CHAPTER 2

NEEDS ANALYSIS: THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVE
CHAPTER: 2

NEEDS ANALYSIS: THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVE

2.1 Introduction

This chapter is exclusively devoted to explore the context of Needs analysis and also provides a closer look at the historical background of needs analysis. According to Fatihi (2003), in past few years, there has been a strong drift in course design with special focus flowing from teacher-centered to learner-centered activities; this has led to more credibility given to need based courses in ESL program. Needs analysis is a concept by which we can know the learners’ necessities, needs, and lacks in order to develop courses that have a reasonable content for development in the classroom. Needs Analysis is also a process for identification and defining valid curriculum and instructional and management objectives, in order to facilitate learning in an atmosphere that is closely related to the real life situations of the student. Further, It focuses on the settings and roles that learner is likely to experience after he completes his formal education. Since there was a shift of attention from teaching language system to teaching the language as communication, which has highlighted the role of the learner and his needs in modern educational system.

‘Language’ has indeed played a significant role in a broader theory of communication. However, in the last few decades, the contributions of Hymes (1984), Labov (1970), and Widdowson (1983) were considered the basis for enhancing the Communicative Syllabus Design. Hymes (1971; 1973), in Communicative Competence highlighted the rules or directions to use without which the rules of grammar would be irrelevant. Labov (1970) had the same view, the rules we need will reflect how things can be done with words and how it can be interpreted and expressed as actions.

Halliday and Hasan (1976) published Cohesion in English, which was considered as a benchmark work, and was widely used as reference for the linguistic guidelines of text construction for writers of teaching materials, for advanced learners and for university level students of English. Widdowson (1978) in his book Teaching Language as Communication, proposed an entirely different form of teaching syllabus constructed around a graded selection of rhetorical (or communicational)
acts, which could be performed by the learner in using English for his specific purpose. The researcher, for example, would essentially make extensive use of such acts as definition, classification, deduction, and so on. Further, it would be beneficial for other learners to meet the need to communicate in day to day situation, which includes greetings, making social arrangement, and exchanging information.

Teaching curriculum is usually designed to answer the three basic questions: What is to be learned? How the learning should be undertaken and achieved? To what extent is the former appropriate and the latter effective? A communicative curriculum aims to place language teaching with the framework of this relationship between some specified purposes. The methodology however will be the means towards the achievement of those purposes, and the evaluation of the framework. Breen and Candlin (2001:9) proposed rationale in language teaching which must be considered such as

1. Communication as a general purpose,
2. The underlying demands on the learner that such a purpose may imply,
3. The initial contributions which learners may bring to the curriculum,
4. The process of teaching and learning,
5. The roles of teacher and learners,
6. The role of content within the teaching and learning, and finally
7. The place of evaluation of learner progress and evaluation of the curriculum itself from communicative point of view.

As earlier said, the switch of attention from teaching language system to teaching the language as communication highlighted the role of the learner and his needs. The possible uses of language is an extensive range of possible purposes and intentions that people have for using it, so, the emphasis on the use of language as communication concentrates on the users themselves. The major issues of the users of language, and especially those living in developing countries, is that though they have received several years of formal English teaching, they frequently remain deficient in the ability to actually use the language, and to understand its use in normal communication, whether in spoken or written mode. As a result there was a switch of
attention from teaching language system to teaching the language as communicative system.

2.2. Theoretical Issues

Needs analysis is a procedure for collecting information about learners and classroom activities to design a syllabus (Nunan, 1988). It is an important component for designing a language course. While designing a language course, it is essential for a teacher to have reliable information of their learner variables, in order to reduce the gap among learners, teachers, and teaching materials.

2.3. Historical Background of Needs Analysis

The Need Analysis in modern language teaching was first made by the Council of Europe Modern Language Projects group. This group promoted language learning in Europe and offered guidance and support to the many ‘partners for learning’ whose co-operation is necessary for the creation of a coherent and transparent structure of provision for effective learning, relevant to the needs of the learners as well as of the society (Van Ek and Trim, 1988). The literature on Needs Analysis (NA) suggests that, it has a long history in language teaching. As mentioned above, it was first proposed by the council of Europe Modern Language Project group before 1970s. The grammatical complexity of sentence structures was analysed to design structurally graded syllabus but this syllabus was criticized as it was not concerned with the learners’ needs at all (Fatihi et al, 2003).

