CHAPTER TWO

CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.0 Introduction

This chapter discusses some theoretical concepts and notions related to English for specific purposes (ESP), including its origins, definitions, types of ESP courses, its developments (e.g. needs analysis) that have gone through linguistic and non-linguistic approaches by which ESP has been influenced. Within the field of ESP, this chapter also sheds light on the developments of Medical English or English for Medical purposes (EMP). Chapter 2 also discusses some studies on actual needs analyses carried out in different parts of the world.

2.1 Language for Specific Purposes: (LSP)

The term ‘Language for Specific Purposes’ (LSP) has been framed to refer to the kind of language used by particular groups of people in certain settings and for specific purposes, e.g. language used in Medicine or Scientific and Technological situation. This language could be English, Hindi, Arabic or French. Therefore, we may talk about French for specific purposes and Hindi or Arabic for specific purposes.

According to Glasar (1994), the term ‘LSP’ has been used by applied linguists to refer to a number of terms and expressions used in sociolinguistics such as ‘sub-language’, ‘functional language type’ and ‘stylistics including situational variety’, ‘functional variety of language’, etc.
Work on LSP focused initially on vocabulary yielding frequency word-lists. These word-lists appeared in either monolingual or bilingual dictionaries. At a later stage work in LSP was extended to the study of syntactic features of LSP texts. For example, emphasis was placed on the kind of tense and sentence patterns used in scientific texts.

2.2 What is English for Specific Purposes (ESP)

There is agreement among ESP practitioners that ESP courses are courses which are designed on the basis of the analysis of the communication needs of the learners (Munby, 1987; Hutchinson and Waters, 1987; Zughoul, 1985). This indicates that the aims of these courses based on the learners’ needs are to prepare the learners in accordance with the specific skills and vocabulary needed in their own field. They go on to say that the learners’ need to learn a foreign language is the basis of all ESP. This gives us the impression that knowing the English language needs of the learners and designing the ESP courses according to these needs is of vital importance. Thus, ESP courses are those in which the syllabi and the materials are essentially determined by the analysis of the communicative needs of the learner rather than by non-learner-centered criteria such as the teacher’s or institution’s predetermined preference for general English or for treating English as a part of a general education (Munby, 1978). However, Hutchinson and Waters (1987) state that ESP is not different in kind from any other form of language teaching in that it is based on principles of effective teaching and efficient learning.

In accordance to Mohan (1986), the aim of needs-based ESP courses is not to deal with the target language only as a medium of instruction, but as a medium of learning across the curriculum.
Because of these specific needs and instrumental goals, a change in the objectives of the educational systems started to head towards specific requirements of the learners than to broad or external factors of general educational and knowledge (Strevens, 1978 in Shuja', 2004, p.39). This, however, is not to say that LSP study has diverged from the main stream of language learning theory. Many studies have been done (or are being done) in LSP and interlanguage, for instance. The findings of these studies have enriched research in LSP (be it research in methodology or course design). Studies done by Selinker and Douglas (1987a); Selinker and Douglas (1987b); Tarone (1984); Ulijin and Strother (1987) and many others have proved that the findings from Interlanguage research in second language acquisition provide very useful and effective hints and feedback, which help in developing LSP principles of teaching/learning as well as principles of course design.

2.2.1 Historical Background of ESP

There has been much discussion about the historical background of ESP. Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998, P. 1) note that the history of Language for Specific Purposes (LSP), in fact, can be traced as far back as the Greek and Roman Empires. Coffey (1984) points out that special language teaching can be traced back to 1576 and even to the Babylonian period. However, English for Specific Purposes (ESP) as such is a relatively new field. ESP is an area of English Language Teaching (ELT), which came into existence in the 1960s. It was strengthened when the first conference on Language for Specific Purposes took place in 1969 (Robinson, 1980). It has its own argument, claims and perspectives on English teaching and approaches to syllabus or course design. What should, however, be brought into notice is that ESP was first known as English for Science and Technology.
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This kind of language was found among subject specialists or members of a profession. According to Strevens (1978), in Shuja' (2004, p. 38), SP-LT can be found in basically two well-known forms which first appeared in history. These two forms were ‘traveler’s language course’ and ‘German for science students’. Small bilingual reference books of everyday language still exist in the market (e.g. Arabic English, Arabic-Urdu, Arabic-Hindi, etc). The traveler does not have the time to spend in learning the language of the country he/she is planning to visit. He/she may use a bilingual booklet while talking to a native speaker of the target language for his/her restricted needs.

On the other hand, ‘German for science’ can be considered as the first form of LSP. Courses of such type were intended to enable science students to translate, using a dictionary, relevant scientific texts from the target language into their mother tongue. For this purpose, the Grammar-translation method to language teaching was extensively used.

2.2.2 Origins of ESP

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) point out that there are three main reasons common to the emergence of all ESP: the demands of a Brave New World, a revolution in linguistics, and the focus on the learners.

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) state that two important and historical periods brought ESP into existence. First, the end of the Second World War brought with it an “... age of enormous and unprecedented expansion in scientific, technical and economic activity on an international scale for various reasons, most notably the economic power of the United States in the post-war world, the role [ of international
language] fell to English” (p.6). Second, the Oil Crisis of the early 1970s resulted in Western money and knowledge flowing into the oil-rich countries. The language of this knowledge became English.

The result of this development caused pressure on the language teaching profession to deliver the required goods. Whereas English had previously decided its own destiny, it now became subject to the wishes, needs and demands of people other than language teachers (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987, p.7).

The second key reason cited as having a tremendous impact on the emergence of ESP was a revolution in linguistics. Whereas traditional linguists set out to describe the features of language, revolutionary pioneers in linguistics began to focus on the ways in which language is used in real communication. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) point out that one significant discovery was in the ways that spoken and written English vary. In other words, given the particular context in which English is used, the variant of English will change. This idea was taken one step farther. If language in different situations varies, then tailoring language instruction to meet the needs of learners in specific contexts is also possible. Hence, in the late 1960s and the early 1970s there were many attempts to describe English for Science and Technology (EST). Hutchinson and Waters (1987) identify Ewer and Latorre, Swales, Selinker and Trimble as a few of the prominent descriptive EST pioneers.

The final reasons Hutchinson and Waters (1987) cite as having influenced the emergence of ESP has less to do with linguistics and everything to do with psychology. Rather than simply focus on the method of language delivery, more attention was given to the ways in which learners acquire language and the differences in the ways language is acquired. Learners were seen to employ different
learning strategies, use different skills, enter with different learning schemata, and be motivated by different needs and interests. Therefore, focus on the learners' needs became equally paramount as the methods employed to disseminate linguistic knowledge. Designing specific courses to better meet these individual needs was a natural extension of this thinking. To this day, the catchword in ESL circles is learner-centered or learning-centered.

Coffey (1984) points out that the demand explosion for ESP was provoked by the grand discoveries of oil in the OPEC world where a need for specialists in the field of petroleum industry was great. Instead of depending on expatriates, national governments of OPEC countries wanted to recruit local employees. Thus, these governments started training programmes for the local staff, including teaching them special English that would help them in their new profession in the world of oil industry.

For these and other reasons, EST was in full swing by the late nineteen-sixties, while other branches of ESP were still restricted and only narrowly practiced. The Episodes of Swales (1985) is fully devoted to EST to keep a record of the developments of ESP as a whole. He writes:

... it seemed to me that because of the predominant position of EST, the major development of ESP as a whole could best be told through it.

(Swales, 1985: x)

Can we then say that without the extensive work done and the large number of publications produced on EST, ESP as an area of research would not have emerged and flourished? The answer would be: Yes. Because it is only EST which was
frequently mentioned and widely known in the early stages of ESP. The collection of articles mainly of EST edited by Mackay and Mountford (1978) is another evidence of the importance of EST being the essential stage without which ESP would have not developed. In this context, Dudley-Evans (1988) indicates that ESP began to develop where there was a need to teach English for students of Science and Technology. EST was also dominant because of the distinguished features of scientific prose, (e.g. the use of passive and present tense forms ) and the large number of teaching materials available at that time (Swales, 1985).

2.2.3 Definition of ESP

During the period of ESP developments, a large number of definitions have been proposed. Some of them are given here. Stevens (1988) in his definition of ESP makes a distinction between four absolute (unchanged) and two variables characteristics, which define ESP.

1. Absolute characteristics:

ESP consists of English language teaching which is:

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

2. Variable Characteristics:

ESP may be, but is not necessarily:

- restricted as to the language skills to be learned (e.g. reading only);
- taught according to any pre-ordained methodology.

(Strevens, 1988, pp. 1-2)
On the other hand, while accepting the importance of needs analysis in defining ESP, Robinson (1991, pp. 2-3) proposes a definition based on two criteria and three characteristics. The criteria are that ESP is normally goal-directed and that ESP courses develop from a needs analysis. The characteristics are that ESP courses are generally constrained by a specified time period and that they are taught to adults who are identical students in terms of the work or specialist studies in which the learners are engaged.

It should be noted that the categorization of any ESP GROUP of learners as homogeneous ‘identical’ does not hold true in all cases. In large institutions, which consist of several units, the learner population cannot be regarded as homogeneous. Hasanuddin University, Indonesia, is one example. (Coleman, 1988). The population of the university has differing motivation, abilities, needs and goals. Another example is the present study. It is true that ESP courses are given for a limited period of time and to adults, but in heterogeneous classes, too. In the Faculty of Medical Sciences, Hodeidah University, Yemen, different students of different departments (e.g., nursing, laboratories, etc.) study only two courses in the first year of their study. Assuredly, the students do not have the same language competence, the same motivation or the same goal. Can we say here that these two ESP courses are appropriately offered to homogeneous groups of learners? When discussing ESP definitions, Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998, p.3) say “—each definition has validity but also weaknesses, either in the definition or in the features described”. Thus, it seems that the concept of ‘homogeneity’ is a weakness in the definition of ESP proposed by Robinson (1991).
Anthony (1997) notes that there has been considerable recent debate about what ESP means despite the fact that it is an approach which has been widely used over the last three decades. Ten years later, theorists Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) modified Streven's original definition of ESP to form their own. Whereas they have decreased the number of absolute features, they have increased the variable features of ESP. Their modified definition of ESP is:

1. **Absolute characteristics**
   - ESP is designed to meet specific needs of the learner;
   - ESP makes use of the underlying methodology and activities of the disciplines it serves;
   - ESP is centred on the language (grammar, lexis, register), skills discourse, and genres appropriate to these activities.

