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College of Graduate Studies

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**Investigating the Impact of EFL Teachers' Attitudes Towards Using
ESP Courses on Developing Students' Communicative Competence
in Sudanese Universities**

*تقصى اثر توجهات معلمى اللغة الانجليزية لغة اجنبية تجاه استخدام مقررات الانجليزية
للاغراض الخاصة فى تطوير كفاءة الطلاب التواصلية فى الجامعات السودانية*

A thesis Submitted in Fulfillment of the Requirements for the degree of
PhD in English language, (ELT)

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December 2022

Dedication

To my family.

To all close friends.

Acknowledgements

Praise is due to Allah the Almighty for empowering me to conduct this academic work. I would like to express my gratitude to my supervisor Dr. Ahmed Mukhtar Elmerdi for his support, guidance and encouragement throughout this work. Special appreciation is extended to my co-supervisor Dr Alsadig Osman Mohammed who kept providing me with whatever I need throughout this work. My thanks are also extended to the librarian and typist who helped me in ending this work.

Abstract

This study aimed at investigating the Impact of EFL teachers' attitudes towards using ESP courses on developing students' communicative competence in Sudanese universities .The descriptive analytic method was adopted in conducting the study. A questionnaire and interview were chosen as data collection tools. The questionnaire was distributed to (104) ESP teachers. The interview was given to experts in ESP course. The SPSS program (Statistical Package for social Sciences) was used for data analysis. The statistical analysis for the results of the questionnaire and interview showed that ESP courses at health sciences at Sudanese universities do not fulfill students' needs in communication. Students are unable to produce simple discourse, express various utterances in communication, talk and think about a text in new ways. The findings also revealed that ESP teachers have negative attitudes towards the current ESP courses in developing students' communicative competence. The contents of the course are not covered properly to develop students' communicative competence; the courses are not revised and developed regularly, the courses concentrate on structures and grammar rather than communicative competence. The results of the questionnaire reveal that the courses do not enhance the students' communicative competence. Based on the findings, the study recommended that an alternative course to fulfill the real needs of the students developing the basic standards in designing the ESP courses. The researcher also recommends a continuous evaluation system that gives scope for improvement in health science context. The study involved some suggestions for further studies.

المستخلص Abstract Arabic Version

هدفت هذه الدراسة إلى تقصى توجهات معلمى اللغة الانجليزية لغة اجنبية تجاه استخدام مقررات الانجليزية للاغراض الخاصة فى تطوير كفاءة الطلاب التواصلية فى الجامعات السودانية ، إتبعنا الدراسة المنهج الوصفي التحليلي لجمع البيانات عن طريق الاستبانة و المقابلات. ثم توزيع الإستبانة لعدد 104 معلم متخصص فى تدريس الانجليزية للاغراض الخاصة. تم اعطاء المقابلات لعدد خمس خبراء فى مقررات الانجليزية للاغراض الخاصة. تم تحليل البيانات باستخدام برامج الحزم الإحصائية للعلوم الإنسانية. توصلت الدراسة لنتائج أهمها أن التحليل الإحصائي للإستبانة اوضح أن مقررات الانجليزية للاغراض الخاصة فى كليات الصحة بالجامعات السودانية لم تنجز احتياجات الطلاب فى التخاطب حيث وجد عدم قدرة الطلاب فى احداث محادثة بسيطة، عدم قدرتهم بالتفوه بعبارات متنوعة، و عدم قدرتهم فى التحدث والتفكير فى مواقف جديدة فى النص وجد ايضا ان المعلمين لديهم توجهات سالبة نحو مقررات الانجليزية للاغراض الخاصة الحالية فى تطوير كفاءة التخاطب، لم تغطى محتويات المقرر بشكل يطور كفاءة التخاطب، المقرر لم يراجع ويطور بطريقة منتظمة، ركز المقرر على البناء والقواعد اكثر من كفاءة التخاطب. اوضحت الدراسة ان المقرر لا يحسن كفاءة التخاطب. استناداً على هذه النتائج فقد أوصت الدراسة لابد من مقرر بديل لينجز احتياجات الطلاب الاساسية عن طريق تصميم مقررات الانجليزية للاغراض الخاصة . ضرورة التقويم المستمر لتطوير نصوص الانجليزية فى كليات الصحة.وقد تضمنت الدراسة لاقتراحات لدراسات لاحقة.

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List of Abbreviations

ESP English for Specific Purposes
EFL English as a Foreign Language
ELT English Language Learning
EAP English for Academic Purposes
EOP English for Occupational Purposes
EST English for Specific Topics
EST English for Science and Technology
EBE English for Business and Economics
ESS English for Social Science
GPE General Purposes English
SPSS Statistical Package for Social Sciences
EMT English as A mother Tongue
ESL English as a Second Language
LT Language Teaching

Definition of Terms

Curriculum Is a wider term which covers all the activities and arrangements made by the institution throughout the academic year.

Syllabus It a document which says what will be learnt.

Formative It is an evaluation which conducted to find out what is working well.

Summative It is an evaluation which concern with determining the effectiveness of a program.

Attitudes According to Schneider (1988), Attitudes are evaluative reactions to person, objects, and events. This includes your beliefs and positive and negative feelings.

Genre A particular type or style of literature and other arts has a particular feature.

Discourse The use of language in speech and writing in order to produce meaning.

Chapter One

Introduction

CHAPTER ONE

Introduction

1.0. Overview

This chapter is the introduction of the study. It includes background of the study, statement of the study, objective of the study, research questions, research hypotheses, and significance of the study, methodology of the study, limits of the study and organization of the study.

1.1. Background of the Study

English is the dominant language in certain ESP fields. For example, it is accepted as the international spoken and written language of medicine, according to Maher (1986: 216) who observes that the dissemination and exchange of medical information in English has become not only an international but also an international phenomenon. Therefore, in some non-English speaking countries information is frequently published in English for local consumption. This means that English is used in a particular community to serve a specific purpose, in a neutral place beyond its native cultural territory. This, in turn, implies that English has a vital role to play in that particular community, as in the case of the medical professions and the health care field.

1.2. Statements of the Study Problem

1. In Sudan, English is the only FL taught in public schools for students at grade 4, 5, 6 , 6 and 7 of the elementary stage (aged 9 to 13 years) and the secondary stage 14-16 in addition, English language is offered either as an optional subject or as a major at the higher education level , in universities

and colleges. In some higher education colleges, English is used as the main medium of instruction. Sudan like many countries has decided to teach its people health sciences through the medium of English in the higher education institutions. This decision can be justified by the fact that English is accepted as both an international and international language in science and medicine. English must be the most commonly used language in medicine in Sudan. However, using English in such contexts in Sudan is relatively rare, with the exception of some workplace contexts which use it as a university requirement. Both the absence of a significant role of English in most aspects of life and the teaching of English as a sovereign language

The English proficiency of many Sudanese schools students is poor. Indicating that this has long been the case. It could also be argued that success in the ESP courses doesn't necessarily mean that its (HSC) graduates are professional in work – related English or have the ability to communicate without difficulties in the languages.

This suggests that there may be something wrong with the present course, as taught in the (HSCs).

1.3. Significance of the Study

This study is considered significant because it seeks to determine the English language needs of learners in one of these specific contexts namely ESP students and future professionals. The results of the study may help the stakeholder to determine the needs and demands of ESP students to master English language in the context of communicative competence – both spoken and written. Teaching English through such ESP courses qualifies and trains students of such level to work in hospitals, local clinics and other medical facilities as health care assistants (e.g.

nurses, dentals, assistants, pharmacists, and radiology and lab technicians. This financing of the study can be beneficial for curriculum designing to designs courses with student's needs.

1.4. Objectives of the Study

The study tries to achieve the following objectives:

1. To explore whether ESP courses at Sudanese Universities fulfill students' needs in communication or not.
2. To investigate ESP teachers' attitudes towards ESP courses at Sudanese Universities in developing communicative competence.
3. To find out whether ESP courses at Sudanese Universities enhance students' communicative competence or not.

1.5. Study Questions

The present study tries to find answers to the following questions.

1. To what extent do ESP courses at Sudanese Universities fulfill the students' needs in communication?
2. What are ESP teachers' attitudes towards ESP courses at Sudanese Universities in developing communicative competence?
3. To what extent do ESP courses at Sudanese Universities enhance students' communicative competence?

4. 1.6. Study Hypotheses

1. ESP courses at Sudanese universities do not fulfill the students' needs in communication.
2. ESP Teachers at Sudanese universities have negative attitudes towards ESP courses in developing students' communicative competence.

3. ESP courses at Sudanese universities do not enhance students' communicative competence.

4. 1.7. Research Methodology

This study employs a descriptive analytical method. The method which is used in the study is a mixed one composing of quantitative and qualitative method. The researcher uses questionnaire as main tool. The questionnaire is designed for ESP teachers at Sudanese universities. The second tool is interview which conducted to experts. The questionnaire will be analyzed via chi-square and the interview will be analyzed analytically by the researcher.

1.8. Limits of the research

This study is limited to the following considerations. The study is limited to ESP courses designed to Sudanese Universities. The study focuses on the suitability of these courses in fulfilling students' communicative competence. The study will cover only Sudanese universities in Khartoum State. The questionnaire and interview are tools use in this study.

Chapter Two
Literature Review

Chapter Two

Literature Review

2.1. Introduction

This chapter presents a general view of English for specific purposes (ESP). It attempts to build a conceptual background of ESP by giving definitions, outline of ESP theories, types of ESP, features and characteristics of ESP, curriculum and syllabus, the specialized vocabulary, English for Specific Purposes versus General English, the role of ESP teacher, selecting materials and approaches to course design. This vital role obliges those who want to be health care professionals and are non-native speakers of English to study in order to acquire at least a solid command of both written and spoken English. This results in a crucial demand to learn and teach English in the ESP field not only for general purposes, but also more importantly demand for both learning and teaching English in the medical and health care fields is an example of English for specific purposes (ESP), which emerged from within the overall field of English language teaching (ELT) family in the early 1960s (Orr, 2001: 207) and continues to be an important and dynamic area of specialization within ELT. The need for such courses (e.g. English for science and Technology and English for Business) has been and still is a major concern both in English speaking - country and elsewhere – the sub-specialization of ESP which is the focus of the current study is called English for Medical purposes (EMP). EMP has become an important component of the curriculum at many health sciences and medical colleges, with the goal of addressing learners' specific needs and thus helping them to be proficient and successful in English both in their academic studies and in the professional workplace.

One set of factors which led to the emergence of ESP were the developments in educational psychology which means that learners were seen to have different

needs and interests , which would have an important influence on their motivation to learn and therefore on the effectiveness of their learning (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987:8). Influences by these developments, many English language teachers needs and may ESP courses were designed to better meet these needs. This research utilizes the process of curriculum development in order to address the question of whether the present ESP course at the health sciences colleges in Sudan fulfill the needs and demands of the students for both present academic and future professional purposes – A central aim of this study is therefore to propose an ESP course curriculum which would be more effective and appropriate to the students’ needs. It might be expected that the course would face such problems, because since its inception one target came and learning needs are make identified according to the actual use of the language within specific context and learners may be disappointed with the language instruction level, that they have once, they begin their course, despite the effort that they have devoted to their language training. The problem of students’ achievements as well as the weak communication skills of HSCs graduates could be ascribed to a possible mismatch between the students’ needs, interest and aims and the present English language course. In order to enhance learner motivation to improve their English language, competence and skills and to meet their specific needs, the contents of the syllabus, the teaching techniques and activities followed in their classes need to be related to the English, the students will come across in their medical studies in the college. This study will suggest that they should be specific curriculum that would help students to gain proficiency in English in the different areas of health care, this study uses need analysis to investigate the effect of English use in the HSCs student academic studies and target carriers.

2.2. Various definitions ESP

The definitions of ESP are numerous; the concept is being fluid enough to support numbers of interpretations. ESP is a term that refers to teaching and studying English for a particular career (like law, medicine), or for business in general. There is specific reason for which English is learned. Robinson (1989:398) describes ESP as a type of English language teaching (ELT) and defines it as “goal oriented language learning ”. That means the students has specific goal which is going to be attained.