Further, the second phase of communicative approach specifies the syllabus designers and began to focus on identifying the learners’ needs (Munby cited in Richards and Rodgers 1986). Based on a broad point approach to NA, Munby (1978) developed a NA model which was accepted widely by the syllabus designers (Fatihi 2003). In Munby’s (1978) NA model, both the data related to learners’ identity and the language needs of the participants were collected (Munby 1978 cited in Nunan 1988). Over the years, there was a significant shift from a narrow approach to a broader approach regarding NA, it has broadened the scope of NA and has resulted in a wide range of frameworks for NA. Now different types of frameworks for NA have been designed to identify different types of needs related to the language learning program.
### 2.4 Definition of Needs Analysis

Different linguistics has defined needs analysis from different perspective. Some of the important definitions of needs analysis given by different linguists are shown in the following table.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of the Linguist</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nunan, D. (1983)</td>
<td>“Techniques and procedures for collecting information to be used in syllabus design”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Richards, J. (1992)</td>
<td>“The process of determining the needs for which a learner or a group of learners requires a language and arranging the needs according to priorities.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fatihi, A. R. (2003)</td>
<td>“A device to know the learner’s necessities, needs and lacks”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Munby, 1978;</td>
<td>Introduced ‘communication needs processor’ which is the basis of Munby's approach to needs analysis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chambers (1980)</td>
<td>Introduced the term Target Situation Analysis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hutchinson and Waters, 1987;</td>
<td>With the development of the Communicative Needs Processor (CNP) it seemed as if ESP had come of age. The machinery for identifying the needs of any group of learners had been provided: all the course designers had to do was to operate it.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brindley &amp; Berwick, 1989;</td>
<td>Offer definitions of different types of needs and accounts of various problems and limitations in making use of this concept, including ways in which we might usefully distinguish between needs identified by analysts and those expressed or experienced by learners.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Robinson, 1991;</td>
<td>Present situation analysis may be posited as a complement to target situation analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>West, 1994;</td>
<td>In his state-of-the-art article, West (1994) gives a thorough overview of needs analysis in language teaching, including its history, theoretical basis, approaches to needs analysis,</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**2.5 Types of Needs Analysis**

Many linguists have recognized different types of Need Analysis. Some of them are as follows:

Nunan (1988) refers to two types of need analysis used by syllabus designers. They are:

1. Learner analysis: It carries information about learner.
2. Task analysis: It carries information about the tasks used in the classroom and expected by the learner.

Richterich (1983) advocates other two types of Need Analysis.

1. Subjective Needs Analysis: Subjective needs analysis carries subjective information that reflects the perceptions, goals, and priorities of the learner.
2. Objective Needs Analysis: It carries objective information that includes the factual fact about the learner. For example: biographical information on age, nationality, home language.

West (2003) has developed ideas of Needs Analysis taxonomies and talks about the following types of NA:

1. Target Analysis: It identifies the necessities, i.e. what the learners need to know in order to function effectively in the target situation.
2. Deficiency Analysis: It analyses the gap between the present knowledge of target learners and the knowledge they need to know or do at the end of the program.
4. Means Analysis: It deals with the logistics, practicalities and constraints of needs based language courses.
5. Language Audits: It is used in forming the basis of strategic decision on language needs and training requirements.

2.6. Importance of Needs Analysis

Needs Analysis is an important step towards understanding students’ needs and to help the implementation of educational policies. Nunan (1988) claims that information got through NA can serve the following purposes.

1. NA can set the goals of the course and guide the selection of contents.
2. The gap between teacher’s and learner’s expectation can be minimized by using NA to modify the syllabus and methodology.
3. The gap between the teachers’ and learners’ expected teaching and learning approach can be identified.

West (1994) described NA as an assistance to the syllabus designer and a means to find out the acumen among various types of learners and also a framework to design courses based on their general needs. Richards (2001), stated that in a language teaching program NA can be used for the following purposes.

1. To find out the required language skills for a learner to perform a particular role, such as sales manager, university student.
2. To find out a gap between their present proficiency level and required proficiency.
3. To find out problem areas of the learners.