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

(Dudley-Evans and St John, 1998, pp. 4-5)

Dudley-Evans and St. John have removed the absolute characteristics that 'ESP in contrast with General English' and added more variable characteristics. They assert that ESP is not necessarily related to a specific discipline.

With this much more comprehensive definition of ESP the two authors have made ESP more flexible than before. An ESP course can be taught to adults as well as to secondary school students. It can also be taught to homogeneous as well as
heterogeneous classes. Also, an ESP course can be taught to intermediate and advanced students as well as beginners alike.

Indeed, the emphasis on introducing ESP course for students at a beginner level has been supported earlier by empirical research findings Gage and Prince (1982). In addition to work-related language activities, such courses may include social language functions, which would give the students a base for language development.

As for a broader definition of ESP, Hutchinson and Waters (1987) theorize, “ESP is an approach to language teaching in which all decisions as to content and method are based on the learner’s reason for learning” (p.19). Anthony (1997) notes that, it is not clear where ESP courses end and general English courses begin; numerous non-specialist ESL instructors use an ESP approach in that their syllabi are based on analysis of learner needs and their own personal specialist knowledge of using English for real communication.

Emphasizing Hutchinson and Waters' definition of ESP, it becomes so clear that the learner should be taken into consideration and be involved in the process of teaching, i.e. he/she should be contacted before selecting or preparing the course. He or she also should be asked about the way he/she learns and how he/she would like to be taught.

2.2.4 Types of ESP

ESP has become an important area of English Language Teaching (ELT). To serve different purposes, ESP bifurcated into different branches. David Carter (1983) identifies three types of ESP:
• English as a restricted language

• English for Academic and Occupational Purposes

• English with specific topics

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

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

(Mackay and Mountford, 1978, pp.4-5)

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

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) emphasize that there is not a clear-cut difference between EAP and EOP: “People can work and study simultaneously; it is
also likely that in many cases the language learnt for immediate use in a study environment will be used later when the student takes up, or returns to, a job” (p.16). Perhaps this explains Carter’s rationale for categorizing EAP and EOP under the same type of ESP. It appears that Carter is implying that the end purpose of both EAP and EOP are one in the same employment. However, despite the end purpose being identical, the means taken to achieve the end is very different indeed. We contend that EAP and EOP are different in terms of focus on Cummins’ (1979) notions of cognitive academic proficiency versus basic interpersonal skills.

The third type of ESP as stated by Carter (1983) is English with specific topics. According to Carter (1983), it is here in this type of ESP where emphasis shifts from purpose to topic. This type of ESP is uniquely concerned with “anticipated future English needs of, for example, scientists requiring English for postgraduate reading studies, attending conferences or working in foreign institutions” (Gatehouse, 2001, p. 5).

2.2.5 Characteristic Features of ESP Course

2.2.5.1 Organizing Course

Organizing the ESP course is a very important step to achieve a satisfying goal in the course. There exist many factors playing a crucial role in organizing ESP course without them the learning process would not lead to effectiveness.

The term ‘specific’ in ESP refers to a specific purpose for which English is learnt and the teacher should be familiar with. He or she should be able to find an answer to what Hutchinson and Waters (1992) describe as ‘language description’. The ‘language description’ involves questions, e.g. ‘What topic areas will need to be
covered? 'What does the student need to learn? 'What aspects of language will be needed and how will they be described?' (Hutchinson and Waters, 1992, pp.19-22). Finding the right answers to these questions results from the setting exact goals and objectives of the course. Designing a syllabus analyses 'what' the course is going to be about. Setting goals and objectives of the course in advance is inevitable.

Another feature of organizing course underlines the way the learning is achieved. Hutchinson and Waters (1992) speak about "learning theory" which provides the theoretical basis for the methodology, by helping us to understand how people learn" (Hutchinson and Waters, 1992, p. 23). It is natural that learning strategies vary and correspond with learners' groups, their age, level or reason they study. The way adults acquire language is different from children, the group of advanced expects different attitude from beginners and teachers determine which aspects of ESP learning will be focused on to meet learners' needs and expectations successfully.

Hutchinson and Waters (1992) point out another aspect affecting the ESP course as well. It relates to learner's surrounding and discusses the questions of 'who', 'why', 'where' and 'when' connected with the nature of particular target and learning situation. They describe them as 'needs analysis'.

2.2.5.2 Selecting Material

Choosing ESP materials determines the running of the course and underlines content of the lesson. Good material should help the teacher in organizing the course or what is more it can function as an introduction into the new learning techniques, and support teachers and learners in the process of learning. Materials are also a kind
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of teacher reflection, "they should truly reflect what you think and feel about the learning process." (Hutchinson and Waters, 1992, p. 107).

Good material should be based on various interesting texts and activities providing a wide range of skills. Teachers determine which aspects of ESP learning will be focused on but one piece of material can serve for developing more than one skill, e.g. reading, listening, vocabulary etc. "Teaching materials are tools that can be figuratively cut up into component pieces and then rearranged to suit the needs, abilities, and interests of the students in the course." (Graves, 1999, p. 27).

Concerning the selection of ‘General English’ material and ‘ESP’ material some criteria must be matched as well. Language teacher is responsible for selecting an appropriate text that contributes to students’ effectiveness; that means he or she should pay attention to suitable criteria for its choice. Wallace (1992, p.1) suggests those main criteria:

- Adequacy – should be at the appropriate language, age level.
- Motivation- should present content which is interesting and motivating for students work. It goads into students effectiveness, interest and pleasure of work.
- Sequence – it is important if there is some relation to previous texts, activities, topics not to miss the sense of a lesson.
- Diversity – should lead to a range of classroom activities, be a vehicle for teaching specific language structure and vocabulary and promote reading strategies.
- Acceptability – it should accept different cultural customs or taboos.
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Selecting an appropriate material regarding the main criteria is an essential phase in organizing each course. It may happen that learners’ needs and expectations are not met due to wrong choice of material. “Materials provide a stimulus to learning. Good materials do not teach: they encourage learners to learn.” (Hutchinson and Waters, 1992, p. 107).

2.2.5.3 Types of Activities with Text

Text as a learning material can be used for learning and practicing a wide range of skills. In an ESP course it can be a source for new vocabulary, communicative or reading skills. To make working with a text as much effective as possible it is necessary to involve all students’ skills. It is preferred to combine working with printed text with listening to audio-cassette or video-cassette; that means receptive with productive activities. Concerning the ESP activities it is necessary to keep in mind the context that should be consistent with studying subject matter.

- Warming-up activities – pre-teaching and activation of new vocabulary or grammar structures, discussing questions concerning the topic. We can use various types of plays, puzzles, collocation grids, questionnaires etc. to increase students’ interests in a given topic and lead them into further problems. It is a kind of preparing step. Wallace (1992), for instance, considers pre-reading activity very important for students motivation; topic or genre of the text is introduced e.g. with collective discussion or with some pictures to be fully motivated (Wallace, 1992, p. 62).
• Receptive activities – work with a certain text, reading, listening. We can realize various reading strategies, e.g. skimming, scanning, and reading aloud. They should lead to the encouragement of students. We can distinguish language-based approaches (e.g. gap-filling) or approaches relating to the content of the text. Both of them should aim and encourage students to be as much active and reflexive as possible.

• Productive activities – practicing of acquired knowledge, work in pairs, in groups or individually with help of teacher who takes notice of using target language. Summarization of lesson that should be done by students, it shows how students understand a given topic.

• Follow-up activities – next improving, developing, appropriate using of learnt activities. We can practice it in a form of creative homework, exercises. Harmer (1991) states that large scale of skills and activities can be developed e.g. drawing characters, making discussion, creating some pictures, dramatic activities, etc. (Harmer, 1991, p. 188).

2.3 The Role of the Teacher in ESP Teaching Situation

2.3.1 ‘ESP’ Teacher versus ‘General English’ Teacher

It is difficult to delimitate where ‘General English’ and ESP course starts and ends. It is the same with the role of the teacher in those two courses. The aim of ESP teacher is not only to meet the learners’ specific needs in the field of a particular discipline but also to provide satisfying learning background (Designing course, setting goals and objectives, selecting materials, etc.). Studying subject matter in English is in the centre of students’ attention, not the language itself; how it is in
'General English' course. This explains why the concept of ESP course is adapted to students' needs. On the other hand, "ESP teacher should not become a teacher of the subject matter, but rather an interested student of the subject of the subject matter." (Hutchinson and Waters, 1992, p.163).

Hutchinson and Waters (1992) assign different roles to 'ESP' and 'General English' teachers. Beside the typical duties of classroom teacher, ESP teacher "deals with needs analysis, syllabus design, materials writing or adaption and evaluation," they see "ESP teacher's role in one of many parts." (Hutchinson and Waters, 1992, p.157).

The other aspect refers to training ESP teachers which was not covered as much so teachers of ESP have to "orientate themselves to a new environment." (Hutchinson and Waters, 1992, p. 157). In general, a positive attitude to ESP content, learners and previous knowledge of the subject area are required (Hutchinson and Waters, 1992, p 163).

