; ideas listed or numbered, often not in sentence form; no paragraphing/g r ouping; no unity	Development severely limited; examples random, if given	Not coherent; ideas random/ unconnected; attempt at transitions may be present, but ineffective; few or unclear referential ties; reader is lost.	Uses simple sentences; some attempts at various verb tenses; serious unsystemati c errors, occasional clarity; possibly uses coordination; meaning often obliterated; unsuccessful attempts at embedding may be evident	Meaning severely inhibited; very limited range; relies on repetition of common words; inflectional/derivatio nal morphemes incorrect, unsystematic; very limited command of common words; seldom idiomatic; reader greatly distracted	Some evidence of command of basic mechanical features; error-ridden and unsystematic

	Organization	Development	Cohesion	Structure	Vocabulary	Mechanics
3	Some	Lacks	Partially coherent;	Meaning	Meaning	Evidence of
	organization;	content at	attempt at	not	inhibited;	developing
	relationship	abstract and	relationship,	impeded by	limited	command of
	between	concrete	relevancy and	use of	range; some	basic
	ideas not	levels; few	progression of	simple	patterns of	mechanical
	evident;	examples	some ideas, but	sentences,	errors may	features;
		examples		despite	,	
	attempted		inconsistent or		be evident;	frequent,
	thesis, but		ineffective; limited	errors;	limited	unsystemati
	unclear; no		use of transitions;	attempts at	command of	c errors
	paragraphing		relationship within	complicate	usage; much	
	/ grouping;		and between ideas	d sentences	repetition;	
	no hierarchy		unclear/nonexisten	inhibit	reader	
	of ideas;		t; may occasionally	meaning;	distracted at	
	suggestion of		use appropriate	possibly	time	
	unity of ideas		simple referential	uses		
			ties such as	coordinatio		
			coordinating	n		
			conjunctions	successfully		
				;		
				embedding		
				may be		
				evident;		
				non-English		
				patterns		
				evident;		
				non-parallel		
				and		
				inconsistent		
				structures		
4	Organization	Underdevelop	Partially coherent,	Relies on	Meaning	May have
	present; ideas	e d; lacks	main purpose	simple	inhibited by	paragraph
	show	concreteness;	somewhat clear to	structures;	somewhat	format; some
						systematic
4	present; ideas	e d; lacks	main purpose	non-English patterns evident; non-parallel and inconsistent structures Relies on simple	inhibited by	paragrapl format; so

	I	I	T	I	1
have general	be	relevancy, and	command of	and variety;	errors in
thesis, though	inappropriate,	progression of ideas	morpho-	often uses	spelling,
not for	too general;	may be apparent;	syntactic	inappropriatel	capitalization,
persuasion;	may use main	may begin to use	system;	y informal	basic
beginning of	points as	logical connectors	attempts at	lexical items;	punctuation
hierarchy of	support for	between/ within	embedding	systematic	
ideas; lacks	each other	ideas/paragraphs	may be	errors in	
overall		effectively;	evident in	morpheme	
persuasive		relationship	simple	usage;	
focus and		between/ within	structures	somewhat	
unity		ideas not evident;	without	limited	
		personal pronoun	consistent	command of	
		references exist, may	success;	word usage;	
		be clear, but lacks	nonEnglish	occasionally	
		command of	patterns	idiomatic;	
		demonstrative	evident	frequent use	
		pronouns and other		of	
		referential ties;		circumlocutin;	
		repetition of key		reader	
		vocabulary not used		distracted	
		successfully			

	Organizatin	Development	Cohesion	Structure	Vocabulary	Mechanics	
5	Possible	Underdeveloped	Partially coherent;	Systematic	Meaning	Paragraph	
	attempted	; some sections	shows attempt to	consistent	occasionally	format	
	introduction,	may have	relate ideas, still	grammatica	inhibited;	evident; basic	
	body,	concreteness;	ineffective at times;	l errors;	some range	punctuation,	
	conclusion;	some may be	some effective use	some	and variety;	simple	
	obvious,	supported while	of logical connectors	successful	morpheme	spelling,	
	general thesis	others are not;	between/within	attempts at	usage	capitalization	
	with some	some examples	groups of	complex	generally	, formatting	
	attempt to	may be	ideas/paragraphs;	structures,	under control;	under	
	follow it;	appropriate	command of	but limited	command	control;	
	ideas	supporting	personal pronoun	variety;	awkward or	systematic	

	grouped	evidence for a	reference; partial	clause	uneven;	errors
	appropriately	persuasive	command of	constructio	sometimes	
	; some	essay, others	demonstratives,	n	informal,	
	persuasive	may be logical	deictics, determiners	occasionally	unidiomatic,	
	focus, unclear	fallacies,		successful,	distracting;	
	at times;	unsupported		meaning	some use of	
	hierarchy of	generalizations		occasionally	circumlocution	
	ideas may			disrupted		
	exist, without			by use of		
	reflecting			complex or		
	importance;			non-English		
	some unity			patterns;		
				some		
				nonparallel,		
				inconsistent		
				structures		
6	Clear	Partially	Basically coherent in	Some	Meaning	Basic
	introduction,	underdevelope	purpose and focus;	variety of	seldom	mechanics
	body,	d, concreteness	mostly effective use	complex	inhibited;	under
	conclusion;	present, but	of logical	structures	adequate	control;
	beginning	inconsistent;	connectors, used to	evident,	range, variety;	sometimes
	control over	logic flaws may	progress ideas;	limited	appropriately	successful
	essay format,	be evident;	pronoun references	pattern of	academic,	attempts at
	focused topic	some supporting	mostly clear;	error;	formal in	sophisticatio
	sentences;	proof and	referential/anaphori	meaning	lexical choices;	n , such as
	narrowed	evidence used to	c reference may be	usually	successfully	semi-colons,
	thesis	develop thesis;	present; command	clear; clause	avoids the first	colons
	approaching	some sections	of demonstratives;	constructio	person;	
	position	still under	beginning	n and	infrequent	
	statement;	supported and	appropriate use of	placement	errors in	
	some	generalized.	transitions	somewhat	morpheme	
	supporting			under	usage;	
	evidence, yet			control;	beginning to	
	ineffective at			finer	use some	