2.7 Theoretical Framework for Needs Analysis

There are different methods and techniques suggested for conducting a NA. The selection of techniques depends on the purpose of NA. Haque (2014: 4) in his work explained NA with an example, “If one tries to conduct a NA of the writing problem of the students at tertiary level, the information can be obtained from the following sources”:

1. Samples of student writing.
2. Test data on students’ performance.
3. Reports by teachers on typical problems students face.
4. Information from students via interviews and questionnaire.
5. Analysis of text books, teaching and academic writing.

Furthermore, Dudley-Evans and John (1998) advocates the following bases of NA for the purpose of evaluating learners’ and teachers’ attitudes, opinions and beliefs towards the proposed modification or innovation.

1. Information about why the learners are learning English, learners’ attitude to learn English, their previous learning experiences and cultural background.
2. Information about learners’ preferred learning style.
3. Information regarding the importance of particular skills for the learners and their preferred learning styles for learning those skills.

Nunan & Burton (1985) proposed a Need Analysis model based on the subjective and objective information. Their model consists of information from the following parameters.

1. Name
2. Occupation
3. Age
4. Nationality
5. Education
As mentioned earlier, needs analysis (also known as needs assessment) has a vital role in the process of designing and carrying out any language course, whether it be English for Specific Purposes (ESP) or general English course, and its significance has been approved by several scholars and authors.

According to Iwai et al. (1999), the term needs analysis usually refers to the activities that are involved in gathering information and will assist as the basis for developing a curriculum that will meet the needs of a particular group of students. Brindley (1989) and Berwick (1989) provide definitions of different types of needs and explanations of various problems and limitations in making use of this concept, including ways in which we might usefully distinguish between the needs recognized by analysts and those conveyed or experienced by learners.

According to Johns (1991), needs analysis is the first step in course design and it offers soundness and relevancy for all subsequent developments in the course design activities.

Although needs analysis, as we know it today, has gone through many stages, with the publication of Munby's *Communicative Syllabus Design* in 1978, situations and functions were set within the frame of needs analysis. In his book, Munby introduced 'communication needs processor' which is the basis of Munby's approach to needs analysis. Based on Munby's work, Chambers (1980) introduced the term Target Situation Analysis. Form that time several other terms have also been introduced:

1. Present Situation Analysis,
2. Pedagogic Needs Analysis,
3. Deficiency Analysis,
4. Strategy Analysis or
5. Learning Needs Analysis,
6. Means Analysis,
7. Register analysis,
8. Discourse analysis, and
9. Genre Analysis.
2.8 Target Situation Analysis (TSA)

According to Chambers, TSA is “communication in the target situation” (Chambers, 1980:29). Needs analysis was established with firmness in the mid-1970s (West, 1998). Earlier needs analysis was mainly concerned with linguistic and register analysis, and as Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) propose, needs were seen as separate language items of grammar and vocabulary. With the publication of the book Communicative Syllabus Design by Munby (1978), needs analysis progressed towards placing the learner’s purposes in the central position within the framework of needs analysis. Accordingly, the notion of target needs became paramount and research verified that function and situation were also fundamental. The term Target Situation Analysis (TSA) was, in actual fact, first used by Chambers in his 1980 article in which he tried to simplify the confusion of terminology.

2.9 Communicative Needs Processor

Munby (1978) presented Communicative Needs Processor (CNP) in his line of work. As Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 54) discussed: “With the development of the CNP it seemed as if ESP had come of age. The machinery for identifying the needs of any group of learners had been provided: all the course designers had to operate it”. In Munby’s CNP, the target needs and target level performance are established by investigating the target situation, and his overall model clearly ascertained the place of needs analysis as central to ESP, indeed it is considered as the necessary starting point in materials or course design (West, 1998). In the CNP, report is taken of “the variables that affect communication needs by organizing them as parameters in a dynamic relationship to each other” (Munby, 1978: 32).

Munby’s (1978) overall model is made up of the following elements:

1. Participants: information about the identity and language of the learners: age, sex, nationality, present command of target language, other languages known and extent of command;
2. Communication Needs Processor: investigates the particular communication needs according to sociocultural and stylistic variables which interact to determine a profile of such needs;
3. Profile of Needs: is established through the processing of data in the CNP;
4. In the Meaning Processor “parts of the sociocultural determined profile of communication needs are converted into semantic subcategories of a predominantly pragmatic kind, and marked with attitudinal tone” (Munby, 1978: 42);

5. The Language Skills Selector: identifies “the specific language skills that are required to realize the events or activities that have been identified in the CNP” (Munby, 1978: 40);

6. The Linguistic Encoder: considers “the dimension of contextual appropriacy” (Munby, 1978: 49), one the encoding stage has been reached;

7. The Communicative Competence Specification: indicates the target communicative competence of the participant and is the translated profile of needs.