2.3.2 Dudley-Evans Theory of ESP Practitioner

Tony Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) define five key roles for the ESP practitioner: teacher, collaborator, course designer and materials provider, researcher and evaluator. The role of 'teacher' is in fact the same as the role of 'General English' teacher. The role of 'collaborator' is concerned with working (collaborating) with specialists to meet the specific learners' needs. The aim of the role of 'course designer' and 'materials provider' is the same in both, ESP and 'General English' courses; to provide the most suitable materials in the lesson to achieve set goals. Researchers' results find out whether the choice of materials meet learners' and
teachers' expectations. The role of evaluator is very important in the whole learning process. It is necessary to inform students about their progress in their language learning that is why giving feedback is an inevitable part of each activity. (Laurence Anthony, 2007).

2.3.3 Creating a Learning Environment-Motivation

Creating a positive learning atmosphere in the classroom is a primary step for achieving setting objectives and goals. It makes teaching and learning more pleasant for both sides of the process, for a teacher and a learner, and it supports students in their work.

Creating a positive atmosphere is closely linked with motivation. Motivation is an important and necessary part of students' work that affects their future success or failure. It is a kind of inner motor that encourages us to do our best to achieve a satisfactory goal in our activity. Harmer (1991) describes motivation as “some kind of internal drive that encourages somebody to pursue a course of action” (Harmer, 1991, p. 14). The role of motivation during each activity is inevitable. Students should be motivated as much as possible to enjoy the activity and achieve its real aim. “Motivation makes teaching and learning immeasurably easier and more pleasant, as well as more productive (Ur, 1996, p. 274). That can be made in many ways.

Motivation to learn can be affected by various factors around students. The Teacher is probably the major factor in a process of motivation. He or she acts a primary role in the continuance of students' motivation. His or her enthusiasm and interest in subject are considered to be a highly motivated feature for students. Students are definitely influenced by the way of speaking, explaining and teacher's
attitude to them. Therefore, the method of learning is another important factor in motivation. It has a close connection with an attractive way of lesson presentation. Other factors that influence motivation may be the general attitude to subject or the influence of people close to them.

2.4 English for Medical Purposes (EMP)

A major area of ESP, which is booming at present, is in Medical English or English for Medical Purposes (EMP). It has been reported that teaching medical English has been going for more than two thousand years, accumulating special terms through the ages (Khan, 1990, p.75). EMP use has spread widely because of the breakthrough in the world medical field and in the revolution of information and technology (IT). EMP can be taught to a variety of different learners. It can be taught to people who are already in the field or preparing to start a job. It can also be taught to a student who is studying Nursing or Medical Laboratories and needs Medical English to pursue his specialist materials.

As stated by Frank (1998), the last three decades have been a time of increased emphasis on communication within the medical community of the USA (and of course, in the world). According to Frank (1998, p. 32):

"Medical personnel have learned that health care is improved when their patients are fully informed. Increased consumer demand for information, increased observance of positive health care outcomes and increased government commitment and mandates have led to heightened sensitivity to the need for improved medical staff-patient communication”.

More specifically, during the last 30 years, English for medical purposes has been studied within the field of English for specific purposes (ESP). Frank (1998, p.23) points out that “research in English for medical purposes has been carried out
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from three perspectives: (a) medical professionals who need to learn to communicate in English in order to practice their profession in an English speaking country (b) medical professionals who wish to publish in English medical journals or participate in international research and conferences and (c) university students who wish to study in the medical field in an English speaking university”.

2.4.1. Definition of EMP

Medical English is a branch of ESP which relies heavily on specialized vocabulary. Kenneth and Chuntana Methold point out that Medical English is difficult to define. They observe:

“Medical writing relies very heavily on a specialized vocabulary. Most of these words can not be usefully translated or even defined. Medical writing is often so difficult to understand, it is necessary to approach it from a variety of angles if one is to understand the ideas hidden in long words and even longer and complex sentences.

(The Metholds, 1975, as cited in Khan, 1990, p. 113)

2.4.2 Developments in EMP

EMP has been greatly influenced by register analysis, discourse analysis and genre analysis. Since EMP is a branch of ESP, its developments will clearly be seen under the heading ‘Developments of ESP’ (2.5). Studies done on EMP will be focused when necessary.

2.5 Developments of ESP

It should be noted that ESP has not developed in isolation from linguistics, language study and language teaching. Developments in these areas have tremendously influenced the thinking behind ESP, the designing of ESP materials and
the teaching of these materials. Swales points out that ESP should be seen as an evolving ‘species’. He writes:

    ESP is not a young cuckoo determined to eliminate all other birds from the nest that it has infiltrated; it is better seen as a recently-evolved species that best thrives in certain secluded and restricted kinds of habitat.

    (Swales, 1985, p. 208).

This being an insightful observation, a discussion of linguistic and non-linguistic developments will be taken up in the following sections.

2.5.1 Linguistic Developments

In this section, three approaches to linguistic analysis that represent the move from description to explanation will be discussed. These approaches are register analysis, grammatical-rhetorical and discourse analysis and genre analysis. It is worth indicating that the outcomes of these different types of analyses have led to the production of a wide range of ESP teaching materials.

2.5.1.1 Register Analysis

‘Register’ refers to a language variety that is used in a situation different from another situation. Halliday, McIntosh and Strevens (1964) define registers as follows:

Registers-----differ primarily in form-----the crucial criteria of any given register are to be found in its grammar and its lexis...it is by their formal properties that registers are defined. If two samples of language activity from what, no non-linguistic grounds, could be considered different situation-types show no differences in grammar or lexis, they are assigned to one and the same register...

    (Cited in Widdowson, 1983, p.28)
Essentially, register analysis concerns itself with the statistical description of certain texts; looking at the frequent occurrences of certain lexis and structures. It does not go beyond sentence level. It was widely used in the sixties and early seventies when structural linguistics was in vogue. The purpose of register analysis was to provide students of different specializations, say Biology or Medicine, with vocabulary and structures that the students would face in their academic course of study. Thus, register analysis emerged when there was a need for using English for teaching science and technology students (EST).

There were many ESP textbooks, which were designed within the framework of register analysis. Swales (1985) considers Herbert’s (1965) The Structure of Technical English as the first real textbook, which was designed to teach special English for foreign engineers or students of engineering. Another textbook that was based on the structure of language is Ewer and Latorre’s (1949) A course in Basic Scientific English. The content of the course centred on the following language discrete units:

1. Simple present active.
2. Simple present passive
3. Simple present Active and passive
4. -ing forms
5. Present perfect, present continuous
6. Infinitives
7. Anomalous Finites
8. Past perfect; Conditionals

(Cited in Hutchinson and Waters, 1987, p.20).

Nevertheless, it turned out that EST textbooks and syllabi based on register analysis focused only on form rather than on meaning. They did not care about language use and communications. Though register analyses provide information about the structure of technical English, they do not go beyond the sentence level.
(surface structure). They say nothing about how a certain text is written, why it is written and how it is used (Bhatia, 1993; Dudley-Evans and St. John 1998; Hutchinson and Waters, 1987). Widdowson (1979) further describes language studies based on register analysis as quantitative and suggests the need for more qualitative studies that would take into consideration communicative competence and role performance. To overcome these shortcomings of register analysis, different techniques have been developed through grammatical-rhetorical and discourse analysis.

2.5.1.2 Grammatical-rhetorical and Discourse Analysis

Having sketched register analysis, which had language form as its prime concern, it is time now to turn to a more elaborate approach to language description, i.e. discourse analysis. ‘Context’ is the key concept in discourse analysis that came from speech acts theory developed by Searl (1969, 1979) and Austin (1975). For example, ‘it is midnight’, in terms of Austin is locution which is actually said, but what the speaker intends to say is illocution. In this case the speaker may mean: ‘Don’t disturb me. I want to sleep’. So the context of this statement tells us about its function. Therefore, this approach to language analysis was a turning point in the development of ESP, as this will be clear in the following paragraphs.

Discourse analysis has shifted linguistic analysis from language form (Widdowson’s term usage) into language use. One departure from this stand to linguistic analysis was the work of Lackstorm, Selinker and Timble (1972), which put emphasis on rhetorical functions that determine the choice of grammatical structure. The three scholars distinguished two kinds of paragraphs: the physical paragraph and the conceptual paragraph, where a conceptual paragraph may consist of several
physical paragraphs. In the conceptual paragraph, certain structures convey rhetorical functions. For example, only present tense is used in scientific English to express generalizations, but not present continuous or simple past.

Apart from the work just mentioned, discourse analysis was clearly adjusted into the main stream of ESP by Allen and Widdowson (1974) who are considered the principal advocates of these approaches to language description. They give this elaboration:

One might usefully distinguish two kinds of ability, which an English course at this level should aim at developing. The first is the ability to recognize how sentences are used in the performance of acts of communication, the ability to understand the rhetorical functioning of language in use. The second is the ability to recognize and manipulate the formal devices, which are used to combine sentences to create continuous passage of prose. We might say that the first has to do with rhetorical coherence of discourse, the second with the grammatical cohesion of text.

(Allen and Widdowson, 1974, pp. 3-4)

For them the focus of language teaching should not be only on the rules of grammar, but also on the rules of using the language. In other words, Scientific English should focus on communicative properties of language. For example, how to define, describe, classify, etc. should be taught to the learner of EST who has a specific purpose for learning English.

As materials writers and ESP teachers, Mackay and Mountford (1978, p.127) expressed their need for structural descriptions in terms of communicative or rhetorical value of language used by scientists or technologists such as ‘defining, identifying, comparing, differentiating, classifying, etc.’
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Discoursal studies explored features of texts such as cohesive devices, which are important for understanding scientific prose. Mackay (1973) emphasizes that cohesive devices or linking words"...are particularly frequent and important in the tight logically developed presentation of scientific information", (Cited in Robinson, 1980, p. 21). These kinds of discoursal studies, which developed in line with ESP, are very useful to the teaching of ESP. The learner will be able to understand certain texts by the help of those signposts or discourse connectives, which link different ideas together in the text. Following are some discoursal studies on Medical English.