However, Hutchinson and Watters (1987:9) consider ESP as “an approach to language teaching in which all decisions as to content and method are based on learners` reason for learning”. But according to Yassin (2013:1)

ESP is “interdisciplinary area of enquiry”. Also Strevens (1980:109) states that “a definition of ESP that is both simple and watertight is not easy to produce”.

As a matter of fact, ESP combines subject matter and English language teaching. Such a combination is highly motivating because students are able to apply what they learn in their English classes to their main field of study, whatever it would be; Accounting, Economics, Computer Science, Agriculture, Medicine or Tourism.

2.3. Historical Background of ESP

The idea of ESP has been available since 1960s.However; the concept of directing language teaching to specific aims goes back beyond that date (Hutchinson and Watters, 1987). After the end of the Second World War in 1945, there was expansion in technology and commerce, so there was a great demand for an international language. For various reasons, the economic power of the United States in the post-world war generated a whole new mass of people wanting to learn English not for pleasure but because English became the language of technology.

Hutchinson and Watters (1989:6) state “the effect was to create a whole new mass of people wanting to learn English, not for the pleasure or prestige of knowing the language, but because English was the key to the international currencies of technology”. But as English has become the accepted international language of technology and commerce, it creates a new generation of learners who know specifically why they are learning language. Business men and women who wanted to sell their products, doctors who needed to keep up with developments in their fields and a whole range of students whose course of study included textbooks and journals only available in English.

According to Hutchinson and Watters (1987:9), there are three reasons common to the emergence of all ESP:

1. The demand of brave new world.
2. A revolution in linguistics.
3. Focus on the learners.

ESP developed at different speeds in different countries (ibid). This development actually has taken place through five stages:

1. The concept of special language: register analysis.
2. beyond the sentences rhetorical or discourse analysis.
3. Target situation analysis / needs analysis.
4. Skills strategies.
5. A learning-centered approach.

The focus should rather be on the underlying interpretive strategies, which enable the learner to cope with the surface, for example, guessing the meaning of words from context and using visual layout to determine the type of text.

2.4. The Purpose of the ESP Program

The purpose of the ESP program comes from the fact that the learner of ESP expresses his /her purpose in learning very clearly, so the concept of purpose in

ESP is crucial since all activities are directed towards the achievement of clearly specified utilitarian aims at the end of the course.

Robison (1980:6) argues that “the purpose in ESP is generally conceived as successful performance in work in which the language plays an auxiliary role ”. The concept of purpose in ESP can be seen as training, in other words, the learner is provided with specific skills and knowledge to be applied in solving problems, which are clearly specified in advance without necessarily knowing the rationale behind these skills.

In this direction, Widowson (1983:6) defines ESP as “an essential training operation which seeks to provide learners with a restricted competence to enable them to cope with certain clearly defined purposes, which the ESP course is designed to meet”.

Finally, one can conclude that it is not an easy task to produce a simple definition of ESP, i.e. the very specificity of purposes in ESP shows that what is specific to one group of one language learners at a certain place might not be specific to another group elsewhere.

2.5. Types of ESP

While it ‘has yet to establish itself as either a full profession or as clear sub-discipline in the language sciences’ (Swales, 2000: 62), ESP as a type of ELT1 (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987; Robinson, 1989; Dudley-Evans, 2001; Kennedy, 2001; Master; 2005) can be divided into different types (Kennedy and Bolitho, 1984; McDonough, 1984; Robinson, 1991; Carter and Nunan, 2001; Belcher, 2006). This division of ESP can often be useful (Coffey, 1984; McDonough, 1984). As Kennedy and Bolitho (1984: 3) observe, ESP types ‘provide an overall picture of the main groups of learners which might be of concern to an ESP teacher’. In addition, the division of ESP can be helpful in differentiating ESP courses from those of GE. Throughout its history, ESP scholars have suggested

different ways of categorising ESP types, such as those of Strevens (1983: 92), Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 17) and Dudley-Evans and St John (1998: 9).

Traditionally, ESP has two main types: EAP (English for Academic Purposes) and EOP (English for Occupational Purposes) (Kennedy and Bolitho, 1984; McDonough, 1984; Hutchinson and Waters, 1987; Robinson, 1991; Jordan, 1997; Dudley-Evans and St John, 1998, Flowerdew and Peacock, 2001a; Belcher, 2006; Master, 2007; 1 However, Barnard and Zemach (2003: 307) argue that ‘ESP should not be regarded as a discrete division of ELT, but simply an area (with blurred boundaries) whose courses are usually more focused in their aims and make use of a narrower range of topics’. Kim, 2008; Krzanowski, 2008). This implies that ‘learners for whom ESP is appropriate are either engaged in studying a particular subject in English, or are following a particular occupation for which they need English, or both’ (Strevens, 1988b: 39). Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 16) explain that ‘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’.¹ Thus, the two main purposes of ESP are study and work, while some learners will need it for both. Indeed, the type of ESP under investigation in the present study is assumed to prepare its students for both their academic studies and their professional lives.

EOP ‘refers to English that is not for academic purposes; it includes professional purposes in administration, medicine, law and business, and vocational purposes for non-professionals in work or pre-work situations’ (Dudley-Evans and St John, 1998: 7). Therefore, EOP is often closely related to students’ work or profession, because ‘they are most likely required to have a certain level of English proficiency at work which is an indicator of good work performance’ (Kim, 2008: 1). That is, EOP courses often attempt to improve work-related language skills. Kennedy and Bolitho (1984: 4) explain that there may be differences in such

courses depending on whether students are learning English before, during or after the time they are being trained in their work or profession. EOP can be subdivided into English for Professional Purposes (EPP; e.g. EMP) and English for Vocational Purposes (EVP) or Vocational English (Dudley-Evans and St John, 1998: 6).

EAP is defined as ‘the teaching of English with the specific aim of helping learners to study, conduct research or teach in that language’ (Flowerdew and Peacock, 2001a: 8). This seems to imply that the nature of EAP is often educational. Watson Todd (2003: 149) observes that ‘the main goal of EAP is for students to communicate effectively in academic environments’. EAP focuses on equipping students with the specific communicative skills to participate in these environments (Hyland and Hamp-Lyons, 2002: 2). EAP is also subdivided into many types. According to 1 Hyland (2006: 23) argues that the major differences between the EAP and EOP instruction contexts is that less consensus exists on the language, skills and communicative behaviors required in the world of work. McDonough (1984: 6), Dudley-Evans and St John, (1998: 7) and Jordan (2002: 73), the main type of EAP is considered to be English for Science and Technology (EST).

However, it seems that EST can correspond to both occupational and academic uses of English: occupational when it addresses the needs of oilfield workers, engineers, etc.; academic when it is for school and university students studying physics, maths and chemistry through the medium of English (Robinson, 1980: 8). Holme (1996: 2) explains that EAP was developed along with ESP as one of its types, concerned with the specific purpose of following academic courses at the university level. Another explanation views EAP as having quite different, general study-skills orientation, rather than requiring specific language context analysis (Jordan 1997: 4). According to this explanation, EAP is subsumed under ESP, which could be reflected in the names of its sub-specializations (e.g. English for

Studying Biological Sciences, English for Law). The impression given here is that ESP refers to any English teaching context where the target language context is known and can inform the teaching syllabus about the language skills, language context or language types of the necessary teaching tasks. As Widdowson (1998: 3) argues, the danger is that this might result in a view of all language teaching as a kind of ESP, so that there would be subcategories such as English for issuing train tickets. Yet if one adds a discourse community requirement and looks for a more widely practiced concept of language use, one sets some limitations on what is ESP and what is not. The designation then seems to apply only if one is preparing students for entry into a community of product and discourse, imposing demands on the intake to the ESP course. At present, it could be said that ESP is a very large and expanding research field. Accordingly, the types that can be listed under ESP have expanded too. McDonough (1984: 7) lists sixteen ESP course titles and asserts that 'the list is almost endless'. It seems that as many as sixteen or twenty types of language study can be identified under ESP and the process is continuing to expand as fields of research and practice develop. One difficulty is that in spite of its simplicity, the distinction between EAP and EOP can lead to confusion, because the distinction is not clear-cut (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987; Flowerdew and Peacock, 2001a) in that these two broad categories often overlap (Belcher, 2004: 179). Thus, this distinction is not always valid and its vagueness can be ascribed, as Belcher (2006: 134) notes, to the fact that 'the goals of EAP and EOP are not always easily separable'. For instance, English for Economics may be for either academic or occupational purposes. In other words, 'an English course designed to help students read economics textbooks would clearly be EAP, but a course designed to teach learners how to participate in business meetings or take phone calls definitely has an EOP dimension to it' (Flowerdew and Peacock,

2001a: 11-12). One can argue that this confusion might contribute to that over the concept of ESP itself.

In conclusion, it could be suggested that ongoing development in various fields which use English has resulted in more specific needs for the language in certain domains. That is, the more specific the domain, the more specific the needs. In this respect, Holme (1997: 2) proposes a pyramid of specific needs whose higher levels represent more specific language needs, resulting in the opportunity for more specific branches to emerge within the domains. For example, EAP is less specific but at successive levels it becomes more specific, reaching the very specific English for an Academic Conference (EAC). In this sense, Holme (1997: 2) suggests that the bottom of the pyramid (e.g. EAP and EOP) might be considered a category for specialization rather than a specialization by itself. This means that EAP is seen as a branch (category or specialization) of the enterprise of ESP. Some (e.g. Hamp-Lyons, 2001; Turner, 2004), however, see EAP as a distinct field and a (study) skills-based specialism, while others see ESP as describing types of specialization within EAP. Indeed, many courses used to work like this; they would begin with basic study skills on writing essays, for example, then specialize the activity within the discipline (e.g. writing business studies essays). This does not make sense, as it ignores the EOP area. ESP needs to be seen simply as teaching language where students' needs can be specified within academic or occupational zones of use, or in Swalesian terms (1990), where future discourse communities can be identified.

2.5.1. English for Occupational Purposes (EOP)

English language has become a necessary tool in obtaining a job, getting promoted and performing effectively in the working field. English for occupational purposes had logically come about as a result of the development in the linguistic field. Registers such as English for pilots,

English for doctors, English for bank employees are branches of EOP. The main aim of EOP is more general compared to ESP because it does not focus on the specific job disciplines, but on the more general required by the students in order to

2.5.2. English for Academic Purposes (EAP)

Recently, there has been a development in English language teaching methods. It is widely understood that the communication- based approaches to language teaching pay attention to learners' problems need English to continue their studies particularly in the field of science and technology. This need for English leads to the emergence of the EAP. According to Flower Dew and Peacock (2001: 8), the teaching of English with specific aim of helping learners to study, conduct research, or teach that language is an international extent scope. This accounts for the large number of ESP activities. Thus EAP is the most growing ESP branch.

2.5.3. English for Medical Purposes (EMP)

English has become both the international and international language of medicine (Maher, 1986a; Dzuganova; 2002). Consequently, those who intend to join the medical or healthcare field 'need English as a means of doing their work efficiently and of furthering their specialist education' (Kourilova; 1979: 431). Thus, the use of English in the medical or healthcare field is not limited to countries where it is spoken as a first language. It may be the neutral language used by non-native doctors and nurses in hospitals in non-English-speaking countries. It may also be used between countries where English is used as a foreign or second language. For example, in a country such the KSA, where developing technology is used with medicine, members of a surgical team would communicate in English with their counterparts in a hospital in France, while performing a live transmitted operation, exchanging ideas or consulting in order to obtain the best surgical outcome. EMP emerged in 1960 (Maher, 1986b: 114) as a recognizable subtype of ESP

(McDonough, 1984; Maher, 1986b; Dudley-Evans and St John, 1998; Hull, 2006; Antic, 2007). Maher (1986b: 112) defines English for Medical Purposes as ‘the teaching of English for doctors, nurses, and other personnel in the medical professions’, then goes on to explain that EMP:

- a. is designed to meet the specific English language needs of the medical learner (e.g. nurse, dentist);
- b. focuses on themes and topics specific to the medical field;
- c. focuses on a restricted range of skills which may be required by the medical learner (e.g. for writing a medical paper, preparing a talk for a medical meeting).