From the aforementioned elements of the Munby (1978) model, the prime one or at least the one that has been referred to by other researchers of needs analysis is the Communication Needs Processor (CNP) which is the basis of Munby’s approach to needs analysis and establishes the profile of needs through the processing of eight parameters, the processing of which gives us a detailed description of particular communication needs (Munby, 1978). The parameters specified by Munby (1978) as cited in Songhori (2008: 6-7) are:

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

The Munby’s (1978) CNP aims to find thoroughly about the linguistic form a prospective ESP, which the learner is likely to use in various situations in his target working environment. The effect of the processing data by means of Munby’s model is, as Hutchinson and Waters (1987) explains what the learner needs to identify in order to function effectively in the target situation. Most succeeding target needs analysis research was based on Munby’s (1978) model for the reason that it offers comprehensive data banks and target performance (Robinson, 1991).

The researchers in the field of target situation needs analysis followed Munby’s (1978) CNP. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) provided a complete target situation analysis framework, consisted a list of questions, the analyst should find answers to. For Hutchinson and Waters (1987:7) the analysis of target situation needs is “in essence a matter of asking questions about the target situation and the attitudes towards that situation of various participants in the learning process”.

Munby’s (1978) model has few critics/ drawbacks like any other model. He provided a detailed list of micro functions in his CNP. One thing which he did not included was how to prioritize them or few factors which is recognized as important in recent context (Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998).West (1994: 9-10) mentions the shortcomings of the Munby’s (1978) model in terms of four headings:

1. Complexity: Munby’s attempt to be systematic and comprehensive inevitably made his instrument inflexible, complex, and time-consuming.
2. Learner-centeredness: Munby claims that his CNP is learner-centered. The starting point may be the learner but the model collects data about the learner rather than from the learner.
3. Constraints: Munby’s idea is that constraints should be considered after the needs analysis procedure, while many researchers feel that these practical constraints should be considered at the start of the needs analysis process.

4. Language: Munby fails to provide a procedure for converting the learner profile into a language syllabus.

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) also point out that it is too time-consuming to write a target profile for each student based on Munby’s model. This model only considers one viewpoint, i.e. that of the analyst, but neglects others (those of the learners, user-institutions, etc.). Meanwhile, it does not take into account of the learning needs nor it makes a distinction between necessities, wants, and lacks.

### 2.10 Present Situation Analysis (PSA)

Present situation analysis may be suggested as a complement to target situation analysis (Robinson, 1991; Jordan, 1997). If target situation analysis attempts to institute what the learners are expected to be like at the completion of the language course, present situation analysis tries to recognize what they are like at the beginning of it. As stated "a PSA estimates strengths and weaknesses in language, skills, learning experiences"Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998: 125). If the purpose to which the students need to get is to be established, first the starting point has to be demarcated, and this is provided only by means of Present Situation Analysis.

The term PSA (Present Situation Analysis) was initially projected by Richterich and Chancerel (1980). In this approach the sources of information are the students themselves, the teaching establishment, and the user-institution, e.g. place of work (Jordan, 1997). The PSA can be conducted by means of established placement tests. On the other hand, the background information, e.g. years of learning English, level of education, etc. about learners can provide us with ample information about their present abilities which can thus be anticipated to some extent.

Needs analysis is seen as a blend of TSA and PSA. It is observed that within the realm of ESP, one cannot trust either on TSA or PSA as a reliable indicator of what is needed to improve learning and reaching the desired objectives. Therefore, other approaches to needs analysis have been proposed, such as Pedagogic Needs Analysis.
2.11 Pedagogic Needs Analysis

The term “pedagogic needs analysis” was projected by West (1998) as an umbrella term which gives a description of the three rudiments of needs analysis namely: Deficiency Analysis, Strategy Analysis or Learning Needs Analysis and Means Analysis. According to him, the fact that limitations of target need analysis should be compensated by gathering data about the learner and also the learning environment.