Williams (1996) studied and analyzed lexical verb uses in two types of medical research articles (clinical and experimental). The corpus of the analysis consisted of two groups of four articles. Finite and non-finite forms of verbs occurring at a frequency of over 4 per 10,000 words were included. The results of this study indicate that certain verbs occurring frequently such as ‘show’, ‘find’, ‘observe’ could be contrasted semantically and syntactically with verbs of lower frequency with similar meaning or function to highlight special features and avoid generalization.

In the context of Medical Sciences or in Medicine in general, studies of the discourse of Medical textbooks also brought some features of Medical English. The work done by Khan (1990) will provide, the researcher thinks, the course designer with valuable insights into the features of medical English discourse. The use of affixes was considered as the most conspicuous feature of medical vocabulary. In his analysis of medical texts, Khan (1990) treated some affixes used in medical discourse as important elements that form the core vocabulary of medical English because of their frequency in medical discourse in general. He listed fifty elements as suffixes
such as ‘-algia’, ‘blepsia’, ‘-cardia’ and fifty elements as prefixes such as ‘abdomin-’, ‘all-’, ‘aero’, etc

Although discourse analysis studies examined different types of texts and rhetorical functions of language that have heavily influenced the movement of ESP (as this fed into teaching materials, methodology and classroom techniques), several things remain untouched. Bhatia (1993) rightly points out that applied discourse analysis fails to account for two things:

1. It does not provide adequate information about the rationale behind various discourse-types and thus provides no sufficient explanation of the sociocultural, institutional, and organizational constraints and expectations that influence the nature of a particular discourse-genre.

2. It takes little heed of the conventionalized regularities in the organization of various communicative events.

Thus, there was a need for another technique, which would take such features and characteristics of discourse-genre into consideration. A technique that not only describes discourses, but also explains ‘why are specific discourse-genres written and used by the specialist communities the way they are?’ (Bhatia, 1993, p.11) This development within discourse analysis will be taken up in the next section.

2.5.1.3 Genre Analysis

In the previous section it has been shown that discourse analysis, as a descriptive technique, provides the materials writer with information about rhetorical functions and rules of using language. It does describe several aspects of discourse including discourse connectors and functions conveyed by certain structures.
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However, it does not provide in Geertz’s (1973) term a ‘thick description’, which considers the purpose of writing, the audience and the social setting. For example, it does not say why a ‘definition’ or ‘classification’ is given at a particular juncture (Swales, 1981). In order to introduce a ‘thick description of language in use’, Bhatia (1993) rightly indicates that

It is necessary to combine socio-cultural (including ethnographic) and psycholinguistic (including cognitive) aspects of text-construction and interpretation with linguistic insights, in order to answer the question, why are specific discourse-genres written and used by the specialist communities the way they are?

(Bhatia, 1993, p.11)

Thus, it is genre analysis that is capable of comprehensively describing all these aspects. It is a more advantageous technique to the analysis of language use in academic and professional settings.

To begin with, ‘genre’, as a term, was first used in the context of ESP by Tarone et al (1981) when they analyzed the use of active and passive forms in two astrophysics journal papers. This does not, however, mean that their study fully belong to the genre analysis tradition, because one of their aims was to investigate in depth the rhetorical functions of these forms (here, passive and active forms). (Tarone et al, 1981, in Shuja’ 2004, p.61). This aim qualifies the study to be part of grammatical-rhetorical analysis (Swales, 1985).

However, two earlier studies were done without using the term ‘genre’. Mitchell (1957/75), in Flowerdew (1993), did the first study. He analyzed the genre of shop transactions in Libya. The following elements of the transactions were reported:

1. salutation
2. enquiring as to the object of sale
Genre analysis has developed independently through three approaches. These are New Rhetoric Approach, the Australian School and the Swalesian approach. Since New Rhetoric Approach concern itself with first language teaching, it will be excluded from this overview of genre analysis. The other two approaches are briefly discussed below.

In the Australian School, Martin (1985) defines ‘genre’ as a “staged, goal-oriented, purposeful activity in which speakers engage as members of our culture” (Cited in Kay and Dudley-Evans, 1998, p.308). The thinking behind this school is based on a larger theory of language known as systematic functional linguistics developed by Michael Halliday. In his view of systematic functional linguistics, Halliday (1978), in Hyon (1996), language should be considered in relation to its function in social settings. Social context is seen from three different parameters: field (what the text is about), tenor (the relation between sender and receiver) and mode (channel of conveying the text-written or spoken) (Hyon, 1996) and (Flowerdew, 1993).

The Australian School of genre analysis focuses on developing literacy in school children, (Kay and Dudley-Evans, 1998, p. 309). Christie (1999) has also observed that language programmes based on this approach have been used in Australia to deal with disadvantaged students, second language students and aborigines students. Since Martin’s examples of genres include making a dentist’s appointment, buying vegetables, telling a story and writing an essay, the use of the
findings of this approach could be used more in English for General purposes than in ESP.

The third approach to genre analysis is the Swalesian approach. It differs from the previous two approaches, because it is ESP-specific. Swales (1990) defines genre as "...class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes". (Swales, 1990, p. 58) Swales' definition seems to be wider in scope than Martin's, in that it implies both speakers and writers who share some set of communicative purposes.

Swales' Pioneering work on genre is exemplified by his analysis of research article introductions (1981) and (1990) in terms of 'moves', which the writer of any genre makes use of when writing for a certain purpose and to a specific audience. He proposes the following moves (each has certain steps), which capture the features of research articles:

Move-1 Establishing a territory
   Step-1 Claiming Centrality
   and/or
   Step-2 Making topic generalization
   and/or
   Step-3 Reviewing items of previous research

Move-2 Establishing a niche
   Step-1A Counter-claiming
   or
   Step-1B Indicating a gap
   or
   Step-1C Question-raising
   Step-1D Continuing a tradition

Move-3 Occupying the niche
   Step-1A Outlining purpose
   or
   Step-1B Announcing present research
   Step-2 Announcing Principle findings
   Step-3 Indicating RA (Research Article) structure

(Swales, 1990, p.141)
The model above shows the way the writer conveys his/her ideas to the audience by gradually going down from broad ideas until the very specific contribution is reached. Dudley-Evans and St. John define the term 'move', which is used in this model, as

a unit that relates both the writer’s purpose and to the context that he/she wishes to communicate, [whereas a ‘step’] is a lower level text unit than the move that provides a detailed perspective on the options open to the writer in setting out the moves.

(Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998, p.89)

The Swalesian approach seems to be advocated by many ESP practitioners and genre analysts. Based on the Swalesian model of article introduction, many genre-based analyses have been made. Dudley-Evans and Henderson (1990), for instance, investigated sixteen economics articles in order to pinpoint the changes that have taken place over a certain period of time. They observed that later articles of economics follow the pattern as set out in the Swales’ model.

More extensive studies have been done along the lines of Swales’ (1981 and 1990) model of ‘move’ analysis. Hopkins and Dudley-Evans (1988) studied the discussion sections in journal articles and dissertation in order to arrive at a framework for a pedagogically useful description of the organization of these sections. Based on their investigation, they propose the pedagogical framework, which appears again in Dudley-Evans (1994), being more improved and comprehensive. The following are the ‘move’ cycles:

- Information Move
- Statement of Result
- Finding
- (Un) Expected Outcome
- Reference to Previous Research
- Explanation
The result of this analysis will provide input for course designers and ESP teachers who are interested in preparing materials to meet the needs of those students who are desirous of joining, in the near future, the academic discourse community. In a step-by-step method, the teacher can precisely show the student how to go about writing the discussion section by talking each ‘move cycle’ into practice, letting the students apply it to their assignments.

For Medical English, many studies based on Swale’s genre analysis model have been done. Nwogu (1997) studied the structure of information in all sections of the medical research paper using Swalé’s (1981, 1990) genre analysis model. According to Nwogu (1997, P. 120), “although based on Swales’ model this study represents an application of the model beyond Swales’ article introduction to the whole body of the research article”. He states that this paper “is written for specialists in the field of linguistics. Therefore, it describes moves with greater linguistic depth and rigour” (p.120).

The results of this study revealed that a typical medical research paper may be made up of eleven schematic units or “moves”, consisting of three each from the Introduction and Methods sections, two from the Results section and four from the Discussion section.

We come now to the use of genre analysis in teaching ESP courses. Of the many studies done in genre analysis, only very few have provided suggestions and genre-based tasks for ESP teaching. Swales (1990) provides a model activity for teaching writing. He suggests the genre of reprint request of papers and books to be a
part of a course in Academic Correspondence for non-native researchers (Swales, 1986).

Furthermore, Badger and White (2000) elaborate further on the process genre approach to the teaching of writing. For them this approach is more effective than product or process approach if each is carried out alone. In a process genre approach the learner has to consider the purpose of writing, the audience (tenor), the information to be included (field), ways of presenting information (mode), his/her knowledge of grammar and vocabulary, and organization including redrafting and proofreading of the genre. They propose a model of genre process approach, which shows the process of teaching writing in figure 2-1 below.

![A process genre model of writing](Badger and White, 2000 159)

Fig. 2-1: A process of genre model of writing

The use of dashes in the figure means that input is not always required. But what is essential in this process is to know the situation, the purpose and mode, field and tenor. Then come the three steps of planning how and what to write, drafting and
revising, and then finally publishing. This approach might prove useful, especially with intermediate students and above.