It is significant that Maher places English language needs first. Maher’s definition seems to imply that all medical learners’ language needs are identical. However, in EMP, although there may sometimes be overlaps in the English language needs of medical learners, there may often be many differences between the needs, for example, of dentists and nurses. Confirming this, in her investigation of the English language needs of paramedical students in Kuwait, Adams-Smith (1980) found that they had very different needs from medical students. Moreover, the needs of learners studying EMP in a non-English-speaking country might be different from those doing so in an English-speaking country. Munby (1978: 2) affirms that ‘there should be important differences in the English course for a non-native requiring English in order to study medicine in his own country as opposed to England’. Maher (1986b: 115) suggests that there are two main types or branches of EMP. The first is English for Medicine for Educational Purposes (EM-EP) or what Dudley³⁵ Evans and St John (1998: 49) call Medical English for Academic Purposes. The second type is English for Medicine for Occupational Purposes (EM-OP) or what Dudley-Evans and St John (1998: 49) call Medical English for Occupational Purposes. In EM-EP, which involves language training as part of primary medical or healthcare studies (Maher, 1986b: 115), students have

to read textbooks and articles as well as write essays and short clinical reports (Dudley-Evans and St John, 1998: 49). EM-OP, on the other hand, is associated with active professional requirements (e.g. consultation skills, conference presentation) (Maher, 1986b: 115). In EM-OP, practicing doctors, for example, read specialist articles and prepare papers and slide presentations for conferences (Dudley-Evans and St John, 1998: 49). Maher (1986b: 115) explains that while EM-EP and EM-OP teach the same skills (e.g. reading medical reports) and share content (e.g. infectious diseases), the teaching procedures, levels of knowledge and specific purposes may be different for doctors and students.

This suggests that EM-EP students' needs may be different from those of EM-OP students. Most EMP courses, as Maher (1986b: 116) points out, are structured according to two essential frames: the type of learner involved, the main groups being nurses and doctors, and the main purpose of the courses (e.g. to teach professional test preparation, practice in reading, writing, etc., or doctor-nurse interaction). Needs analysis can help in shaping and identifying these two basic frames.

However, in situations where English is a foreign language, as in the current study, 'EMP has been confined almost entirely to the needs of doctors' and 'much less attention is given to medical students, nurses and paramedical staff' (Maher, 1986b: 123). Maher (1986b: 138) concludes that in these situations there is no description of the language needs of medical students and the 'result is an incomplete picture of EMP in operation overseas in medical education especially'. The current study attempts to fill this gap by targeting one of these situations.

Also Many scholars seem disagree of the types of ESP as can be shown below. Carter quotes in Gatehouse (2001:7), identifies three types of ESP:

1. English as a restricted language.
2. English for Academic and Occupational Purposes.

3. English for Specific Topics.

The language used by international air traffic controllers and waiters is an example of the restricted language. MacKay and Moundford (1978:4-5) conceive this type of language as a special in the sense that the repertoire required by the air controller, for instance, is strictly limited and can accurately be determined situational.

Carter as quoted in Gatehouse (2001:8) categorizes EAP and EOP under the same type of ESP. It appears that Carter implies the end purpose of both EAP and EOP is one and same at last “employment”. Although the end purpose is being identical, EAP and EOP are different terms of kind of language focus on the final type of ESP which identified by Carter is English for specific topics. Carter notes that it is only in this type the emphasis shifts from purpose to topic. This type of ESP uniquely concerns with anticipated future English needs, for example students requiring English for postgraduate studies, scientists attending conferences or working in foreign institutions.

He also argues that “this is not a separate type of ESP, rather, it is an integral component comes or program which focus on situational language used target work place settings”.(ibid:6).

Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 16) identify two types which contrast with Carters three types. Their classification is based on whether the learner uses English for academic purposes, or for work and training. It is possible to distinguish ESP courts by the general nature of the learner's specialty.

Therefore, three categories are usually identified in this connection:

- 1- English for science and technology (EST).
- 2- English for Business and Economics (EBE).
- 3- English for Social Sciences (ESS).

In this respect two main branches of ESP will be discussed with some more details.

2.6. Features and Characteristics of ESP

Stevens (1980: 109) observes that ‘a definition of ESP that is both simple and Watertight is not easy to produce’. Despite this, the term has been defined by a number of scholars. Robinson (1980: 98), for example, cites fifteen scholars who have attempted to define ESP. This implies that there are many different opinions surrounding the concept and therefore that there is some terminological confusion. Commenting on this, Ewer (1981: 2) writes:

The terminology of ESP is now getting into such a confused and contradictory state that in my experience it is impossible to carry on a discussion about the subject with practitioners outside one’s own work-group for more than a few minutes without misunderstandings arising from this source.

Blackie (1979: 263) notes that ‘the term provoked statements of support and hostility as well as contradictory observations, depending on whether ESP was thought to be newfangled and untested, or whether it was simply a new piece of jargon referring to something old’. This suggests that understanding what ESP means simply depends on the viewpoint of the individual(s) concerned. To explain this, one might view the teaching of English for shopping as ‘specific’, whereas someone else might view this function as being served by a subset of general English. Differences of interpretation may be geographical as well as functional: as Robinson (1991: 1) puts it, ‘what is specific and appropriate in one part of the globe may well not be elsewhere’. This implies that ESP is often subject to varied interpretations.

Notwithstanding the attempt by Mackay and Mountford (1978: 2) to define ESP as ‘the teaching of English for a clearly utilitarian purpose’, Blackie (1979: 263) calls for ‘a satisfactory working definition’ of ESP. This may be because Mackay’s and Mountford’s definition does not seem to cover all aspects of ESP. As an alternative, Blackie (1979: 266) suggests that ESP refers to ‘programmers designed

for groups of learners who are homogeneous with respect to aims, and whose specific learning objectives have been quantified and stated in communicative terms'. The key aspect of this definition seems to be that of homogeneity within the group(s) of learners, which, as Blackie (1979: 264) explains, can be identified on the basis of two factors:

(1) Learners' general communicative competence in terms of language skills, which can be determined by a placement test, and (2) their learning needs, which can be determined by an appropriate needs analysis. It seems, however, that Blackie neglects to specify to what extent such homogeneity could be found within a group of learners, since it is often difficult to find a group with absolutely homogeneous needs. Thus, Cunningsworth (1983: 153) observes that 'the needs of the learners in a group may not be identical and in many cases may differ quite considerably one from another'.

For Kennedy and Bolitho (1984: 13), the degree of homogeneity within classes with respect to needs, abilities and subject disciplines is one of the most important factors influencing the design and implementation of ESP courses.

Whatever their precise stance on homogeneity, many authors agree that learners' needs are fundamental to ESP. For example, Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 19) argue as follows:

ESP must be seen as an approach, not as a product. ESP is not a particular kind of language or methodology, nor does it consist of a particular type of teaching material. Understood properly, it is an approach to language learning, which is based on learner need. The foundation of all ESP is the simple question: Why does this learner need to learn a foreign language?

The ESP approach, in this sense, means addressing learners' specific language needs. Munby (1987: 2) supports this view and defines ESP courses as 'those where the syllabus and materials are determined in all essentials by the prior

analysis of the communication needs of the learner'. This implies that the focus is on the purpose of learning the language; but Munby has also introduced the notion of communication into the definition, whereas Hutchinson and Waters (1984: 112) argue that 'ESP is first and foremost a learning process, and it is not possible to have a communicative approach in ESP unless ESP is seen as primarily an educational matter'. Thus far, it could be deduced that ESP courses are or should be based not only on analyzing learners' communicative needs, which are usually derived from the target situation, but also on a complete analysis of all of their language needs, attitudes and interests; in other words, on a comprehensive analysis of the ESP learning and teaching situation. Smoak (2003: 27) echoes the communicative approach by introducing the concept of real-life tasks, asserting that 'ESP is English instruction based on actual and immediate needs of learners who have to successfully perform real-life tasks unrelated to merely passing an English class or exam. ESP is needs based and task oriented'. One of the apparent limitations of this definition is that it does not explain what kind of real-life tasks are envisaged, e.g. social or occupational. In his definition of ESP, Orr (2001: 207) identifies these tasks:

ESP is English language instruction designed to meet the specific learning needs of a specific learner or a group of learners within a specific time frame for which instruction in general English will not suffice. Most often, this instruction involves orientation to specific spoken and written English, usually unfamiliar to the average speaker, which is required to carry out specific academic or workplace tasks. This definition also highlights another aspect of ESP: that there is usually a specified timeframe for ESP courses (Robinson, 1991; Basturkmen, 2006). This suggests that ESP is a learning/teaching process that addresses certain objectives over a relatively fixed period of time.

Notwithstanding variation on such matters of detail, on the whole, the suggestion is that ESP courses are mainly based on an analysis of learners' needs (to be discussed at greater length in section 2.5). McDonough (1984: 29) made this point clearly a quarter of a century ago by stating that 'the idea of analyzing the language needs of the learner as a basis for course development has become almost synonymous with

ESP in recent years and it is difficult to think of one without the other coming to mind'. The point seems to be that the outcome of analyzing these needs should help to determine the content of ESP courses. However, a definition of ESP, as Dudley-Evans (1998: 5) maintains, 'requires much more than an acknowledgment of the importance of needs analyses. This suggests that there are additional features or characteristics that are central to ESP. In his extended definition of ESP, Stevens (1988a: 1-2) lists four absolute and two variable Characteristics.

A decade later, Dudley-Evans and St John (1998: 4-5) attempted to modify While 'even today there is a large amount of on-going debate as to how to specify what exactly ESP constitutes' (Brunton, 2009: 2), the two definitions above indicate how broad and multifaceted ESP is. It is also notable that Dudley-Evans and St John list more variable characteristics than Stevens but remove the latter's fourth absolute characteristic, i.e. that ESP contrasts with General English (GE). It is also notable that there is a fair degree of similarity between the two definitions. In pointing out two such areas of agreement, Basturkmen (2003: 49) writes that 'ESP courses are devised on the basis of the specific work-related or academic needs of the learners and the courses offer descriptions of language use in the disciplines or occupations they serve'. Still, as Master (2005: 99) argues, 'ESP seeks to weigh the importance of various elements in the genuine language situations English language learners will encounter'.

To a large extent, both types of characteristics outlined in the two definitions above seem to help in clarifying some contentious questions about the nature of ESP. For example, while some claim that all ESP teaching and materials are specific to the academic discipline or profession being served, it would be unduly restrictive to argue that the term ESP could be used only in respect of subject-specific work, since, as

Dudley-Evans (1998: 6) explains, ‘where the focus in the class is on common-core skills or genres that belong to any discipline or profession, this is as much an ESP class as the more specific work’. This implies that ESP should not essentially be a process of teaching subject content per se, but rather should concentrate on developing learners’ knowledge of English, their language skills and their study skills, in order to help them to learn the subject content they require.

A significant point implicit in the third variable characteristic of ESP listed by Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) is that ESP does not seem to target a particular age group. However, McDonough (1984: 23) states that the majority of ESP learners are adults, ‘since it is only by that age that they have developed a specialism or job preference’. Similarly, Robinson (1991: 3) remarks that ‘the students on an ESP course are likely to be adults rather than children’. This view, that ESP is usually taught to adults because they are more likely to be aware of specific purposes and needs in learning the language, is shared by Kennedy and Bolitho (1984: 14), who observe that ‘the older a learner is, the more likely he is to have his own definite ideas on why he is learning English. In fact, many ESP learners are adults’. Kim (2008: 1) also notes that ‘adult language learners have more compelling and specific needs to learn a foreign language’.

In contrast to the views of McDonough, of Robinson, of Kennedy and Bolitho and of Kim, Steinhausen (1993: 6) argues that ‘school children are very aware of why they are learning English and of what their needs are’. Dudley-Evans (2001: 131)

also points out that ESP can be taught in schools, even at primary level. While the question of whether ESP is limited to adults or can be extended to younger learners remains open, there is practical evidence of the broader interpretation in some countries. In Saudi Arabia, for example, there are some technical and vocational secondary schools where ESP is taught and it is also offered in some tertiary education institutions. In addition, adults working in both the private and public sectors often attend ESP courses related to their specialized professional needs.