(a) Deficiency Analysis

Hutchinson and Waters (1987), defined in his work “lacks” of the learner, which is similar to the deficiency analysis. Similarly, Allwright (1982, cited in West, 1994), explained the approaches to needs analysis that has been developed to consider learners’ present needs or wants, it may be termed as analysis of learners’ deficiencies or lacks. “From what has already been said, it is obvious that deficiency analysis is the route to cover from point A (present situation) to point B (target situation), always keeping the learning needs in mind. Therefore, deficiency analysis can form the basis of the language syllabus (Jordan, 1997) because it should provide data about both the gap between present and target extra-linguistic knowledge, mastery of general English, language skills, and learning strategies” (Sanghori, 2008:11)

(b) Strategy Analysis or Learning Needs Analysis

As the name suggests, this type of needs analysis deals with the strategies that learners employ in order to learn another language. This analysis emphasizes on how the learners wish to learn rather than what they need to learn (West, 1998). All the above-mentioned approaches to needs analysis, TSA, PSA, and to some extent deficiency analysis, have not been concerned with the learners’ views of learning. Allwright (1982), a pioneer in the domain of strategy analysis (West, 1994) stated from the students’ opinions of their needs in their own expressions (Jordan, 1997). Allwright (1982) has made a distinction between needs (the skills which a student sees as being relevant to himself or herself), wants (those needs on which students put a high priority in the available, limited time), and lacks (the difference between the student’s present competence and the desired competence). Further, his thoughts were embraced by Hutchinson and Waters (1987), who advocate learning-
cantered approach in which learners’ learning needs play a crucial role. If the expert, by means of target situation analysis, tries to find out what learners do with language (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987) learning needs analysis will tell us "what the learner needs to do in order to learn" (Hutchinson & Waters 1987:54). Clearly, advocated a process-oriented approach, not a product- or goal-oriented one. For them “ESP is not a product but an approach to language teaching which is directed by specific and apparent reasons for learning” (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987:16). Bower (1980) who has noted the importance of learning needs:

“If we accept…that a student will learn best if what he wants to learn, less well what he only needs to learn, less well still what he either wants or needs to learn, it is clearly important to leave room in a learning programme for the learner’s own wishes regarding both goals and processes”(Jordan 1997: 26)

(c) Means Analysis

Means analysis attempts to examine those thoughts that Munby (1978) rejects (West, 1998), that is, matters of logistics and pedagogy that led to debate about practicalities and constraints in implementing needs-based language courses (West, 1994). Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998: 125) suggest that means analysis provides us “information about the environment in which the course will run” and thus tries to familiarise ESP course to the cultural environment in which it will be run. One of the main issues means analysis is concerned with is:

“Acknowledgement that what works well in one situation may not work in another” (Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998: 124), and that, as noted above, ESP syllabi should be sensitive to the particular cultural environment in which the course will be imposed. Or as Jordan (1997) says it should provide us with a tool for designing an environmentally sensitive course.

2.12 Register, Discourse, and Genre Analysis

In this section the emphasis will be on the description of the language in ESP. The terms Register Analysis, Discourse Analysis, and Genre analysis are discussed below:-
2.12 (a) Register analysis

Initial studies carried out in this area focused on vocabulary and grammar (the elements of sentence). This stage took place mainly in the 1960s and early 1970s. The main reason behind register analysis was the pedagogic one of making the ESP course more relevant to learners’ needs (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987).

Register analysis, also called “lexicostatistics” by Swales (1988: 189, cited in Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998) and “frequency analysis” by Robinson (1991: 23) focused on the grammar and “structural and non-structural” vocabulary (Ewer and Latorre, 1967: 223, cited in West, 1998). The assumption behind register analysis was that, while the grammar of scientific and technical writing does not differ from that of general English, certain grammatical and lexical forms are used much more frequently (Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998).

It was noted that register analysis operates only for word and sentence level and is not applicable for other levels. Register analysis was criticized by few researchers, which is listed below:

- It restricts the analysis of texts to the word and sentence level (West, 1998);
- It is only descriptive, not explanatory (Robinson, 1991);
- Most materials produced under the banner of register analysis follow a similar pattern, beginning with a long specialist reading passage which often lacks authenticity (Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998).