2.5.2 Non-linguistic Developments

By non-linguistic developments it is meant, those developments, which are not derived from the way language texts are described or explained, but from other areas of research including study skills, learner-centeredness and needs analysis. In this section, we will touch upon those areas of research and others that played a major role in the development of ESP materials writing as well as teaching.

2.5.2.1 Study Skills

For a long period of time, the teaching of ESP has been concerned about the structures and forms of the target language. Teaching materials focused only on aspects of language including pronunciation, morphology and syntax. This is called language-centered approach, which gives a description of the language used in the target situation (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987).

The thinking behind skills-based approach is that while using the language there is an amount of thought process, which makes us understand the discourse. Thus, deducing of a particular word from the context is a thought process that takes place, regardless of the surface structure of the discourse. (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987). What is then more important in this approach is to find out about the skills and strategies that the language users make use of while using the language in the target situation. For example, what does a nursing doctor or a laboratory technician do when writing a report? Or, how a sales’ manager prepares and organizes a quotation or an order letter. Such questions made language course designers and teachers focus on the
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skills that will make the learners use language effectively and appropriately. Thus, skills-based courses have found their way to the field of ESP teaching. Courses were designed and prepared around the four language skills depending on why certain students want to learn English. Examples of ESP courses, which reflect the skills-based approach, are Skills for Learning developed at the University of Malaya and Reading and Thinking series published by Oxford University press in 1980 (Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998). A reflection of the skill-based approach was also evident at the Yemeni Universities. When ESP courses started, they aimed at enabling science students to read references in English and write laboratory reports and exams papers.

2.5.2.2 Learner-centered Approach

As seen in the previous section, teachers and course designers’ concern has shifted from language-focused teaching into skills-based ESP courses. The focus has become gradually closer to the language learner. This transition was inspired by the humanistic approach to teaching. Community Language Learning and Suggestopedia are two methods of teaching, which represent this approach to teaching and learning. In this approach, the learner is the master. He/she is given the complete freedom to choose the teaching materials and the model of teaching. The teacher is no longer the unique authority in the class. The teacher becomes only a helper and a facilitator that is available to the learner.

Also the concept of ‘learner autonomy’, emerged from the humanistic approach to language teaching, was applied to ESP situations where the learner’s involvement in the process of teaching and learning is of a prime concern. That is because ESP teaching caters for the learner’s goals, wants and needs. Learners may participate in the decision-making of what to teach and how. They are given the
opportunity to reflect on the course they are studying. For example, they can be asked to give their opinion about tasks difficulty, clarity and relevance to their needs and goals. In the light of this understanding of learner autonomy, the language courses became much more responsive to the learners' needs. Humanistic approach, however, did not pay sufficient heed to the real world needs of the learner which are vital to the practical goals of the learners, a point made by Tudor (1996, as cited in Shuja' 2004, p.73).

This having been said, the movement of communicative language teaching (CLT) has looked into the practical side of the process of learning and teaching. CLT is highly concerned with the communication needs of the learner, because its main principle is that language is a system for expressing meaning, interaction and communication being the primary function (Richards and Rodgers, 1986). CLT, then, concerns itself with the practical needs of the learner. Hence, the notion of 'authenticity' of teaching materials as well as authenticity of tasks is generally desired in ELT and ESP in particular.

Thus, the concept of 'learner-centeredness' comes to the fore, because the learner is the focus of the teaching process. When talking about 'authentic' tasks or materials, it is meant that they are responsive to the learner's goals, aspirations and expectations. In this regard, Strevens (1988) describes 'authentic' as realistic, communicative and operational. He explains what he means by these adjectives in this way:

realistic [means] not seen as wrong or trivial by trained specialists in the subject, communicative [means] covering the appropriate combinations of language skills and operational [means] giving opportunities for realistic situations and role-playing.

(Strevens, 1988, p.11)
Hutchinson and Waters (1987), however, advocate a learning-centred approach to a learner-centred approach saying that in reality it is not only the learner who decides and determines learning. Rather, "learning is a process of negotiation between individuals and society". (Hutchinson and Water, 1987, p.72). Different parties are responsible for deciding the type of teaching materials the ESP students would study to achieve the desired ends and goals.

To arrive at a satisfactory learning-centred teaching, a procedure was greatly needed for identifying the learner’s practical needs that are neglected by humanistic approach. This procedure is ‘needs analysis’ which will be taken up in the following sub-sections.

### 2.5.2.3 Needs Analysis (NA)

An analysis of the learners’ needs is seen as the first step in the preparation of ESP course design. Richards, Platt J. and Platt H. (1992, pp.242- 243) define needs analysis as “the process of determining the needs for which a learner or group of learners requires a language and arranging the needs according to priorities”. In doing this, they illustrate, needs analysts gather subjective and objective information about the learner in order to know the objectives for which the language is needed, the situation in which the language will be used, with whom the language will be used, and the level of proficiency required. In another definition of needs analysis, Nunan (1988, p.13) focuses more on the information-gathering process; he states that “techniques and procedures for collecting information to be used in syllabus design are referred to needs analysis".
The subject of NA started to gain prominence in the West during the last two decades of the twentieth century, more specifically, with Munby’s (1978) classification of communicative needs. Researchers have realized that it is not practical to attempt to teach the whole of a foreign language, as this will require more time and effort than is practically possible for the majority of learners and teachers alike (Maley, 1983). It has been argued that even native speakers of the language do not use all their information about their first language (L1), and that much of this information is used passively, i.e. at the recognition level only. Accordingly, focusing on the reasons why learners need to learn the foreign language will better enable language teaching professionals to cater for their learners’ specific needs and save a lot of wasted time and effort. The seminal work of Munby (1978) has led researchers, especially in the field of English for special/ specific purposes (ESP), to propose various NA taxonomies and suggest various ways in which students’ needs may be analyzed (e.g. Ferris, 1998; Hutchinson and Waters, 1984, 1987; Johns, 1981; Seedhouse, 1995).

According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987), needs analysis started mainly in the field of ESP. Nevertheless, they argue that as far as needs analysis is concerned, there should not be any difference between ESP and general English (GE). They state:

'It is often argued that the needs of the general English learner, for example, the schoolchild, are not specified ..... In fact, this is the weakest of all arguments, because it is always possible to specify needs, even if it is only the need to pass the exam at the end of the school year. There is always an identifiable need for some sort. What distinguishes ESP from General English is not the existence of a need as such but rather an awareness of the need .

(Hutchinson and Waters, 1987, p. 53)
Needs analysis (NA) is not confined to ESP. It has developed from training and development programmes, which have nothing to do with language, a point commented on by Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) They State.

Needs analysis is neither unique to language teaching needs assessment, for example, is the basis of training programmes and aid-development programmes—nor, within language training, is it unique to LSP and thus to ESP.

(Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998, p. 122)

NA is considered to be a quintessential procedure for identifying the learner’s needs prior to the commencement of any ESP course. This does not mean that needs analysis can be done only at the beginning of any language course. Rather, it is an ongoing process that can be re-done or reviewed at any stage of the course. This has been emphasized by many authors and ESP practitioners (e.g. Robinson 1980; Chambers 1980; Hutchinson and Waters 1987; Robinson 1991; Jordan 1997; Dudley-Evans St. John 1998).

The job of NA is thus to bring the authentic world, be it academic or professional, to the learners in the classroom, so that they get familiarized with the target situations in which they are going to be active language users. Therefore, investigation of learners’ needs “would appear to be the obvious basis for designing ESP courses” (Braine, 2001, p. 195).

In this respect, Widdowson (1983, p.178) distinguishes two types of learner needs: ‘goal-oriented needs’, which the learner aims to achieve at the end of any course and ‘Process-oriented needs’, which the learner requires to learn the language during the course. In line with these interpretations of learner needs, Brindley (1989)
uses ‘narrow’ for ‘product or goal-oriented’ needs and ‘broad’ for ‘process-oriented’ needs. Then there is the distinction made between subjective needs and objective needs, on the one hand, and between felt and perceived needs on the other. In fact, all these terms can be clubbed into one concept of needs. That is the gap between what is there and what should be.

To find out about this gap, different sources should be approached. For example, if the students themselves are asked about their learning preferences, strategies, goals and wants, needs analysis is said to be subjective. But if the teachers of these students are asked to provide information about their perceived needs of the students, then needs analysis is said to be objective. This leads to emphasizing that obtaining information from the students and about them is a necessary step before starting any ESP programme.

Within the general heading of need, the two scholars Hutchinson and Waters (1987) identify the following divisions:

1) Target Needs: they point out that ‘target needs’ is an umbrella term that hides a number of important destinations. They deal with the target situation in terms of necessities, lacks and wants as following:

   a) Necessities: by necessities they mean “the type of need determined by the demands of the target situation, that is, what the learner has to know in order to function effectively in the target situation” (p. 55).

   b) Lacks: According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987), identifying necessities alone is not enough. They state that we have to know what the learner knows already. This helps us, according to Hutchinson and Waters, decide which of
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the necessities the learner lacks. In other words, we need to match the target proficiency against the existing proficiency, and the gap between them is learner’s lacks.

c) **Wants:** learners’ wants and their views about the reasons why they need language have to be taken into consideration. This is because students may have a clear idea about the necessities of the target situation and will certainly have a view as to their lacks. Actually, this might be a problem as the learner’s views might conflict with the perception of other interested parties, e.g. course designers, sponsors and teachers.

2) **Learning Needs:** Learning needs give an idea about how students will be able to move from the starting point (lacks) to the destinations (necessities). Hutchinson and Waters (1987) believe that it is naïve to base a course design simply on the target objectives, and that the learning situation must also be taken into account. They go on to say the target situation alone is not a reliable indicator, and that the conditions of the learning situation, the learners’ knowledge, skills, strategies, and motivation for learning are of prime concern. More information about learning needs and target needs will be given in the following sections.