It seems that the issue of defining ESP has generated argument and consensus alike. One apparent area of disagreement among ESP scholars, as Flowerdew (1990: 327) observes, concerns ‘the nature and role of the so-called “common core” (a supposed basic set of language items that can be used in all situations)’. This common core hypothesis was proposed by Bloor and Bloor (1986: 13), who suggest that there is a fundamental group of grammatical and lexical items that learners should master before embarking on an ESP course. Consideration of the value of some less specific content in the context of ESP has led scholars to distinguish between two types of ESP course design: ‘narrow-angle’ and ‘wide-angle’. The former term refers to courses for learners targeting a particular professional or academic field, whereas the wide-angle or common core approach refers to courses covering a broader professional or academic field (Basturkmen, 2003: 48). This distinction between narrow-angle and wide-angle courses can be said to reflect the degree of specificity of the aims of ESP courses. Wide-angle courses ‘provide learners with a general capacity to enable them to cope with undefined eventualities in the future’ (Widdowson, 1983: 6). This implies that they do not fully focus on the purposes of the learners’ specific discipline or field. Basturkmen (2003: 50) further distinguishes two types of wide-angle course: those that focus on a language variety (e.g. Academic English, Business English) and those which address learners’ common needs with reference to a set of disciplines

or occupations (e.g. English for General Academic Purposes, English for Health Professionals).

One of the advantages of courses that focus on a language variety is that ‘students do not necessarily need to have a high level of proficiency in English’ (Basturkmen,

2003: 59). Another is that ‘ESP courses focusing on the common needs across target groups offer advantages of practicality and economy’ (Ibid: 57). Students on such courses may also be interested in topics beyond their own narrow specialist discipline or field (Ibid: 58). Confirming this, Mason (1994: 21) observes that ‘Health Care students are generally interested in the wider aspects of their field and appreciate an introduction to a variety of topics’. However, a countervailing disadvantage is that courses with a wider focus often seem to neglect students’ needs. Johns and Dudley-

Evans (1991: 304) identify some studies (e.g. De Escorcia, 1984) which have found that the wide-angle approach needs to be supplemented by an attempt to define students’ more specific needs and the actual language difficulties that they face or will face daily, in their academic or professional lives. Narrow-angle courses, on the other hand, ‘provide learners with a restricted competence to enable them to cope with clearly defined tasks’ (Widdowson, 1983: 6).

This implies that their aims are very specific. According to Basturkmen (2003: 50), narrow-angle courses are based on the analysis of learners’ needs with reference to their particular discipline or occupation (e.g. English for Pilots and Air Traffic Controllers). Dudley-Evans and St John (1998: 151) note that a narrow-angle course is appropriate where needs are limited. However, there are a number of problems with narrow-angle designs. Presenting a restricted version of English, narrow-angle designs limit students’ ability to use English in that ‘they are limited to the precise uses of English that allow them to operate in restricted

circumstances’ (Basturkmen, 2003: 55). Narrow-angle ESP may also be ‘demotivating to the student, and open up a credibility gap between learner and language teacher’ (McDonough, 1984: 54). This may occur because some ESP teachers lack a sufficient grounding in their students’ specialism, while many learners ‘already have problems enough with language without adding an additional conceptual load’ (Kennedy and Bolitho, 1984: 51).

Another area of disagreement among ESP scholars concerns classroom methodology. Arguing that the emphasis has been on needs analysis and content, Widdowson (1983: 87) maintains that ‘methodology has generally been neglected in ESP’. Likewise, Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 2) assert that ‘ESP has paid scant attention to the question of how people learn, focusing instead on the question of what people learn’.

This implies that the common approach to ESP has often been language-centred and not learning-centred. It is suggested that ESP needs to be seen first as a learning process (see section 2.3.5.).

It seems that the definitions of ESP reported above focus generally on three points: the nature of language (specialized discourse), the specific purpose or goal of learners in learning it (learners’ needs) and the contexts in which language is taught and used (specific learning settings, e.g. medical college, and specific domains, e.g. hospital).

In the context of this study, ESP is understood as the teaching and learning of specific English at tertiary level to a group of adult learners who will use it both in their current academic study as healthcare students and in their future careers as healthcare professionals, in order to function effectively in these specific situations.

The first step towards understanding the identifying and roles of ESP is to view it as a development within the field of ELT as it is considered by Kennedy and Bolitho (1984). But the important thing here is, what are the characteristics features of ESP to meet specific needs of the target situation Yassin (2013:1) states

1. ESP is taught as a means to an end for clearly defined aims where English is called upon to play an auxiliary role to enable the language learners to communicate in the target situation. It is an instrumental role.

2. ESP is closely linked with the target specialist of the learner.

3. ESP is based on the learners' needs analysis, i.e. what exactly the learner needs English for. Needs also exist in GPE but they are not accurately specified. So, it is the specialty of the learners' needs which is based on rigorous analysis that distinguishes ESP from GPE.

4. ESP like itself closely with learner centered approach.

5. ESP learners are often adults or near adults.

6. ESP learners often have high motivation (relevance of the course to their communication needs).

7. ESP courses are often taught under pressure of time thus, all arrangements and activities are done with this factor in mind.

8. Accountability is an important feature to ESP. The ESP practitioner is more accountable to the client than GPE teachers. The ultimate aim is the achievement of a specific purpose.

9. Communicating is desirable in GPE but it is a must in ESP.

10. Writing materials to meet the specific purposes become an important component of ESP activities. Much time of ESP teachers is taking in materials writing.

11. Teaching study skills (e.g. reading skills) are more important in ESP.

12. ESP teaching materials are often taken from the learners' specifying (they enhance comprehension and motivation).

The above characteristics and features are not confined to ESP to exclusion of GPE but they are necessary more essential in ESP which may share a lot with EPE.

According to Robinson (1980, 9), "English for special language, i.e. restricted language ... whereas English for specific purposes focuses attention on the purpose of the learner and refers to the whole range of resources". That means ESP has a purposefulness goal.

2.7. ESP versus GPE

English Specific Purpose (ESP) is different from English as a second language (ESL) or as known as general English. The most important difference lies in the learners and their purposes for learning English .ESP students are usually adults who already have some acquaintance with

English and are learning the language in order to communicate a set of professional skills and to perform a particular job- related function (Fiorito: 2013).

An ESP program is therefore, built on an assessment of purposes and needs the functions for which English is required. So ESP concentrates more on language in context than on teaching grammar and language structures. It covers subjects varying from accounting and computer science, to tourism, business and management. ESP focuses, not on

English taught as a subject matter, but it focuses on the students` real needs or interests. However, Robison (1989), describes ESP as a type of ELT, and defines it as: "Goal – oriented language learning", that means student have a specific goal that is going to be attained as mentioned before.

The origin of ESP and it`s development is closely linked with learners' interests in various specific disciplines: law English, English for hotel industry, English for agriculture and English for medicine. As mentioned in this study, students learn

English for specific purposes represented by subject matter to gain and develop appropriate knowledge and skill through English, that is why English language is not seen as the main goal in the process of learning, but rather a vehicle for its acquirement(Hutchison and Watters (1992).Similarly, Robinson (1989: 396) states that "students study ESP not because they are interested in the English language as such but because they have to perform a task in English. Their command of the English language must be such that they can reach a satisfactory level in their specialist subject study".

Hutchinson and Watters, (1992,6), state that "learners know specifically why they are learning a language". These is a great advantage on both sides of the process, the group of ESP learners is going to achieve the same goal in the field of studying branch, so, learners` motivation in a form of the same aim enables teachers to meet learners' need and expectation easier. Hutchinson and Watters (1998) emphasize that ESP to be an approach not product. That means language learning, not language use, is highlighted. They draw attention to a "learning centered approach" in which all decisions as to content and method are based on the learners' reason for learning" (ibid).

But what distinguishes between purposes in GPE and purposes in ESP according to Widowson (1983: 6),"ESP is essentially a training operation which seeks to provide learners with restricted competence to enable them to cope with certain clearly defined purposes ... GPE is essentially educational operation which seeks to provide learners with general capability to enable them to cope with undefined purposes in future"

2.8. Curriculum and Syllabus

Curriculum is wider term as compared with syllabus. Curriculum covers all the activities and arrangements made by the institution throughout the academic year to facilitate the learning and the instructors, whereas syllabus is limited to a particular subject of a particular class. A syllabus is an expression of opinion on the nature of language and learning; it acts as a guide for both teacher and learner by providing some goals to be attained. Hutchinson and Watters (1987: 80) define syllabus by saying that "at its simplest level, a syllabus can be described as statement of what is to be learnt. It reflects language and linguistic performance. However, a syllabus can be seen as a summary of the content to which learners will be exposed.

Yassin (2013: 1-2) asks "What do we mean by syllabus? And he continues: it is an document which says what will (or at least what should) be learnt. Also he divides syllabus into:

1. The evaluation syllabus:

It states what the successful learner will know by the end of the course (ministry of education) - An official study.

2. The organization syllabus:

It states the order in which the content should be learnt. It differs from the evaluation syllabus, in that it carries assumption about the nature of learning and language, what should come first and what comes next: from easy ... to difficult ... to more difficult. Thus, the organization syllabus is an implicit statement about the nature of language and of learning.

3. The material syllabus:

The first person who interprets the syllabus is usually the material writer.

4. The teacher syllabus:

Language is learned through the mediation of a teacher, who can influence the clear intensity and frequency of any item – these will affect the learning.

5. The Classroom Syllabus:

What is planned and what actually happens in the class are two different things. The lesson plan is like the planned route, but it can be affected by all sorts of conditions – along the way. The classroom has its effects on teaching and learning. It generates its own syllabus.

6. The learner syllabus:

The above mentioned syllabuses are external syllabuses. This syllabus is an internal syllabus. It is what develops in the learners' brains which help the learner to comprehend and store the later knowledge.

In fact there is not just one syllabus but several and they must all be taken into consideration. It is true to say "I have taught the syllabus and therefore, the students have learnt what is in the syllabus. Yassin (2013: 2) asks: Why should we have a syllabus? Here are some reasons:

1. Language is a complex entity. It cannot be learnt in one go. The syllabus provides a practical basis for breaking it down into manageable units.
2. It makes the language learning task appear manageable.
3. A syllabus, particularly an ESP syllabus gives, reassurance for sponsor's investment will be worthwhile.
4. It gives directions to teachers and learners where they are going.
5. It is an implicit statement of views on the nature of language and learning.
6. A syllabus is one way to achieve standardization.
7. It provides a visible basis for testing.

2.8.1. On What Criteria Can a Syllabus be Organized?

One of the main purposes of a syllabus is to break down the mass of knowledge to be learnt into manageable units. Examples of syllabus: topic syllabus, structural, situational, functional, national, discourse.

2.8.2. Suggested Steps for Planning Syllabus

1. Develop a well- grounded rationale for your course.
2. Decide what you want students to be able to do as a result of taking your course and how their work will be appropriately assessed.
3. Define and delimit course content.
4. Structure your students' active involvement in learning.
5. Identify and develop resources.
6. Compose your syllabus which focuses on student learning.

2.9. The Role of ESP Teacher

As an ESP teacher, you must play many roles; you may be asked to organize courses, to set learning objectives, to establish positive learning environment in the classroom, and to evaluate student's progress.

Hutchinson and Waters (1992: 163) state that "ESP teacher should not become a teacher of the subject matter, but rather an interested student of the subject matter".

But it is difficult to delimit where general English and ESP courses start and end.

The aim of ESP teacher is not only to meet the learners' specific needs in the field of particular discipline, but also to provide satisfying learning background (designing course, setting goals and objectives, selecting materials etc) as it mentioned above. (ibid) see "ESP teacher's role in one of many parts". The other aspect of ESP refers to training ESP teachers as El-teyeb (2011) points out, which is not covered as much, he also states that "it appears that non-job-training is

necessary to promote the proficiency of teachers involved in teaching English as a required subject” .

So teachers of ESP – according to Hutchinson and Waters (1992:157) have to "orientate themselves to new environment".

Robinson (1976: 75) states "a serious problem for ESP in many parts of the world lies in the provision of an adequate supply of teacher. In most cases the people teaching and administering ESP programs have themselves received no special training in ESP". So, what about unexperienced teacher?

A teacher that already has experience in teaching English as a second language (ESL) can exploit his\her background in language teaching. His/her teaching skills can be adapted for the teaching of ESP.