times;		distinction	idiomatic	
hierarchy of		in morpho-	expressions	
ideas present		syntactic	successfully;	
without		system	general	
always		evident;	command of	
reflecting		non-English	usage; rarely	
idea		patterns	distracting	
importance;		may		
may digress		occasionally		
from topic.		inhibit		
		meaning		

	Organization	Development	Cohesion	Structure	Vocabulary	Mechanics
7	Essay format	Acceptable level	Mostly	Meaning	Meaning not	Occasional
	under control;	of	coherent in	generally	inhibited;	mistakes in
	appropriate	development;	persuasive	clear;	adequate	basic
	paragraphing	concreteness	focus and	increasing	range, variety;	mechanics;
	and topic	present and	purpose,	distinctions	basically	increasingly
	sentences;	somewhat	progression of	in morpho-	idiomatic;	successful
	hierarchy of	consistent; logic	ideas facilitates	syntactic	infrequent	attempts at
	ideas present;	evident, makes	reader	system;	errors in	sophisticated
	main points	sense, mostly	understanding;	sentence	usage; some	punctuation;
	include	adequate	successful	variety	attention to	may have
	persuasive	supporting	attempts to use	evident;	style; mistakes	systematic
	evidence;	proof; may be	logical	frequent	rarely	spelling
	position	repetitive	connectors,	successful	distracting;	errors
	statement/thesi		lexical	attempts at	little use of	
	s narrowed and		repetition,	complex	circumlocution	
	directs essay;		synonyms,	structures;		
	may		collocation;	non-English		
	occasionally		cohesive	patterns do		
	digress from		devices may	not inhibit		
	topic; basically		still be	meaning;		
	unified; follows		inconsistent/	parallel and		

	standard		ineffective at	consistent		
	persuasive		times; may	structures		
	organizational		show creativity;	used		
	patterns		possibly still			
			some			
			irrelevancy	_		
8	Definite control	Each point	Coherent; clear	Manipulates	Meaning clear;	Uses
	of organization;	clearly	persuasive	syntax with	fairly	mechanical
	may show some	developed with	purpose and	attention to	sophisticated	devices to
	creativity; may	a variety of	focus; ideas	style;	range and	further
	attempt implied	convincing	relevant to	generally	variety; word	meaning;
	thesis; content	types of	topic;	error-free	usage under	generally
	clearly relevant,	supporting	consistency and	sentence	control;	error-free
	convincing;	evidence; ideas	sophistication	variety;	occasionally	
	unified;	supported	in use of	meaning	unidiomatic;	
	sophisticated;	effectively; may	transitions/	clear; non-	attempts at	
	uses	show originality	referential ties;	English	original,	
	organizational	in presentation	effective use of	patterns	appropriate	
	control to	of support;	lexical	rarely	choices; may	
	further express	clear logical and	repetition,	evident	use some	
	ideas;	persuasive/conv	derivations,		language	
	conclusion may	incing	synonyms;		nuance	
	serve specific	progression of	transitional			
	function	ideas	devices			
			appropriate/			
			effective;			
			cohesive			
			devices used to			
			further the			
			progression of			
			ideas in a			
			manner clearly			
			relevant to the			
			overall			

	maanina		
	i meaning.		

	Organization	Development	Cohesion	Structure	Vocabulary	Mechanics
9	Highly	Well-developed	Coherent and	Mostly	Meaning	Uses
	effective	with concrete,	convincing to	error-free;	clear;	mechanical
	organizationa	logical,	reader; uses	frequent	sophisticate	devices for
	I pattern for	appropriate	transitional	success in	d range,	stylistic
	convincing,	supporting	devices/referentia	using	variety;	purposes;
	persuasive	examples,	l ties/logical	language to	often	may be
	essay; unified	evidence and	connectors to	stylistic	idiomatic;	errorfree
	with clear	details; highly	create and further	advantage;	often	
	position	effective/convi	a particular style	idiomatic	original,	
	statement;	n cing; possibly		syntax;	appropriate	
	content	creative use of		nonEnglish	choices; may	
	relevant and	support		patterns	have	
	effective			not evident	distinctions	
					in nuance	
					for accuracy,	
					clarity	
1	Appropriate	Appropriate	Appropriate	Appropriat	Appropriate	Appropriat
0	native-like	native-like	nativelike	e native-	native-like	e native-
	standard	standard	standard written	like	standard	like
	written	written English	English	standard	written	standard
	English			written	English	written
				English		English

Appendix (6)

The Jury Members

No.	Name	Qualifications	Major	Job
1.	Dr. Cherifi Fouzia	Ph.D	Education	University Teacher
2.	Dr. Mohammad Alhishoush	Ph.D	English	English Supervisor
3.	Dr. Assia Rolls	PhD	English	University Teacher
4.	Prof. Fatahine	Professor	Psychology	University Teacher