For the purpose of the present study, the definition of needs analysis proposed by Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) will be quoted. They consider needs analysis to comprise the following aspects.

A. Professional information about the learners: the tasks and activities learners are/will be using English for target situation analysis and objective needs.

B. Present information about the learners: factors which may affect the way they learn such as previous learning experiences, cultural information, reasons for attending the course and expectations of it, attitudes to English-wants, means, subjective needs.
C. English language information about the learners: what their current skills and language use are—present situation analysis, which allows us to assess (D).

D. The learners’ lacks: the gap between (C) and (A) lacks

E. Language learning information: effective ways of learning the skills and language in—(D) learning needs.

F. Professional communication information about (A): Knowledge of how language and skills are used in the target situation—linguistic analysis, discourse analysis, genre analysis.

G. What is wanted from the course?

H. Information about the environment in which the course will be run—means analysis.

(Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998, p. 125)

It can briefly be said that the students, the ESP teachers as well as the subject teachers are approached to get relevant information from and about the learners. In the following sub-sections, different types and practices of needs analysis (approaches) are presented.

2.5.2.3.1 Target-Situation Analysis (TSA)

According to West (1994), ‘Target Situation Analysis’ (TSA) identifies the ‘necessities’, i.e. the demands of the target situation or, in other words, what the learners need to know in order to function effectively in the target situation. This means, this approach to needs analysis looks into the language of the discourse community in which the language learners will be using. This kind of needs analysis helps to know about the types of language functions used in the target situations. It gathers information about what is expected of the learners. It does not, however, elicit information from the learner. Then it is objective in nature. As West (1994), Hutchinson and Waters consider these needs of the target situation as ‘necessities’, which “… the learner has to know in order to function effectively in the target situation”. (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987, p.55)
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The most popular and well-documented procedure for obtaining information about objective needs is Munby’s (1987) model to ESP syllabus design. He proposed a ‘Communicative Needs processor’ (CNP), which takes, “...account of the variables that affect communication needs by organizing them as parameters in a dynamic relationship to each other.” (Munby, 1978, p. 32).

The learner’s (or participants in Munby’s terms) personal details such as age, gender, nationality, etc. are fed into the model CNP, which consists of two sets of parameters or categories. One set of parameters -purposive domain, setting, interaction and instrumentality-will interact with another set -dialect, target level, communicative event and communicative key to make up the profile of communication needs for a particular language learner. His instrument was designed to collect biographical data about the learners as well as information about the context and setting in which the learner would be operating, a point made by Nunan (1990).

2.5.2.3.1.1 Criticism of Munby’s Model

Although Munby’s model was highly standardized, systematic as well as comprehensive way of analyzing the target situation needs whose influence has touched upon language teaching in general and ESP in particular, this model has been criticized by many ESP scholars and critics. They evaluate Munby’s work from different perspectives and attitudes.

According to Davies (1981), Munby’s work as a book “needs to be totally re-written before publication as a book” (Davies, 1981, p.332). Taking into consideration the concept of ‘needs analysis’, Davies states that ‘Communicative Syllabus Design’ (CSD) deals with needs only, “which is a pity since the tension between needs and
demands is one that is ripe for analysis. Needs are private, demands public, and it is arguable that language teachers are as concerned with the former as the latter” (Davies, 1981, p. 332). The title of the book-CSD- reflects its aim, that is to provide language teachers with a syllabus, but it is not in itself a syllabus, as Davies (1981, p. 333) remarks “what we do expect is that it will tell us how to construct a syllabus and by extension a textbook, etc.”

Jordan (1997) looks at Munby’s model as an approach to needs analysis. He describes Munby’s model as ‘target-situation analysis’ approach, one among many approaches to needs analysis, such as present-situation analysis, deficiency analysis, strategy analysis, and so on. Jordan also comments that Munby’s work was “a landmark in the development of needs analysis, and probably the best framework for target-situation analysis” (Jordan, 1997, p. 22).

Jordan (1997) criticizes Munby’s work in some points. First, the model should have taken into consideration practical constraints at beginning of the needs analysis procedure instead of considering them after the procedure had been worked through. Second, Jordan emphasizes that there should be matching between the linguistic items meant for practice and those used outside the classroom. To quote his own words, “the language items chosen for practice in ESP/EAP should reflect those used in the real world, not the language derived from social English as classified by Munby’s model” (Jordan, 1997, p. 24).

Referring to West’s (1994) criticisms of Munby’s work, Jordan indicates that “Munby’s attempt to be systematic and comprehensive inevitably made his instrument inflexible, complex and time-consuming” (Jordan, 1997, p.24). This results in the ‘simplicity’ of needs analysis.
It seems that Hutchinson and Waters (1987) praise and appreciate Munby’s work more than they criticize it. They consider Munby’s work as “a highly detailed set of procedures for discovering target situation needs” and “the most thorough and widely known work on needs analysis” (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p 54). Based on the assumption that both target situation needs and learning needs must be taken into consideration, they conclude that what we need is ‘a learning-centred approach to needs analysis’, not just a list of the linguistic features of the target situation as Munby’s CNP produces. (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987).

Coleman (1988), in his criticism of Munby’s work, indicates that Munby’s model has the tendency of idealizing the language learner. He goes to say that Munby does not make any distinction between ‘language participants’ and ‘categories of participants’. Coleman proceeds to say that Munby’s “... idealization of the language learner implies that groups of learners are static and homogeneous” (Coleman, 1988:156).

Lastly, commenting on Munby’s model to syllabus design, Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) point out that Munby did not say anything about how to arrive at priorities among the micro-functions of language provided by his model. This point is practically valid. Any situation will require certain language skills and abilities, but some of these will be more often used than the others.

These weaknesses to Munby’s model have led to the emergence of another needs analysis version, which considers the present proficiency level of the target students. This will be taken up in the following sub-section.
2.5.2.3.2 Present Situation Analysis (PSA)

Present situation analysis, which is also called Deficiency Analysis, deals with the gap between what the target trainees know at present and what they are required to know or to do at the end of the programme. Other aspects of deficiency analysis investigate whether students are required to do something in the target language that they can not do in their native language.

Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) include in their definition of needs analysis that Present Situation Analysis (PSA) should go concurrently with Target Situation Analysis (TSA) in order to ascertain the ‘lacks’ (in Hutchinson and Waters’ (1987) term) of the target learners. This Kind of analysis informs the course designer and/or teacher about the necessities of the target situation that the learner may lack. Ultimately ESP, as it is influenced by learner-centered approaches, is concerned about the learner, not the target situation.

However, PSA, which was provided by Richtrich and Chanceral (1977/80, in Shuja’ 2004), is not a substitute for TSA. It is a reaction to TSA in order to complement what is missing in the latter, i.e. the analysis of learners’ current abilities with regard to their future uses of the language. Both TSA and PSA are concerned with the ultimate goals of both learner and learners.

Two central components are mostly included in PSA approach to needs assessment:

(a) an inventory of potential target needs expressed in terms of activities and
(b) a scale that is used to establish the priorities among these activities.
This will help in specifying learning objectives and priorities among them. Because

...we cannot-or at least should not -specify teaching materials without reference to the type of learner and his or her learning objectives.

(McDonough, 1984, p.35)

The sources of information that are sought in conducting PSA are: the learner, the teacher and the discourse community in which the learner will ultimately be using the language. In this present study, PSA is also considered and questionnaires and interviews are used to collect data from these sources.

2.5.2.3.3 Learning Needs Analysis

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) strongly advocate learning-centered approach over TSA. According to them, knowing the starting point (PSA) and the destination (TSA) is not sufficient. In addition to that, one needs to know how the learner will get from the starting point to the destination. This means learning how to acquire what is ‘necessary’ for the destination is as important as knowing what to do in the target situation. For the purpose of analyzing learning needs, they offer a framework that comprises the following questions:

- Why are the learners taking the course?
- How do the learners learn?
- What sources are available?
- Where will the ESP course take place?
- Who are the learners?
- When will the course take place?

(Hutchinson and Waters, 1987, p. 62-63)

When comparing this checklist to the set of variables proposed by Munby (1987), Flowerdew (1995, p.20) rightly observes that there is a considerable amount
of overlap between the two. The only and important difference is that Munby suggests
the implementation of the variables after the syllabus is composed, whereas
Hutchinson and Waters consider the checklist prior to the design of the syllabus.
However, Swales (1989) points out that Munby has modified his position saying that
“... in practice we found some constraints cannot wait...” (Munby 1984, in Swales 1989, p. 683). Constraints such as political factors affecting the learners can be
investigated before the syllabus design.

Therefore, it can be concluded that the learners’ participatory roles and their
involvement in the process of needs analysis help a lot in deciding on the contents of
the teaching materials that will be more responsive to the learner’s subjective as well
as objective needs. Learner involvement also helps in specifying how to teach these
contents.

2.5.2.3.4 Strategy Analysis

Strategy Analysis deals with how to teach and learn. How to teach and learn is
an aspect, which is investigated by strategy analysis. The obvious focus for this
analysis is methodology (West, 1994, p.10), but there are other related areas such as:
reading in and out of class, grouping size, doing homework, learning habits correction
preferences which are taken care of by strategy analysis. This approach to needs
analysis can come under learning needs discussed by Hutchinson and Waters (1987)
because it collects information on how to reach the ‘destination’. This important aspect
of needs analysis has been taken into account in the present study, as it helps in
identifying the requirements of the Journey of learning.
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To investigate learning strategies is the crux of strategy analysis. The work on learning strategies was pioneered by Allwright (1982). His argument is that the learners should express their needs in their own terms. The terms adapted by Hutchinson and Waters (1987), which were discussed above, are originally used by Allwright with some difference. Allwright uses needs to refer to the language skills which are relevant to the learners; wants which the learners perceive as high priorities, and lacks to refer to the gulf between the learners’ current language abilities and the desired ones.