Moreover she/he will need to look for content specialists for help in designing appropriate lessons in the subject matter field he/she is teaching (ibid).

Finally one can conclude the role of ESP teacher as follows:

1. Organizing courses.
2. Setting goals and objectives.
3. Creating a learning environment.
4. Evaluating students.

2.10. The Role of ESP Student

The learners come to ESP class with a specific interest for learning subject knowledge and well – built adult learning strategies. They are in charge of developing English language skills to reflect their native language knowledge and skills (Fiorito: 2013).

People learn languages when they have opportunities to understand and work with language in context that they comprehend and find interesting. In this view, ESP is a powerful means for such opportunities.

Students will acquire English as works with materials which they find interesting and relevant and which they can use in their professional work of further studies. More learners pay attention to the meaning of the language they hear or read, the more they are successful.

The ESP student is particularly well disposed to focus on meaning in the subject matter field. In ESP, English should be presented not as a subject to be learned in isolation from the real use, nor as a mechanical skill or habit to be developed. On the contrary, English should be presented in authentic contexts to make the learners acquainted with the particular ways in which the language is used in function that they will need to perform in their fields of specialist or jobs (ibid).

2.11. Approaches to Course Design

A course is the process by which the raw data about learning needs are interpreted to produce a syllabus, write materials, develop teaching methodology and establish evaluation procedures to measure specified goals.

According to Yassin (2013,6) there are three main types of approaches to ESP course design:

2.11.1. Language Centered Course Design

This approach aims to draw a direct connection between the analysis of the target situation and content of the ESP course; learners target situation needs linguistic feature of target situation creating syllabus designing materials establishing evaluation procedures for testing acquisition of syllabus items. Its weakness is that, it neglects the learner's wants/wishes. It is an externally imposed system. Learning by necessity is not systematic. In summary although this approach is logical, learning is not logical process (psychological factors).

2.11.2. Skills – Centered Course Design

It is based on skills/ requires coping in target situation. Identify target situation analyze skills/strategies write syllabus select text and write exercises establish evaluation procedures which require the use of skills/strategies in syllabus.

This approach presents learning objectives in terms of both performance and competence such as:

- General objectives (performance level).
- Specific objectives (competence level).

2.11.3. Learning – Centered Approach for Course Design

The learner – centered approach is based on the principle that learning is totally determined by the learner. Learning is an internal process in which the learner is one factor but not the only one.

The concept of the learning-centered approach was introduced by Hutchinson and Waters (1987). This new perspective contrasts with the previous four approaches, which focus on descriptions of language use (i.e. what students do with the language), addressing instead what they have to do in the classroom to learn the language. The point is that too much emphasis was felt to have been put on the identification of language to be learned and taught in ESP courses and too little on how this language was to be learned and taught. Bowers (1980: 66) observes that syllabuses ‘have been constructed which consider the learner not qua learner but qua user of the target language in defined communicative contexts’. Advocates of the learning-centered approach suggest that ‘a language is best learned when the focus is not on the language, that is, when the learner’s attention is focused on understanding, saying, and doing something with language, and not when their attention is focused explicitly on linguistic features’ (Kumaravadivelu, 2006: 92). Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 14) clearly explain the point: our concern in ESP is

not with language use – although this will help to define the course objectives. Our concern is with language learning. We cannot simply assume that describing and exemplifying what people do with language will enable someone to learn it. If that were so, we would need to do no more than read a grammar book and a dictionary in order to learn a language. A truly valid approach to ESP must be based on an understanding of the processes of language learning.

The learning-centered approach aims to maximize the potential of the learning situation and to look beyond the competence that enables the learner to perform, to discover how the learner acquires that competence. This might involve considering very fully the process of learning, learners' motivation and learning styles (Dudley-

Evans and St John, 1998: 26). As Holliday (1984: 29) puts it, the learning-centered approach is more liberal than traditional approaches to ESP.

According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 74), the learning-centered approach takes the learner fully into account at every stage of the course design process. This has two implications. First, course design in the learning-centered approach is a negotiated process, in which both the ESP learning situation and the target situation influence the nature of the syllabus, materials, and methodology and evaluation procedures. This, in turn, implies that learning is not only a psychological process but also a negotiated one. Second, course design in this approach is a dynamic process where needs and resources vary with time and feedback channels have to be established to see the response to the development of the ESP course.

Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 74) identify a number of stages of the learning-centered course design process. It begins by identifying learners in relation to analyses of both the learning and target situations. The authors point out that the learning situation relates to theoretical views of learning, while the target situation

relates to theoretical views of language. The second stage involves two tasks, the first being an identification of learners' attitudes, their potential needs and wants, and the constraints of the learning and teaching situation; at the same time, there should be an identification of the skills and knowledge required to function in the target situation.

This leads to the stages of writing the syllabus and materials to make use of the learning situation to acquire the skills and knowledge required by the target situation, then evaluating this syllabus, followed by the reiteration of the earlier stages as necessary. Thus it is a dynamic process (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987: 74). What seems to be unique in the learning-centered approach to ESP is that it includes evaluation as an integral part of the course design process (see section 2.6 for more details of course evaluation).

The learning-centered approach seems to imply that the analysis of the learning situation and that of the target situation go hand in hand. That is, they are seen as complementary rather than conflicting. Bloor (1984: 17) asserts that it is desirable to analyze the needs of both the target and learning situations in order to construct an adequate teaching/ learning syllabus. Likewise, McDonough (1984: 31) states that a detailed specification of target and learning needs would be both welcome and necessary.

Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 72) distinguish between the terms 'learning-centered' and 'learner-centered'. They prefer the former because the latter suggests that 'learning is totally determined by the learner' and thus 'a truly learner-centered approach does not really exist'; whereas reference to 'a learning-centered approach' places the learner as one factor in the learning process and suggests that learning is 'a process of negotiation between individuals and society' (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987: 72). This implies that the learning-centered approach is seen as a communicative approach in the sense that 'communicative' means 'making

decisions, appropriate to the educational environment, about whether or not, or how often to have pair or group work, and about the lesson's focus on speaking, reading, writing, grammar, pronunciation, etc., none of which need be precluded in a communicative approach' (Holliday, 1994: 7).

This, in turn, means 'taking into account the needs and expectations of all parties involved in the learning process when designing courses and selecting methodology'

(Hutchinson and Waters, 1984: 108), i.e. 'all the parties that make up the social dynamics of the classroom and the wider social milieu that affects what happens in the classroom (e.g. course directors, institute principals' (Holliday, 1984: 29).

While its negotiated and dynamic nature makes the learning-centered approach a valuable one, it has been criticized as complex and time-consuming (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987: 77), which may have restricted its deployment to some extent.

2.12. Selecting ESP Materials

Choosing ESP materials determined by the course and underlines contents of the lesson .Good material should help teacher in organizing the course or what is more, it functions as an introduction into the new learning techniques, and supports teacher and learners in the process of learning. Materials are also a kind of teacher reflection. Hutchinson and Watters (1992: 107) state: "they should truly reflect what you think and feel about the learning process".

Good materials should be based on various interesting texts and activities providing a wide range of skills. Teacher determines which aspect of ESP learning will be focused on, but a piece of material can serve for developing more than one skill e.g. reading, listening, vocabulary etc.(*ibid*).

Also Graves (1999: 27), states: "teaching materials are tools that can be figuratively cut up into component pieces and then reimaged to suit the needs, abilities, and interests of the students in the course".

Teachers should be aware of the fact, if the material is suitable not only for a particular discipline and answers given course goals, but also for teachers and learners themselves.

According to Hutchinson and Waters (1992), materials should also function as a link between already learnt and new information.

Concerning the selection of General English materials and ESP materials, some criteria must be matched as well. ESP 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: 9-1) suggests these main criteria:

1. Adequacy – should be at the appropriate language age level.
2. Motivation – should present content which is interesting and motivating for students work.
3. Sequence – it is important if there is some relation to previous texts, activities, and topics not miss the sense of a lesson.
4. Diversity – should lead to arrange of classroom activities, be vehicle for teaching specific language structures and vocabulary and promote reading strategies.
5. Acceptability – it should accept different cultural customs or taboos. Selecting an appropriate material regarding the main criteria is an essential phase in organizing each course. It may happen those learners' needs and expectations are not met due to wrong choice of material. Thus

Hutchinson and Watters (1992: 107) state: "materials provide stimulus to learning – good materials do not teach = they encourage learners to learn.

2.13. Approaches to ESP Curriculum Development

ESP has benefited throughout its development from language learning theories as well as general learning and approaches to course design (Richards, 2001). It seems that this has led to certain differences in approaching ESP in both teaching and learning.

Generally, Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 65) identify three major approaches to ESP: language-centered, skills-centered and learning-centered. While the first two approaches aim to base the content of the ESP course on the analysis of target situation, a learning-centered approach goes beyond that, and recognizes the learning situation (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987). These approaches have successively originated from the six-stage of ESP development, which can be identified as follows: (1) Register

Analysis, (2) Rhetorical Discourse Analysis, (3) the Functional-Notional Approach and Communicative Language Teaching, (4) the Skills and Strategies Approach, (5) the Learning-Centered Approach and (6) Genre Analysis (Swales, 1985; Robinson, 1991; Dudley-Evans and St John, 1998; Garcia Mayo, 2000; Flowerdew and Peacock, 2001a; Kim, 2008). These stages reflect the fact that ESP is capable of self-renewal (Flowerdew, 1990: 327) and is a developing field (Robinson, 1989: 427). They are discussed below in approximately chronological order as suggested by McDonough (1998a: 157-158). For reasons of space, only a brief review of each stage is presented.

2.13.1. Register Analysis

Robinson (1991: 20) observes that ‘register has been a fruitful term in the field of stylistics, but also the basis of research in ESP’. The term has been defined variously by different linguists. For example, Halliday (1978: 23) defines register as ‘the set of meanings, the configuration of semantic patterns that are typically

drawn upon under specific conditions, along with the words and structures that are used in the realization of these meanings'. Mackay (1981) views register as a norm of language use or field of discourse, which is essential to a discussion of style. Halliday and Hasan (1985: 38) divide register into three components: field, tenor and mode of discourse. According to William (1984: 315), the field is concerned with the ongoing social activity of a text, the tenor denotes the social relationships between participants and the mode signifies the medium of communication (e.g. spoken or written) and the channel.

These three components, taken together, determine the register (Halliday, 1978: 31). In that sense, register may include a wide variety of fields, which would range from the language of minor documents like receipts, vouchers or greeting cards to more highly specialized fields like medicine and technology. Halliday adds the transactional registers such as those used when selling and buying in markets, shops, etc. and the register of doctor-patient or doctor-nurse communication. This implies that certain registers are associated with particular occupations.

In the first stages of ESP development, the benefit of register seemed to be in identifying some linguistic features by which certain teaching areas are marked. Since then, register has often enabled ESP researchers and investigators to identify different areas of interests in teaching English to different learners and for different purposes, as well as identifying, although at a later stage of research within register and ESP, the discorsal community for these areas. Richards (2001: 30) explains that 'register analysis studies the language of such fields as journalism, medicine, or law for distinctive patterns of occurrence of vocabulary, verb forms, noun phrases and tense usage'. Register analysis is often used in ESP in combination with frequency studies to identify the linguistic features needed for students on an ESP course (e.g. Barber 1962; Ewer and Latorre, 1969; Ewer and Hughes-Davies, 1971; 1972). According to

Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 10), the main goal of register analysis is to produce a syllabus focused on the language forms that learners would commonly meet in their study and working lives, rather than those that they would not meet. Robinson (1991: 20) states that the identification of certain linguistic features of a specific domain or field has led some others to claim that ‘a special language’ will arise when users in a particular domain use English in a particular way, so that bankers, for example, can be said to use ‘Banking English’. Sager et al. (1980: 69) offer a narrower definition of special languages as ‘semi-autonomous, complex semiotic systems based on and derived from general language [whose] use presupposes special education and is restricted to communication among specialists in the same or closely related fields’. This means that English as a special language is based on GE and requires specialized training. What might be understood from this definition is that in an ESP context, register reflects the view that ESP implies a special language rather than a specific purpose on the part of the learner. For example, in the ESP situation of the current study, register would imply the use of a special lexis for healthcare and medical purposes, as well as special structures that suit the contexts of the healthcare environment, whether in learning or at work. De Beaugrande (1989: 6) asserts that language for specific purposes does not fulfil the requirements for a language in the usual sense, as it is not ‘composed exclusively for its own recourses’. Voracek (1987: 53) argues that the term ‘special language’ is inaccurate, while Lauren and Nordman (1986: 20) suggest that ‘technolect’ would be more useful and accurate. However, this term, whose suffix ‘-lect’, as in ‘dialect’, means ‘a form of a language’ and which therefore signifies ‘a special form of a language’, appears to be uncommon among scholars.