2.12 (b) Discourse Analysis

While register analysis can be used only at word and sentence level, the next phase of development concentrated to the level above the sentence and intends to find out the way sentences were combined into discourse (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987). Another researcher, West (1998) suggests that the reaction against register analysis in the early 1970’s emphasized on the communicative values of discourse rather than the lexical and grammatical properties of register.

The pioneers in the field of discourse analysis (also called rhetorical or textual analysis) were Lackstorm, Selinker, and Trimble (1973), they tried to account for the special use of tenses in specialised texts rather than on the sentence, and also on the writer’s purpose rather than on form (Robison, 1991). In practice, according to West
this approach tends to concentrate on how sentences are used in the performance of communication and to generate materials based on functions.

One of the limitations of the discourse analysis is that, its treatment remains incomplete, identifying the functional units of which discourse was composed at sentence/utterance level but offering limited guidance on how functions and sentences/utterances fit together to form text (West, 1998). There is also the threat that the findings of discourse analysis, which are concerned with texts and how they work as pieces of discourse, fail to take sufficient account of the academic or business context in which communication takes place (Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998).

2.12 (c)Genre Analyses

Discourse analysis may overlap with genre analysis. Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998: 87) give a clear distinction between the two terms:

“Any study of language or, more specifically, text at a level above that of sentence is a discourse study. This may involve the study of cohesive links between sentences, of paragraphs, or the structure of the whole text. The results of this type of analysis make statements about how texts -any text-work. This is applied discourse analysis. Where, however, the focus of text analysis is on the regularities of structures that distinguish one type of text from another, this are genre analysis and the results focusing on the differences between text types, or genres.”

The term ‘genre’ was given by Swales (1981, cited in Robinson, 1991). His definition of genre is: "a more or less standardized communicative event with a goal or set of goals mutually understood by the participants in that event and occurring within a functional rather than a personal or social setting" (Swales, 1981: 10-11, cited in Robinson, 1991). Bhatia (2004) who is one of the researchers in the field of genre analysis has his definition of ‘genre analysis’ as the study of linguistic behaviour in institutionalized academic or professional setting (Bhatia, 2004). In his article, Bhatia distinguishes four, though systematically related, areas of competence that an ESP learner needs to develop so as to get over his/her lack of confidence in dealing with specialist discourse. These four areas are:
1. Knowledge of the Code which is the pre-requisite for developing communicative expertise in specialist or even everyday discourse.

2. Acquisition of Genre Knowledge which is the familiarity with and awareness of appropriate rhetorical procedures and conventions typically associated with the specialist discourse community.

3. Sensitivity to Cognitive Structures, that is, since certain lexical items have specialist meanings in specific professional genres, a number of syntactic forms may also carry genre-specific restricted values in addition to their general meanings codified in grammar books. Thus, it is imperative that the specialist learner become aware of restricted aspects of linguistic code in addition to the general competence he or she requires in the language.

4. Exploitation of Generic Knowledge, that is, it is only after learners have developed some acquaintance or, better yet, expertise at levels discussed above, that they can confidently interpret, use or even take liberties with specialist discourse.

Genre-analysis is an approach that goes two steps beyond register analysis and one step beyond discourse analysis, although it is drawn from the findings of both. According to Bhatia (2004), the benefit of a genre-based approach to the teaching and learning of specialist English, is that the learner does not learn language in isolation from specialist contexts, but tries to make relevant connection between the use of language and the purpose of communication. The learner is always aware of the question, why do members of the specialist discourse community use the language in this way?

There are different approaches to needs analysis which attempts to meet the needs of the learners in the process of learning a second language. Not a single approach to needs analysis can be a reliable indicator of what is needed to enhance learning. A modern and comprehensive concept of needs analysis is proposed by Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998: 125) which encompasses all the above-mentioned approaches. Their current concept of needs analysis includes the following:

1. Environmental situation - information about the situation in which the course will be run (means analysis);
2. Personal information about learners - factors which may affect the way they learn (wants, means, subjective needs);
3. Language information about learners - what their current skills and language use are (present situation analysis);
4. Learner's lacks (the gap between the present situation and professional information about learners);
5. Learner's needs from course - what is wanted from the course (short-term needs);
6. Language learning needs - effective ways of learning the skills and language determined by lacks;
7. Professional information about learners - the tasks and activities English learners are/will be using English for (Target Situation Analysis and objective needs);
8. How to communicate in the target situation – knowledge of how language and skills are used in the target situation (register analysis, discourse analysis, genre analysis).