Recent research in learning strategies calls for the necessity of strategies teaching and training. Peacock (2001) nicely reviews some research studies in the area of learning strategies and suggests that learning strategies can be taught. After conducting a study on 140 students at City University, Hong Kong, he concludes that learning strategies need to be trained explicitly. Rather, they could be embedded in the teaching tasks and activities. The importance of learning strategies training is of great help for ESL learner and ESP in particular, because the learner has a limited time to study in the class. Then he/she will be dependent on him/herself outside the classroom.

2.5.2.3.5 Means Analysis

Means Analysis is mainly concerned with the logistics, the practicalities and constraints of needs-based language courses. It focuses on factors related to the local context such as the teachers, teaching methods, facilities available, etc. West (1994) points out that some analysts believe that instead of focusing on constraints, it might be better if course designers think about how to implement plans in the local situation. Moreover, Holliday (1994) strongly advocates this approach to syllabus design,
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because “...it allows sensitivity to the situation and prevents the imposition of models alien to the situation”. (Holliiday, 1984, p. 45).

2.6 Evaluation

Evaluation of students’ work, teachers’ work or course evaluation are necessary parts of each learning and teaching process. Evaluation is not only a motivating factor but also shows students’ progress or effectiveness in the course, or on the other hand it can disclose possible inadequacies that are not successfully covered.

As far as evaluation in education is concerned, it is an essential stage in the process of teaching and learning. It assists educators to diagnose areas of strength so as to reinforce them, and areas of weakness so as to provide a remedy for them. It also helps in determining to what extent the intended goals have been achieved and maintained.

Evaluation can be performed on various ways which address to what to do in evaluation. Hutchinson and Waters (1992, p 144) stress two prominent levels of evaluation: ‘learner assessment’ and ‘course evaluation’. There exist many types of tests, questionnaires, tasks or the evaluation can be done in the form of talk (discussion, interviews). The test is perhaps the best way for learner assessment. The teacher finds whether the content of the course meets learner’s expectation and whether the learner is able to dispose with the new information and employs learnt skills in a particular situation. “This assessment takes on a greater importance in ESP,
because ESP is concerned with the ability to perform particular communicative tasks” (Hutchinson and Waters, 1992, p 144).

2.6.1 Definition of Evaluation

There are many definitions of evaluation proposed by different specialists from the field of education. Some of these definitions are quoted here.

Stufflebeam et al (1971, as cited in Homadi, 2003, p.45) define evaluation as “the process of delineating, obtaining and providing useful information for judging decision alternatives”. Kemmis (1986) points out that evaluation is “the process of marshalling information and arguments which enable interested individuals and groups to participate in the critical debate about specific programme”.

From the point of view of Rea-Dickins and Germaine (1992), evaluation is “the principled and systematic (informal or formal) collection of information for purposes of decision making”.

Looking back to these definitions, it can be observed that there are certain common criteria of what evaluation is. That is to say, the elements that these definitions share make up the definition of evaluation. All definitions express that evaluation is an ‘on-going process’ for collecting useful information about a certain aspect to be evaluated. Individuals or groups can use the data obtained ‘formally or informally’ for development and decision making.

2.6.2 Material Evaluation

Alan Mathews (1985) in Mathews Spratt and Dangerfield point out that a textbook plays an important role because it is the main resource and the main tool that
teachers and learners depend heavily on in teaching and learning as it is a case in most situations.

It is true that a textbook is a major source that provides opportunities and activities through which learners can satisfy what they need for learning. Therefore, it is crucial to consider our students' needs and levels as learners in the stage of deciding the aims and guidelines of teaching and learning regardless of who decides these guidelines and aims. It happens in many cases that teachers and learners have no direct influence in deciding the course materials that they are going to use in classroom, though these two parties are more concerned in this issue.

However, our context gives us the authority to be in a position as (teachers and learners) to be of great influence in choosing the materials that can fit into the situation we are working in, serve to match learners' needs and help learners learn more. For this reason the present materials currently used in teaching and learning can be improved by teachers as a response to how students feel it should be.

2.7 Needs-Oriented Studies

This section of chapter 2 gives some emphasis on studies incorporating actual needs analyses carried out in different parts of the world. The selected studies have relevance in some way or the other to the present one. The relevance of these studies to the present one comes from different aspects, including procedures used, context and aims of the study or the nature of subjects and the needs being examined. The studies will be reviewed under the following headings:

1. Practical Studies of Needs Analysis in Medical context

2. Practical Studies of Needs Analysis in other Context

2.7.1 Practical Studies of Needs Analysis in Medical Context

The expansion of medical schools in non-English speaking countries where English is the language of medicine was one of the reasons behind the need to investigate the language needs of the learners with a view of syllabus design. These studies of which the researcher has encountered have been implemented with a fixed pre-determined aim that of designing a reading-oriented courses. The following review will throw some light on some of these studies.

2.7.1.1 Needs Analysis in the Faculty of Veterinary Medicine of Mexico

Mackay and Mountford (1978) carried out a needs analysis for the purpose of designing an ESP course for the graduates in the Faculty of Veterinary Medicine, Mexico. They administered two sets of structured interviews—one for the teaching staff and the other for the undergraduates. In this way they could identify any 'discrepancy between the needs' as stated by the teaching staff and the undergraduates. The main focus of the study was to see to what extent was English needed for academic studies. The result of the study indicated that reading skill is the most needed skill in the students’ academic studies.

2.7.1.2 A Study of Students' Language Needs at Yarmouk University

Zoghoul and Hussein (1985) conducted a larger scale investigation on students’ language needs at the University of Yarmouk, Jordan. This study covered the students from six Faculties—Natural Sciences, Engineering, Medical Sciences, Economics, Administrative Sciences and Humanities. Two questionnaires were developed for 1147 students and 90 faculty members to investigate three major issues-
the extent of English language at the university, perceptions of students' language abilities and perception of English language. They considered their study as a first step towards the specifications of specific purpose learning aims, which in turn would help in determining the nature of the ESP courses.

The authors' investigation revealed the following findings:

1. Extensive use of English reported by both students and faculty.

2. Students overestimated their language abilities whereas faculty members gave a more realistic assessment of the students' capabilities.

3. Both students and faculty members agreed on listening skills being the most needed for successes at the University. They were almost in full agreement about ranking of the sub-skills of each skill.

Zoghoul and Hussein concluded that the students are more instrumentally than integratively motivated which is absolutely true of Arab students either in Jordan, Yemen or any other context where English is taught as a foreign language. They claim that their study of needs analysis

......differs from traditional needs analysis in that it is learning-centered and thus focuses on the learning needs of different groups rather than on the discourse needs derived from occupational or academic discipline.

(Zoghoul and Hussein, 1985, p. 146).

However, the study partly reflects learning needs model in that the students were asked about their personal details only. It also reflects the target situation needs because it takes into account the importance of English skills for the students' academic study.
2.7.1.3 Analysis of English Needs of the Medical Students of Nicaragua

Sarah Waite (1989) as cited in Bin-Tayeh (1996, p.19) carried out a study on the language needs of the medical students of Nicaragua (for her M.A. degree). In Nicaragua the language of medicine was Spanish but the students had sometimes to refer to English medical texts to keep abreast of the developments in medicine. Waite was interested in the language needs of these students for certain reasons which she states in the study. The instruments used for this study were the questionnaires and these were sent to Nicaragua to be filled out and sent back to Waite in Britain. Waite considered the Survey (needs profile) conducted in her study incomplete in the sense that:

a. It was not conducted ‘on the ground.

b. The findings of the study need to be ‘verified in situation’ in consultation with the parties concerned, e.g. local teachers, subject lectures, the institution and the students.

2.7.1.4 Needs Analysis of Medical Students at Rangsit University

Naruenatwatana (2001) investigated the needs of the medical students in the use of academic English at Rangsit University, Thailand. Three questionnaires were developed: the first for medical students, the second for teachers of English and the third for subject teachers. The content of the questionnaires given to each group of subject, according Naruenatwatana, was similar in detail except for the first part which addressed the background information of the subjects. The main aim of this study was to explore the opinions of the medical students on their expressed needs in using the four macro English skills for their studies. It also aimed to find out the
opinions of the two groups of instructors (both English and subject teachers) towards the needs of medical students in using the four macro English skills for their academic studies. The results showed that reading skill was perceived as the most important skill by the three groups. In addition, the three groups emphasized that the items of the four main skills of English should be included in the course content.

2.7.2 Practical Studies of Needs Analysis in other Context

The studies on needs analysis in this section are studies conducted in other fields such as computer sciences, business English, higher education, etc.

2.7.2.1 A Needs Investigation at Kuwait Business Institute

Al-Attili (1986) investigated the students’ needs of Kuwait Business Institute (KBI), in particular the needs of computer science students. The aim of investigation was to design teaching materials that would be geared up to the students’ real needs. The sample for this study comprised three groups: 150 graduates, 60 fulltime teachers of all specializations in the institute and 10 bodies that would potentially employ graduates of Kuwait Business Institute. A questionnaire with three versions was given to these three participating groups. It included the following areas:

1. Personal details

2. English language skills and level of proficiency required by graduates

3. Tasks to be performed using English

4. In-service training needs.

5. General (e.g. the present proficiency level of graduates).
The results indicated the subjects’ needs for listening, reading, writing and speaking for both academic and occupational purposes.

It seems that the researcher was much more concerned about the target situation needs than about the present situation needs of the respondents. This is in contrast to the present study, which gives equal focus to both present and target situation needs. However, this present study includes the graduates because they are nursing doctors in the field and they are expected to be more aware than the students of the needs in the Faculty (from which they graduated) and also of their professional commitments.