The problem with register analysis and frequency studies is that they ‘cannot be used as a main basis for selection’ of syllabus items (Coffey, 1984: 4). That is, register analysis is insubstantial as a basis for selecting the content of an ESP

syllabus, in the sense that it is often difficult to establish what distinguishes a language register. Register also describes a language rather than explains it, so it has more to do with quantified linguistic features and forms, rather than function or use (Swales, 1985; Hutchinson and Waters, 1987; Robinson, 1991; Bhatia, 1993; Flowerdew and Peacock, 2001a).

Kennedy and Bolitho (1984: 9) add that although these studies are useful in teaching a basic grammatical code of science, they do not indicate to the learner when s/he should use the forms and what they mean as acts of communication. Widdowson (1979) strongly criticizes the tendency to provide lists of the special language of science, arguing that the pedagogic application of the results of register analysis studies has led to the teaching of 'usage' as opposed to 'use'. Usage, as Widdowson (1979: 8) explains, is the exemplification of linguistic rules, where language is seen as isolated grammatical items, while use is the manner in which these rules are drawn upon to perform social acts or the ability to do so. Mackay and Palmer (1981) maintain that most studies of register analysis avoid the social functions of language by labelling texts in general ways, without showing what detailed purposes they exist for. This implies that rather than considering lexical items and structures alone, it is important to focus on the purpose of learning, that is, helping learners to attain the communicative ability and knowledge required in their fields of study and/or work. ESP mainly rests on the premise that we use language to achieve purposes as well as to engage with others as members of social groups (Hyland, 2002: 392). These criticisms of register analysis led to the second key movement in ESP, discourse or rhetorical analysis (Dudley-Evans and St John, 1998: 22).

2.13.2. Rhetorical and Discourse Analysis

Rhetorical and discourse analysis, which was the second stage of ESP development, emerged as a reaction to the earlier focus on register analysis, with the aim of giving a better account of language use by extending the analysis beyond the sentence boundary (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987; Benesch, 2001). That is, the new approach emerged to address some weaknesses of the old one. Richards (2001: 31) observes that ‘register analysis focused primarily at the level of the word and sentence and sought to identify the registers that characterized different uses of language, such as business letters, academic textbooks, and technical writing’. This means that the approach did not identify the linguistic structure of longer samples of written or spoken text; the rhetorical and discourse analysis approach was introduced in the 1970s in order to do just that (Richards, 2001). An example of early research in this area is that of Lackstrom and his colleagues (1973); for a thorough discussion of this research, see Trimble (1985). Discourse analysis is a means to study texts in relation to the particular social context in which they are used (Hyland, 2009: 20). For example, as Johns and Dudley-Evans (1991: 299) observe, discourse analysis in ESP ‘refers to the examination of written and oral language, generally for purposes of designing curricular materials’. This approach assumes that the importance lies not in the relative frequencies of use of features, as was assumed in register analysis, but the choice of certain features rather than others in developing a text (Robinson, 1991). This means that the primary focus is on the text, whether written (e.g. reports, instructions, letters) or spoken (e.g. conversation, lecture, dialogue), rather than the sentence. Therefore, the introduction of discourse analysis changed the focus from sentence structure to identifying and understanding how sentences were combined to produce meaning at a discourse level (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987).

This marks a movement from usage to use, form to function and grammar to discourse and communication (Bhatia, 1993). The movement may have been stimulated by the notion that ‘teaching English as a medium for science and technology must involve us in the teaching of how scientists and technologists use the system of the language to communicate, and not just what linguistic elements are most commonly used’ (Widdowson, 1979: 13). The assumption is that many ESP learners will already have a grammatical knowledge of the language and they are unlikely to welcome a repetition of instruction in it. What they need instead is an opportunity to use this knowledge to ‘communicate with people and to cause things to be done, to describe and explain events, to qualify and hypothesis’ (Kennedy and Bolitho, 1984: 3). The implication for ESP course designers is that the communicative needs of learners need to be taken into account when designing ESP courses. Johns and Dudley-Evans (1991: 297) argue that discourse analysis is a distinguishing feature of ESP development that sets it apart from GE. Kennedy and Bolitho (1984),

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) and Richards (2001) see discourse analysis as a development which had a profound influence on ESP. It was a logical development of the functional-notional (F-N) approach to language, which suggests that there is more to meaning than just words in the sentences (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987: 33). In other words, it suggests that there are other important factors that affect the meaning of the discourse, such as the context of the sentence (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987).

This view introduced the idea of relating language form to language use and made use the main criterion for the selection of ESP teaching materials (Dudley-Evans and St John, 1998: 22). Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 34) identify two ways in which the findings of discourse analysis studies have been used in ESP teaching materials. The first is that ‘learners are made aware of the stages in certain set-

piece transactions associated with particular specialist's fields'. That is, the transaction of a particular discourse develops sequentially, one stage upon the other. One example of this kind that Hutchinson and Waters present is the analysis of doctor-patient communication by Candlin et al. (1976). Using materials that explain how meaning is created by the relative positions of the sentences in a written text is the second use of discourse analysis in ESP. Allen and Widdowson (1978: 59) argue that this approach has become an important feature in many ESP textbooks, which seek to develop a knowledge of how sentences are combined in texts to produce real meaning. This seems to be an attempt to meet the needs of ESP learners and to help them to perform specific functions (e.g. defining, classifying, comparing, identifying) in particular communicative contexts.

This approach has been criticized on the grounds that while it represents the real nature of discourse, in that it establishes the functional patterns, it does not consider how these patterns create meaning (Coulthard, 1977: 147). Teaching learners sentences with particular structural properties or making them aware of the functional patterns in a given discourse does not necessarily mean that they will be able to use these patterns in communication (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987: 37).

2.13.3. The Functional, Notional Approach and Communicative Language Teaching

The F-N approach to ESP syllabus design and language teaching first emerged in the 1970s as a reaction to the limitations of the structural approach (Armstrong, 2005: 12), mainly to provide learners with an understanding of the communicative use of the structures they had learned (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987: 26). The structural approach, according to Richards and Rodgers (1986: 17), suggests that 'language is a system of structurally related elements for the coding of meaning. The target of language learning is seen to be the mastery of elements of this

system'. These elements include phonological units (e.g. phonemes), grammatical units (e.g. clauses, sentences), grammatical operations (e.g. adding, joining) and lexical items (structure words and function words) (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 17). In this approach, the syllabus does not address communicative skills, but focuses on the sentence rather than on longer units of discourse and on form rather than meaning (Richards, 2001: 153). These are some of the limitations of the structural approach which are criticized by advocates of the F-N approach (e.g. Widdowson, 1979).

Krahnke (1987: 30) notes that in the F-N approach the categories of language use are taken as the organizing principles of instruction. The approach is based on the assumption that learners are learning the language to some practical end (West, 1992: 2); therefore, the syllabus is usually categorized into units based on specific topics drawn from specific situations for the purpose of achieving specific objectives. It is the sensitivity to learners' needs which is the main characteristic of the F-N approach to language teaching (Finocchiaro and Brumfit, 1983: 9). In the early 1970s, as Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 31) and Richards (2001: 36) contend, the functional approach began to influence language teaching, as a result of the Council of Europe attempting to seek means of teaching European languages effectively, 'particularly with the needs of adult learners in mind' (McDonough and Shaw, 1993: 21). In other words, the Council of Europe attempted to find a simplified way of presenting syllabuses for learning languages and avoiding the focus on certain formal features of some European languages which were difficult for their learners. That is, there was a need to move away from teaching language as a grammatical system to teaching it for communicative purposes.

The development of the F-N approach was combined with Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) (Krahnke, 1987: 29). According to Savignon (1991: 263), CLT covers 'methods and curricula that embrace both the goals and the

processes of classroom learning, for teaching practice that views competence in terms of social interaction'. This means that teaching language in CLT is based on inventories which can be arrived at by considering presumed communicative needs. This way of teaching stems from a theory of language as a communicative tool (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 68). Littlewood (1981: 93) maintains that one of the most characteristic features of CLT is that it gives more systematic attention to functional as well as structural aspects of language. Armstrong (2005: 13) explains that in this approach, 'while the teaching of structures, vocabulary and pronunciation are not neglected, learners are generally given the opportunity to communicate in speech and writing, with an emphasis on fluency and the primacy of communication'. Larsen-Freeman (1986: 132) identifies the most distinctive techniques of CLT as students working in pairs or groups, role plays and problem-solving tasks. Howatt (1984: 279) adds that in CLT there is an emphasis on acquiring language through communication and not only 'activating an existing but inert knowledge of the language, but [...] stimulating the development of the language system itself'. This means that the language is used to be learned. Swales (2000: 61) points out that ESP has good connections with CLT. Some ESP scholars tend to believe that CLT best satisfies the requirements of ESP and prepares learners for the use of English in real life. For example, Widdowson (1979: 252) observes that 'in ESP a communicative approach seems to be the obvious one to adopt because even the most elementary assessment of needs reveals that learners will have to put the language to actual use outside the language teaching context'. This approach was investigated in the current study to see whether HSC English language teachers used it or not. The F-N approach is not also without limitations. Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 32) argue that its main problem is that it was adopted as a replacement for the structural approach and not particularly taken as a syllabus itself. The two approaches are seen as being in

opposition (McDonough, 1984: 55), when they should complement and support each other, since structure + context = function (Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 32). Kennedy and Bolitho (1984: 10) and Richards and Rodgers (1986: 74) criticize the F-N approach as merely replacing lists of grammatical items with lists of notions and functions, making it only a specification of products rather than a way of teaching communicative processes.

2.13.4. Genre Analysis

Swales (2004: 3), points out that ‘the first use of the term genre in ESP only occurred in 1981’. According to Paltridge (2001: 2), it was first introduced in an ESP Journal article by Tarone and her associates on the language of scientific research reports and in Swales (1981).

In one definition,¹ Swales (1990: 58) states that ‘a genre comprises a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes. These purposes are recognized by the expert members of the parent discourse community, and thereby constitute the rationale for the genre’. Swales (2004: 61) himself admits that he is ‘less sanguine about the value and viability of such definitional depictions’. Based on Swales’ definitions and others, Bhatia (1993: 13) offers a comprehensive definition of genre: It is a recognizable communicative event characterized by a set of communicative purpose(s) identified and mutually understood by the members of the professional or academic community in which it regularly occurs. Most often, it is highly structured and conventionalized constraints on allowable contributions in terms of their intent, positioning, form and functional value. These constraints, however, are often exploited by the expert members of the discourse community to achieve private intentions within the framework of socially recognized purpose(s). A number of differences can in fact be observed between the above definitions. For

example, Swales seems to focus on linguistic and sociological aspects of genre, whereas Bhatia's definition also considers the psychological aspect.

1 It is to be noted that there is no absolute consensus concerning the definition of genre (see Swales 1990; Robinson, 1991; Johns, 1993; Hammond and Derewianka, 2001). Hyon (1996: 695) observes that 'researchers in ESP have been interested in genre as a tool for analyzing and teaching the spoken and written language required of nonnative speakers in academic and professional settings'. This is known as genre analysis (Swales, 1981, 1990; Bhatia, 1993; Berkenkotter and Huckin, 1995; Benesch, 2001; Basturkmen, 2002; Johns, 2002; Hyland, 2006). According to Bhatia (1997: 313), genre analysis: is generally, understood to represent the study of linguistic behavior in institutionalized academic and professional settings. Instead of offering a linguistic description of language use, it tends to offer linguistic explanation, attempting to answer the question, why do members of specific professional communities use the language the way they do?