Now days, there is an awareness of the fact that different types of needs analyses are not exclusive but complementary and that each of them provides a piece to complete the jigsaw of needs analysis. All the works done in ESP have sought to promote the communicative nature of language teaching, because starting with register analysis, ESP teachers have been very concerned with the needs of students as they have used the language, rather than language per se. For this reason, today needs analysis should not be (and is not) of concern only within the field of ESP, but also that of General English because the needs of the learners is of paramount importance in any language process.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Means Analysis:</th>
<th>The environment in which the course will be run.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Register Analysis:</td>
<td>Focuses on vocabulary and grammar of the text.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deficiency Analysis:</td>
<td>Considers learners’ present needs and wants.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Genre Analysis:</td>
<td>Focuses on the regularities of structure that distinguishes one type of text from another.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discourse Analysis:</td>
<td>Investigates how sentences combine into discourse.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strategy or Learning Needs Analysis:</td>
<td>Includes subjective, felt and process-oriented needs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Target Situation Analysis:</td>
<td>Includes objective, perceived and product-oriented needs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present Situation Analysis:</td>
<td>Estimates strengths and weaknesses in language, skill, learning experience.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Needs analysis plays a significant role in second language or foreign language learning classes. It is important because needs analysis teachers, learners, teaching materials, teaching procedures—all make a harmonious relationship that enhances learners’ learning. But in our country no study is carried out for the language needs of the learners. The teachers often do not understand what learners’ language needs are. On the other hand learners become confused about what they are actually learning and why they are learning so. For these reasons, even after completing graduation, the proficiency level of the learner in English remains poor. But all these problems can be handled effectively through a study of the language needs of the students.

2.13 Theories of Syllabus Design

There has been a growing number of individuals who are in need of English for occupational and vocational purposes, as well as for general educational purposes. This has led to a corresponding increase in attention on syllabus design.

2.14 Distinction between Curriculum and Syllabus

In view of Allen (1984)"Curriculum" is a very general concept. It includes consideration of philosophical, social and administrative factors which contribute to the planning of an educational programme. "Syllabus" then refers to that subpart of a curriculum which is concerned with the specification of what units will be taught. Noss and Rodgers (1976) defines a language syllabus as a set of justifiable, educational objectives specified in terms of linguistic content". Here the description of objectives must have something to do with language form or substance, with language-using situations, or with language as a means of communication. In the words of Strevens (1977) the syllabus is, "partly an administrative instrument, partly a day-to-day guide to the teacher, partly a statement of what is to be taught and how, sometimes partly a statement of an approach ... The syllabus embodies that part of the language which is to be taught, broken down into items, or otherwise processed for teaching purposes."
In Wilkins' (1981) words, syllabuses are "specifications of the content of language teaching which have been submitted to some degree of structuring or ordering with the aim of making teaching and learning a more effective process."

Johnson (1982) explains syllabus as an "Organized syllabus inventory" where "syllabus inventory" refers to the items to be taught.

Crombie (1985) also defines "syllabus" as a list or inventory of items or units with which learners are to be taught. But Corder (1975) points out that it is more than just an inventory of items. Candlin (1984) takes a different stand when he says that syllabuses are "social constructions, produced interdependently in classrooms by teachers and learners ... They are concerned with the specification and planning of what is to be learned, frequently set down in some written form as prescriptions for action by teachers and learners."

Basically, a syllabus can be seen as "a plan of what is to be achieved through our teaching and our students' learning" (Breen, 1984) while its function is "to specify what is to be taught and in what order" (Prabhu, 1984).

2.15 Place of Syllabus in Language Teaching

Reilly (1988), has talked about six different types of syllabi and the place of syllabus in his article ‘Approaches to Foreign Language Syllabus Design’ published in 1988. According to him “to design a syllabus is to decide what gets taught and in what order” Reilly (1988).

Reilly (1988) emphasised that selection of a syllabus is a major decision in language teaching, and it should be made as determinedly and with as much information as possible. It is a matter of confusion over the years “as to what different types of content are possible in language teaching syllabi and as to whether the differences are in syllabus or method” Reilly (1988). He has discussed six major types of syllabi, these types may be executed in various teaching situations.