2.7.2.2 A Study of Needs in the Context of CALL

L. Flowerdew (1995) reported a case study on implementing an ESP approach to CALL courseware design. She wanted to arrive at a self-access course, which would cover job-seeking skills (e.g. writing application forms and interviewing techniques) for undergraduate and postgraduate students at the Hong Kong University of Science and Technology (HKUST). To achieve this end the author used an eclectic method of needs analysis based on Munby (1978) (target situation), Hutchinson and Waters (1987) (learning needs) and the application of genre analysis (Swales 1990) for the writing exercise material.

The students’ lacks were determined by an error analysis of five different types of business letters (letters of enquiring, acceptance, rejection, application and confirmation) collected from 40 students on a business communication skills course over one 15-week semester. The analysis showed that the students had problems in style and tone.
The students’ wants, were also investigated by informal interviews with 8 subjects. The results matched those of the error analysis of business letters, except for 10 subjects who had some work experiences. All expressed the view that the material should reflect the actual kind of language used in business writing in the local business community in Hong Kong. Due to the freedom given to students to assess their needs, the researcher indicated that there was tension between the course designer and students about the relevance of the contents.

However, this study draws the attention to the importance of incorporating views of different stakeholders (employers, as nursing doctors in the field, and students) in order to develop a clear idea of the optimal structure of a particular English course. In fact, this is the position, which is considered for the present study.

In conclusion, the studies reviewed in this section have showed the efficiency and usefulness of giving the opportunity to learners to assess their subjective as well as objective needs. This will certainly yield good language learning progress.

2.7.2.3 A Study of Language Needs from the Thai Context

Pholsward (1993) surveyed the language needs of computing processionals in the Thai context. The main aim was to obtain information that could be used to identify the kind of language required and used by these professionals.

The subjects who participated in this study were 25 representing 22 firms. Structured interviews were conducted with these subjects. The interviews focused on the following:

- Language skills required on the job
The gap between language curriculum and language requirements on the job

The language used in the field of computer science.

The findings of the study indicated the importance of speaking, reading and writing respectively. They also indicated that University curriculum did not equip the learner with essential language needed on the job.

The present study is different from the study conducted by Pholsward in that sources of information as well as data collection tools are more and varied. This is an advantage, which increase the validity as well as the reliability of the results.

2.7.3 Needs Analysis Studies in Yemeni context.

Needs-oriented studies that have been carried out in the context of Yemen are given in a separate section, even though they could have been included under the previous sections of this chapter, for the following reasons:

1. The status of English teaching is more or less the same in all the situations reviewed.

2. Students in all situations come from the same social cultural and educational background.

3. All the studies were done under the same general education policy of the same country.

Keeping these factors in mind, the research decided to group the following five studies together.
2.7.3.1 A Study of Needs at the Medical College

In 1996 the first report on needs analysis done at the University level was set in the Faculty of Medicine, Sana’a University. Bin-Tyeh (1996) investigated the students’ language needs in the general medicine department. The study aimed at drawing up a needs profile of the students, leading to the proposal for a proto-syllabus. The sample consisted of 80 subjects (60 students, 10 graduates, and 10 lectures) for the interview and 325 subjects for the questionnaire.

The results showed that reading and writing skills were mostly needed both for study and professional commitments. Among the subjects’ responses, the researchers found significant differences. It was observed that 1st year students needed listening skills more than the 6th Year students. Moreover, both listening and speaking skills were important for students and graduates. However, lecturers and students agreed that writing has a secondary importance. Whereas they considered speaking the least needed skill.

Based on these findings gained from her study, Bin-Tayeh developed a proto-syllabus model covering the elementary level, intermediate level and the advanced levels.

Putting this study in the context of this review, the study shows that both the students and their lecturers agree to the kinds of needs and the importance each language skill has.

2.7.3.2 A Survey of Students’ Language Needs at Engineering College

Al-Dugaily (1999) studied the validity of the ESP courses offered at the Faculty of Engineering, Sana’a University and surveyed the students’ language needs
in the same Faculty. His research problem was, in sum, that ESP courses did not meet the students' academic and personal needs, and the evaluation system and methodology used were not up to data.

His sample consisted of 30 teachers from different departments in the Faculty of Engineering and 300 students belonging, mostly, to the final year and elementary levels.

To achieve his aims, the research used two questionnaires distributed both to the students and the teachers. The teachers' questionnaire contained 50 questions covering personal details about the teachers, information about the effectiveness of the English course, evaluation system and methods of teaching. Besides, the questionnaire included questions on the students' academic needs. The students' questionnaire consisted of 50 questions covering personal data, their perception of the ESP course and their needs. Another tool was the structured interview used with both the teachers and the students. The researcher interviewed 15 teachers who belonged to different departments. The aim of the interview was to supplement the information gained through the questionnaire. Interestingly, the students' interview was conducted in English since the researcher wanted to get the students speak and express their opinions in English, though the majority of the questions required only Yes/No answers. As regard to the open-ended questions of the interview, the researcher did not indicate how he kept track of the respondents' answers, whether written down or tape-recorded.
Al-Dugaily's conclusions were that

1. Most of the students and their teachers agreed that the ESP courses were poor and not responsive to the students’ needs and

2. Teachers agreed that students had great difficulty in performing language skills—listening, speaking, reading and writing.

It is worth pointing out that the present study has two points of similarity with that of Al-Dugaily

1. Both target final students who have completed the ESP course are capable of evaluating it.

2. Both have a critical scrutiny of an existing course as the main focus

2.7.3.3 A Study of Needs at the Commerce College of Hodeidah University

Hassan (2000) has investigated the English language needs of the students of the Faculty of Commerce and Economics (FCE), Hodeidah University. Some of his research questions are listed here

1. What are the English language needs, present as well as future, of the students in the Faculty of Commerce and Economics as perceived by the students?

2. To what extent are these needs fulfilled by the past or/and present English courses as viewed by the students?

3. What are the English language needs, present as well as future, of the students in the Faculty of Commerce and Economics as perceived by the teachers?
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4. Are there any significant differences in the perception of English language needs among the students and teachers in different departments?

5. Are there any significant differences in the perception of English language needs across the different departments and different levels of study?

6. What are the students' future English languages needs, as perceived by the prospective employers?

The researcher's objectives were to answer his research questions as well as to make some general recommendations for improving the ESP courses at FCE, Hodeidah University. His sample consisted of the following:

- 18 teachers and 16 prospective employers (interview)
- 12 classes—all levels (observation)
- 210 students and 18 subject and English teachers (questionnaires)

Thus, the researcher has used three research tools, namely, class observations, interviews and questionnaires. Interviews were carried out with prospective employers and teachers. Employers' interview consisted of five open questions, which covered areas such as information about the nature of institution, number of FCE graduates, their expectations of the graduates of FCE, and problems regarding the use of English in their institutions. Nine of the interviews were in English and the rest were in Arabic; all which were tape-recorded. Teachers' interviews, on the other hand, consisted of ten questions covering the frequency of using English in class, the amount of English, students' language needs and their language problems. Class observations covered three departments. Three sessions from each level were observed, making a total of 12 observations.
Two questionnaire versions were used in Hassan's study. The students' version consisted of 53 items covering personal and background details. Other items asked the students to respond to statements about their language. They had to indicate whether the need was more important, important, less important or not important. Students were also asked about the effectiveness of the English courses they had. The teachers' version was similar to that of the students except for last section, which focused on the students' difficulties in using English.

Some of the findings are given below.

1. Both students' and their teachers felt the importance of English.

2. Teachers acknowledged that students faced serious difficulties.

3. Employers preferred candidates with good English reading and writing skills, as they deal with foreign dealers/customers.

4. Public sector companies showed interest in oral skills.

5. Students ordered English language skills as writing, reading, listening and speaking, whereas the order was reading, writing, listening and speaking for teachers.

6. Reading was felt required by all departments, whilst other skills had varied importance.

7. English courses did not fulfill the students' needs.

8. There was a need to have English across the course of study at FCE.
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9. As students felt the need for English for their present needs, teachers in contrast perceived future needs being more important.

2.7.3.4 A Study of Needs at the Commerce College of Sana’a University

Homadi (2003) conducted another study at the FCE, Sana’a University. Briefly, the main focus of this study was to assess students’ level in English at Commerce Faculty, Sana’a University, their needs and the teaching materials taught to them. The sample of the study included students at level (II, III, IV), graduates who were already employed, ESP teachers and subject teachers. The research tools used by Homadi were a language text, classroom discussion (which was general and not specific), student’s interviews and questionnaires.

Some of the findings are as follows:

- English is important for getting jobs.

- Inefficiency of the existing English courses at Sana’a University, and mismatch between what is taught and what is needed.

- Students’ at Sana’a University lack basic ability to communicate both in speaking and writing.

Needs Analysis in Business English at Yemeni Universities

Shuja’ (2004) conducted a larger scale investigation on the language needs of the students’ of Commerce and Economics/Administrative Sciences in four Yemeni Universities together with the language needs required by the job market represented by companies in four major cities of the country. This study covered the students from Sana’a University, Aden University, Taiz University and Hodeidah University. Three
dimensions were considered in this study: present situation analysis (PSA), target situation analysis (TSA) and learning situation analysis (LSA). In order to examine and assess these dimensions, three sources of information were approached: students, ESP teachers and business professionals in the business world. The researcher used several data collection procedures to elicit information from the sources of data. The procedures included 3 questionnaires, semi-structured interviews, group discussions and a language test.

The data analysis and discussion revealed increasing demand for the mastery of English language skills for the job. Both spoken and written communication skills were perceived as very important for successful business transactions. The findings also present a thorough perspective of the students learning needs, which are linguistic such as pronunciation and collocations, and non-linguistic such as providing teaching aids and making smaller classes in order to encourage class discussion and interactions.