The scope of ESP has broadened and become 'thicker', to include genres of writing, speech and perhaps interaction which ESP learners will use in their academic and/or professional discourse communities. As Swales (2004: 1) explains, 'there has been a continuing and accelerating interest in centralizing the concept of genre in specialized language teaching and in the development of professional communication skills'. Research into genres in ESP may 'include discussions with insider members of the community to identify which genres are highly significant for the group, the communicative purposes of these genres, and expectations held for them' (Basturkmen, 2006: 56). This type of research can give insight into the ways of thinking of those in the target communities and offer linguistic, social and cognitive information. Hyon (1996: 694) identifies three different approaches to genre analysis or what he calls research traditions. The first is ESP Analysis, which primarily comprises Swales' (1981, 1990) and Bhatia's

(1993) works on genre. The second is the North American New Rhetoric studies, whose exponents include Bazerman (1988), and Berkenkotter and Huckin (1995). The third is the Australian Genre Theories, represented by the work of systemic functional linguists such as Martin (1989), Cope and Kalantzis (1993) and Halliday and Martin (1993). Belcher (2006: 141) maintains that these three traditions 'have been instrumental in moving ESP toward a more socio rhetorical view of genre'. Hammond and Derewianka (2001: 186) add that 'they serve to highlight the similarities and differences of how the notion of genre has been adopted as a theoretical construct as a basis for practical teaching strategies'. For thorough discussions of these traditions, see Yunick (1997) and Hammond and Derewianka (2001).

Robinson (1991: 27) observes that 'genre analysis is an exciting and fruitful development within ESP'. This seems to be true, since genre analysis research in both professional and academic contexts is rapidly developing (e.g. Bhatia, 1993; Hafner, 1999; Paltridge, 2001; Samraj; 2002). Ford-Sumner (2006: 8) notes that genre analysis has increasingly been applied within the healthcare field, as it relates to medical practice and education. There have been many studies that focus on analyzing genre in different healthcare contexts (e.g. Shi et al., 2001; Eggly, 2002; Hussin, 2002). This means that genre analysis can be helpful in identifying the nature of the written and spoken language associated with the healthcare field as well as its cultural, social and contextual features. It can help in understanding how professionals in the field speak and write appropriately. The problem with genre analysis is that it is mainly descriptive and usually ignores important issues that impact on students' language learning, such as their learning needs, attitudes and interests. Dudley-Evans (1997: 62) also argues that the use of genre analysis in ESP classrooms can hinder the development of students' individual voices. Moreover, West (1997: 37) maintains that there has been a disappointing lack of

application of genre analysis research to pedagogy. This suggests that some findings of genre analysis do not always seem to properly inform course designers or promote the choice of appropriate teaching materials. There remains the question of how easily the findings of genre analysis research can be translated into pedagogy.

2.14. Skills and Strategies of ESP

While the above approaches all focus on the surface structures of the language, the skills-strategies approach is concerned with the mental processes that underpin language use. According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 13), the basis of this approach is that: underlying all language use there are common reasoning and interpreting processes, which, regardless of the surface forms, enable us to extract meaning from discourse. There is, therefore, no need to focus closely on the surface forms of the language. The focus should rather be on the underlying interpretative strategies, which enable the learner to cope with the surface forms.

That is, successful language learning and teaching depend not only on the analysis of the nature of the language but also on understanding the psychological processes involved in comprehending and producing it. Researchers have long paid attention to the psychological processes involved in comprehension and production. Within ESP, for example, Widdowson (1978) discusses the interpretative strategies used by both the reader and listener to discover the meaning of unknown words (e.g. guessing their meaning from the context in which they are presented, analyzing their meaningful parts). Recently, there has been an increase in research into these strategies (e.g. Schmitt and McCarthy, 1997; Schmitt, 2000; Laufer, and Yano, 2001; Alfehaid,

2006). the skills-strategies approach to course design is related to projects in ESP to develop certain abilities, skills and strategies in students (e.g. works on reading skills include those of Grellet, 1981; Nuttall, 1982; Alderson and Urquhart, 1984).

It usually aims to help learners in developing their skills and strategies not only during the ESP course but after it. The purpose is not to identify a special corpus of linguistic knowledge, but to make learners better processors of information, based on the belief that people learn by thinking about and attempting to make sense of what they see, feel and hear (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987: 43). Kim (2008: 8) observes that 'learning is a process of relating new events or items to existing concepts in a meaningful way through the senses'. In a skills syllabus, as Johnson (1996: 164) maintains, language behavior is divided into skills, as in general areas of reading, writing, listening and speaking, then into sub-skills or micro-skills, as when reading (which can be described as a macro-skill) is broken down into reading for information, skimming and scanning. It is suggested that underlying the skills syllabus is Widdowson's (1981: 2) distinction between the 'goal-oriented' approaches to course design (i.e. based on a description of terminal behavior: focusing on the ends of learning) and the 'process-oriented' approach (i.e. based on transitional behavior: focusing on the means of learning). The F-N syllabus and the structural or grammatical syllabus tend to focus on the end products or results of the learning/teaching process, while the skills syllabus tends to focus on how language is learned and used (Nunan, 1988a: 40).

The skills-centered approach, as synonymous with the process-oriented approach (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987: 69), is realistic in focusing on strategies and processes which enable learners to be aware of their abilities, motivating them to approach target texts on their own after their course (Holmes, 1982: 8). It enables learners to activate some skills and strategies which they are expected to apply in using the language (Widdowson, 1981: 5). This seems to be an effective way of learning the language, since it sees learners as users of language rather than as mere learners (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987: 70). It focuses on behavior or performance in relation to specific activities and tasks (Richards, 2001: 161),

making it suitable as a framework for designing related syllabuses and materials, which in turn is more likely to produce a course related to learners' needs.

The skills-centered course design can be seen to be linked with needs analysis within ESP (Benesch, 2001; Hyland, 2006). That is, through NA, course designers can identify priorities from among the four main language skills for a particular situation. Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 70) point out that NA provides a basis to discover the underlying competence that enables people to perform in target situations.

Traditionally, the skill-centered approach has been criticized for not focusing on developing more integrated and global communicative abilities, because it is concerned only with discrete aspects of performance (Richards, 2001: 161). This implies that breaking language into distinctive skills might make learning ineffective and that language needs to be learned as a whole rather than in separate categories, since the four language skills do not generally occur in isolation in real-life situations.

However, the recent trend in designing language courses has been towards integrating the four language skills (Brown H, 2001: 232). Skills integration is usually manifested in the adoption of the modern 'whole language' approach to language curriculum design, whereby reading, for example, is treated as one of three interrelated skills (ibid). According to Oxford (2001: 5), one important advantage of the integrated-skill approach is that English language learners are challenged to interact naturally in the language, since they are exposed to authentic language; therefore they can gain a true picture of the richness and complexity of English as employed for communication.

McDonough (1998b: 323) points out that 'in the field of ESP, there is a natural link between the principle of integrated skills teaching and the notion of the "target situation", for the obvious reason that a learner's eventual goal is a real-world

professional or academic context'. The suggestion is that ESP students can be introduced to and trained in tasks similar to real-life ones, i.e. 'employing the same skills and strategies as would be required in the target situation' (West, 1997: 34), such as doctor-nurse dialogue for medical purposes.

One of the most common ways to approach the integration of the four skills is task based language teaching (Brown H., 2001: 242). This approach makes use of tasks (e.g. following directions, giving instructions) as the basic units of planning and instruction in SL teaching (Richards, 2001: 161). That is, tasks drive language classroom activities, define syllabuses and determine assessment procedures. In this study, a task is generally 'an activity or goal that is carried out using language' (ibid).

To explain this, 'tasks are activities which have meaning as their primary focus.

Success in tasks is evaluated in terms of achievement of an outcome, and tasks generally bear some resemblance to real-life language use' (Skehan, 1996: 20). It is argued that the task-based approach to ESP represents a viable response to the study and work-related needs of students. Indeed, many modern NAs in ESP increasingly use tasks as the focus of investigation (Basturkmen, 2010: 144), based on the argument that 'learners are far more active and cognitively-independent participants in the acquisition process than is assumed by the erroneous belief that what you teach is what they learn, and when you teach it is when they learn it' (Long, 2005b: 3).

According to Long and Crookes (1992: 44), the design of task-based syllabuses for ESP needs to include the identification of target tasks, breaking these tasks down into task types and deriving pedagogical tasks from these task types. The implication is that task-based approaches to ESP create conditions for learners to communicate through interaction in the target language, introduce authentic texts to learning situations, and enhance learners' own personal experience and link

classroom language learning with language activation outside the classroom (Nunan, 1991: 279). Still, while task-based instruction considers students primarily as users rather than learners of language, the assumption is that ‘a truly valid approach to ESP must be based on an understanding of the processes of language learning’ (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987: 14), an approach which is discussed below.

2.15. Developments and Current Status of ESP

The above review of approaches to ESP development may lead one to recognize the lack of fairly recent literature in this field. Despite this, the review shows that ESP has undoubtedly benefited from the various approaches described above, such as register analysis, discourse analysis and genre analysis. Unlike the first days of ESP when one or two of these approaches dominated the field, there is currently an ‘acceptance of many different approaches and a willingness to mix different types of materials and methodologies’ (Dudley-Evans and St John, 1998: 30). However, while ‘it is better seen as a recently-evolved species that best thrives in certain secluded and restricted kinds of habitat’ (Swales, 1985: 208), ESP can be seen from a different viewpoint.

Widdowson (1998: 3) argues that the term ‘English for Specific Purposes’ assumes that it is English which is somehow ‘peculiar to the range of principles and procedures’ which determine that particular profession and so we have ‘English which is specific, associated with a kind of institutional activity which is also conceived of as specific’. He questions the nature of this specificity and concludes that ESP ‘is what communication in English in general is all about’. Communication, he asserts, is closely related to community and culture. That is, if people do not share a common view, a common culture and the linguistic categorization that goes with it, ‘then communication will prove difficult’ (Ibid: 6). In presenting some examples of texts, Widdowson explains that when a text fails to

textualize a discorsal relationship (although its syntax and semantics are clear), there will be no convergence on shared knowledge, no common frame of reference. That is, 'there is cohesion without coherence' and what causes the problem is 'a disparity in perceptions of the world' (Ibid: 5-6). Therefore, one cannot make sense of a particular text unless one is provided with a frame of reference and is familiar with the relevant discourse. In other words, understanding the syntactic structure of a text does not necessarily mean comprehending it as a discorsal process.

The main conclusion is that knowing the language is not always enough to communicate. As Young (2009: 145) points out, 'use of language is only one way in which individuals create a community'. The emphasis here is on the 'discourse community' of communication in ESP cases. In this context, Widdowson (1998: 7) observes that 'communication implies community and membership is mediated with the meaning of the text'. It is not enough to know the semantic meanings of the words, because 'words are schematically connected to form the conceptualizations of reality which define the culture of a particular discourse community'. This means that being acquainted with the aspects of the culture of a particular discourse community is of considerable importance in communicating within it.

The implication here is that attending to ESP teaching needs not only develops students' language ability but also introduces them to the culture of their discourse community. This means that when investigating ESP students' needs, it is important to 'perceive the target situation and the learning situation as aspects of the same continuum identifiable as social action or communicative exchange'; therefore, 'a course objective should not be to separate the student from the language they have to learn, or the language from its circumstance of use, or the act of acquisition from the act of use' (Holme, 1997: 4). Basturkmen (2002: 31-33)

identifies some areas of inquiry that ESP researchers should address in order to work towards the development of ESP. These uninvestigated areas include the role language plays in workplace, academic and professional environments (How does ESP teaching present the roles of language in these specific environments? How do people communicate in these environments?), the nature of competency in ESP (How can competency in ESP be defined? What are its constituents? How is language competency viewed in workplace, academic and professional environments and how does an individual's language competency impinge on progress in them? What makes someone a communicatively competent doctor, nurse, etc.? How are language needs defined?), the nature of ESP learning (What is the role of ESP learner motivation? What special characteristics does the learner need to have to be successful in learning? What conditions may lead to greater or less success for the ESP learner?) and the function of ESP teaching (What are the mission statements, aims and objectives of ESP teaching projects and courses? What is the function of the ESP teacher? What qualities and knowledge does the teacher need? What roles does the teacher play in the ESP classroom?). The current study is inspired by questions such as these.