2.16 Types of Syllabi

There are mainly six types of syllabi and the types are not entirely distinct from each other. Reilly (1988) points out that almost all actual language teaching syllabi are combinations of two or more of the types defined here. For a given course, one type
of syllabus usually dominates, while other types of content may be combined with it. The six types of syllabi are presented here. The characteristics of individual syllabi are defined as follows:

1. Structural (formal) syllabus: The content of language teaching is a collection of the forms and structures, usually grammatical, of the language being taught. Examples include nouns, verbs, adjectives, statements, questions, subordinate clauses, and soon.

2. Notional/functional syllabus: The content of the language teaching is a collection of the functions that are performed when language is used, or of the notions that language is used to express. Examples of functions include: informing, agreeing, apologizing, requesting; examples of notions include size, age, color, comparison, time, and so on.

3. Situational syllabus: The content of language teaching is a collection of real or imaginary situations in which language occurs or is used. The primary purpose of a situational language teaching syllabus is to teach the language that occurs in the situations. Examples of situations include: seeing the dentist, complaining to the landlord, buying a book at the book store, meeting a new student, and so on.

4. Skill-based syllabus: The content of the language teaching is a collection of specific abilities that may play a part in using language. Skills are things that people must be able to do to be competent in a language, relatively independently of the situation or setting in which the language use can occur. Skill-based syllabi group linguistic competencies (pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, and discourse) together into generalized types of behavior, such as listening to spoken language for the main idea, writing well-formed paragraphs, giving effective oral presentations, and so on.

5. Task-based syllabus: The content of the teaching is a series of complex and purposeful tasks that the students want or need to perform with the language they are learning. The tasks are defined as activities with a purpose other than language learning, but, as in a content-based syllabus, the performance of the tasks is approached in a way that is intended to develop second language ability. Task-based teaching has the goal of teaching students to draw on resources to complete some piece of work (a process). The students draw on a
variety of language forms, functions, and skills, often in an individual and unpredictable way, in completing the tasks. Tasks that can be used for language learning are, generally, tasks that the learners actually have to perform in any case. Examples include: applying for a job, talking with a social worker, getting housing information over the telephone, and so on.

6. Content-based-syllabus: The primary purpose of instruction is to teach some content or information using the language that the students are also learning. The students are simultaneously language students and students of whatever content is being taught. The content teaching is not organized around the language teaching, but vice-versa. Content-based language teaching is concerned with information, while task-based language teaching is concerned with communicative and cognitive processes. An example of content-based language teaching is a science class taught in the language the students need or want to learn, possibly with linguistic adjustment to make the science more comprehensible.

Reilly (1988) insists that while discussing syllabus choice and design, it should be kept in mind that the issue is not which type to choose but which types, and how to relate them to each other.

In the words of Munby (1984), syllabus design is a matter of specifying the content that needs to be taught and then organizing it into a teaching syllabus of appropriate learning units. According to Maley (1984:77), syllabus design encompasses the whole process of designing a language programme. He says that "the needs analysis which produces an order unit of items to be taught is organically related to a methodology consistent with the syllabus, a set of techniques consistent with the methodology, and evaluation procedure consistent with the whole.

Taba (1962) promoted a general model by giving the following steps:

- needs analysis
- formulation of objectives
- selection of content
- organization of content
- selection of learning activities
➢ organization of learning activities -
➢ decisions about what needs evaluating and how to evaluate.

It can be concluded that syllabus design involves a logical sequence of the above mentioned stages and therefore attempts should be made to take into account the result of the need analysis while designing syllabus.

2.17 Conclusion

This chapter exclusively explored the context of Needs analysis and theoretical issues regarding needs analysis. Moreover it also provides a closer look at the historical background of needs analysis. Definitions of needs analysis by several Linguists, types of Needs Analysis, importance of Needs Analysis, theoretical framework of Needs Analysis are also presented in this chapter. Furthermore a brief discussion on Target Situation Analysis (TSA), Present Situation Analysis (PSA), Pedagogical Needs Analysis, Register, Discourse and Genre Analysis has been done. This chapter also attempts to discuss on theories of syllabus design, distinction between curriculum and syllabus, place of syllabus in language teaching and some of the important types of syllabi.
REFERENCES