As Basturkmen (2002: 29) argues, it is in exploring these areas that some fundamental aspects of ESP can be established. Otherwise, ESP is only partially explained and may continue to focus on practice rather than theory. It follows that investigating these areas may lead to a broad theoretical basis for ESP. This underlying theory could be based either on the specific nature of the texts that learners need knowledge of, or on the needs-related nature of teaching (Dudley-Evans and St John, 1998: 1). It may be concluded that the literature has focused mainly on practical issues of ESP and on relating course and materials design to learners' needs. These issues are discussed in the following sections.

2.16. ESP Curriculum Development Processes

According to Richards (2001: 2), the history of language curriculum development starts with the concept of syllabus design, which is considered as one aspect of it. Syllabus design is the process of developing a syllabus and normally focuses on the selection and organization of the content of a particular course (White et al., 1991; Richards, 2001). It is suggested that the process of ESP curriculum development is more comprehensive than that of syllabus design. For the purpose of the current study, curriculum development refers to ‘the processes that are used to determine the needs of a group of learners, to develop aims and objectives for a program to address those needs, to determine appropriate syllabus, course structure, teaching methods, and materials, and to carry out an evaluation of the language program that results from these processes’ (Richards (2001: 2). This definition implies that the process of developing an ESP curriculum is composed of different interrelated stages or components. It follows that there should be an organized way of covering these components. Various models of language curriculum development have been suggested by a number of curriculum design experts (e.g. Brown, 1989; White et al., 1991; Graves, 1996a; Richards, 2001; Nation and Macalister, 2010). While these models generally vary in their emphasis and major components, they have a notable commonality, namely that the curriculum development process is an ongoing cycle. Given the time and resource constraints, the current study makes use of Brown’s curriculum development model (1989: 235) because of its flexibility and simplicity. According to this model, the curriculum development process has six components: needs analysis, objectives, testing, materials, teaching and evaluation of the curriculum being developed, as depicted in Figure 2.1. Figure 2.1: Brown’s Language Curriculum Development Model (Brown, 1989: 235)

Brown (1989: 236) describes his model as a systematic approach to designing and maintaining a language curriculum. This means that it can be adopted for the maintenance of an existing language course such as the ESP course under study. Course curriculum development in this model is seen as a process which may change and adapt to new conditions and requirements. These conditions might be, for instance, changes in needs and attitudes, in environment or resources. Figure 2.1 above suggests that the six components constitute a closely integrated and interrelated process. The implication is that a change in one component will tend to affect the other components and the whole process. Figure 2.1 also shows, as Brown (1989: 236) notes, that curriculum evaluation is a central component that connects all of the components and holds them together. That is, each component is evaluated to provide a continuing process of curriculum development. While it does not necessarily occur as a series of steps in a fixed order, this process normally starts by conducting an NA as a key step (see section 2.5.3 for details of NA). Each of the other components is arranged according to the information and insights obtained from the NA. Therefore, goals and objectives are formulated according to the learners' needs. The third component is developing appropriate assessment procedures, which should be based on the goals and objectives. Next, the information obtained from the NA, the goals and objectives and the assessment are used in the selection and development of appropriate materials and instruction. The last component is the ongoing evaluation of the earlier components and of the course as a whole in terms of their appropriateness and effectiveness (see section 2.6 for details of evaluation). In sum, following a systematic approach to curriculum development such as the one shown above ensures a direct link between needs, course objectives, materials, assessment and instruction. It may be concluded that the logical first step in developing an ESP curriculum is to identify the specific needs of learners, as addressed in the following section.

2.17. ESP Course Evaluation

Before presenting the major theoretical approaches to language course evaluation, this section discusses differing views on defining course evaluation and relating it to research in general. It is hoped that this discussion and the review of evaluation approaches will inform the researcher's choice of the appropriate evaluation design and methodology, helping to develop an ESP course evaluation framework for the current study.

2.17.1. Defining Course Evaluation

To begin with, there is a need to differentiate between 'assessment' and 'evaluation' in the language of course evaluation and research. On the face of it, these two terms seem to be close in meaning and they have been frequently used interchangeably in the field, although in fact they have distinct meanings. For instance, Popham (1975: 8) points out that evaluation 'consists of a formal assessment of the "worth" of educational phenomena'. Formal assessment suggests the use of only quantitative measurements (such as tests) (Lynch, 2003: 5), which, in state-of-the-art course evaluation practice, constitute only one means of information collection. According to Streiff (1970: 365), measurement 'should be used to refer to quantitative descriptions of behavior, things or events; while evaluation has a broader scope, which includes measurement'. That is to say, the use of tests in evaluation studies is probable and often preferable but not necessarily inevitable. Bachman (1990: 24) agrees that 'not all evaluation involves either measurement or tests'.

In educational contexts, assessment is associated with students' language achievement and test performance (Lynch, 2003: 11). Nunan (1990: 27) notes that 'in language teaching, assessment refers to the processes for determining a learners' [sic] proficiency'. We assess the product of a language course or its

students' gains by means of tests. However, as Guba and Lincoln (1981: 2) put it, tests can tell 'something about individuals but nothing about the programs and curricula by which these persons were taught'. Evaluation, on the other hand, is a broader concept which may include assessment. According to White et al. (1991: 176), evaluation is concerned with 'collecting evidence on and making judgments about a curriculum as a whole, including planning, design and implementing it'. Evaluation plays a role in 'deciding whether a course needs to be modified or altered in any way so that objectives may be achieved more effectively. If certain learners are not achieving the goals and objectives set for a course, it is necessary to determine why this is so' (Nunan, 1988b: 118). This means that course evaluation looks not only into the effectiveness of the course, i.e. the extent of students' improvement in language ability (Fink, 1995: 2), or its 'worth' (Worthen and Sanders, 1973: 19), but also into the appropriateness of its content to its objectives as well as into the adequacy of its learning and teaching activities. Dudley-Evans and St John (1998: 129) add that 'evaluation will also show weaknesses or features that were just not suitable for the particular group of learners'. Therefore, course evaluation as an integral part of its development can be an effective tool to help identify the problem areas and shortcomings, if any.

Lynch (1996: 2) defines evaluation as 'the systematic attempt to gather information to make judgments or decisions. As such, evaluative information can be both qualitative and quantitative in form'. This definition seems too broad, however. Brown (1995: 218) defines course evaluation more precisely and concisely as 'the systematic collection and analysis of all relevant information necessary to promote the improvement of a curriculum and assess its effectiveness within the context of the particular institutions involved'. A weakness of this definition is that it says nothing about those performing the evaluation and their audience. The assumption is that a comprehensive definition of course evaluation needs to take into

consideration the following peculiarities: (a) types of information needed, (b) planned techniques for information collection and analysis, (c) potential purposes of evaluation, (d) specifications of evaluation context and (e) conductors and audiences of evaluation.

One is given to understand that the investigation of the effectiveness of a course necessitates a product-oriented evaluation and the collection of both quantitative and qualitative data, whereas an investigation of its appropriateness calls for a process oriented evaluation and quantitative/qualitative data collection. The appropriacy of a course is of overriding importance, especially in ESP, where the course is mainly about learners' needs and their fulfillment. When its content and methodology are appropriate to its stated objectives, which are supposed to be based on the stakeholders' needs, the whole course is said to be appropriate.

2.17.2. Course Evaluation and Research

Some researchers hesitate to consider course evaluation as research. For example, in distinguishing between evaluation and research, Glass and Worthen (1971: 150) define research as 'the activity aimed at obtaining generalizable knowledge by contriving and testing claims about relationships among variables or describing generalizable phenomena'. They argue that the external validity of course evaluation is not guaranteed. In other words, if 'all evaluation studies are case studies' (Stake, 1995: 95), one cannot generalize from their results. In arguing against the view of Glass and Worthen, Mackay et al. (1995: 315) point out that external validity is not a relevant criterion in program evaluation, since the objective is not to arrive at generalizations applicable to other more or less similar programs in other contexts, but to provide information about the operations of a particular programme which will allow its personnel to make informed decisions about change and improvement.

Nunan (1992) believes that external validity can be ignored in course evaluation, provided that internal validity and reliability are maintained. He advocates the thesis of ‘continuity’ between research and evaluation and concludes that course evaluation is research because it has the necessary characteristics, including research questions, data collection and data analysis. Thus, he accepts that ‘evaluations, even of a single programme, are, in fact, research’ (Nunan, 1992: 193)

2.17.3. Approaches to Course Evaluation

Approaches to language course evaluation are the preliminary theoretical plans or schemes upon which evaluation studies are based. According to Kiely and Rea-Dickins (2005: 59), language course evaluation ‘has been influenced by the trends in general education evaluation’. A dichotomy classification of the approaches to language course evaluation is presented below.

2.17.3.1. Experimental Vs. Naturalistic

To begin with, stemming from the so-called ‘research paradigms war’, there is a dichotomy between experimental and naturalistic evaluation designs (Lynch 1996; Oakley, 2000). While the former is concerned with the products of the course and employs quantitative methods, the latter focuses on the process and uses qualitative methods (Brown, 1989: 224). Brown (1989: 226) observes that ‘a notable shift to process-oriented approaches began with the realization that meeting program goals and objectives was indeed important but that evaluation procedures could also be utilized to facilitate curriculum change and improvement’. This suggests that the two approaches are complementary.

2.17.3.2. Formative Vs. Summative

Language course evaluation can also be formative or summative (Robinson, 1991; Mackay, 1994; Dudley-Evans and St John, 1998; Flowerdew and Peacock, 2001b; Genesee, 2001; Richards, 2001). According to Richards (2001: 288), formative evaluation, on the one hand, is conducted ‘to find out what is working well, and what is not, and what problems need to be addressed’, with the purpose of improving and developing the delivery of the course. ESP practitioners are likely to be concerned with this type of ongoing evaluation (Dudley-Evans and St John, 1998: 129). Summative evaluation, on the other hand, ‘is concerned with determining the effectiveness of a program, its efficiency, and to some extent with its acceptability. It takes place after a program has been implemented’ (Richards, 2001: 292). According to Jordan (1997: 85), Dudley-Evans and St John (1998: 128) and Richards (2001: 296-297), both types of evaluation can be either qualitative, i.e. depending more on subjective judgment (e.g. interviews, observation) or quantitative, i.e. numerically expressed (e.g. questionnaires, test results). Jordan (1997: 37) points out that final evaluation or feedback in the form of questionnaires is a useful method of collecting data for needs analysis. It can be helpful in identifying the main features of the course that were liked and disliked, and this may provide some suggestions for improving the next course (Jordan, 1997).

Rea-Dickins and Germaine (1992: 26) affirm that formative evaluations ‘are ongoing and monitor developments by identifying the strengths and weaknesses of all aspects of teaching and learning’. However, Lynch (2003: 10) maintains that in reality ‘most evaluations represent a combination of formative and summative. If we are interested in judging the ultimate worth of a programme, we are usually open to explanations of why it is or is not working, and recommendations for improvement’. This implies that the two types of evaluation are seen as

complementary rather than contradictory. Scriven (1997: 498) points out that ‘formative evaluation, to a large extent, is best designed as summative evaluation rather than a holistic account’. Bennett (2003: 57) calls such a design of course evaluation ‘a multi-method approach which contains both formative and summative dimensions, which draws on a range of research strategies and techniques, and which generates both qualitative and quantitative data’.

2.17.3.3. Intrinsic VS. EXTRINSIC

A similar distinction is made in the course evaluation literature between intrinsically and extrinsically motivated evaluations (Hopkins, 1989; Weir and Roberts, 1994). Intrinsic evaluation is an inwardly-directed course appraisal motivated and carried out by participants from inside the course, thus participatory in nature, for developmental purposes. A good example of this type is the collaborative evaluation of Mackay et al. (1995). In contrast, extrinsic evaluation, also known as bureaucratic evaluation (Mackay, 1994; Weir and Roberts, 1994), is usually imposed on the course, motivated and carried out by outsiders for purposes of accountability and accreditation.

2.17.3.4. Holistic VS. Analytic

Hopkins (1989: 18) distinguishes between ‘holistic’ and ‘analytic’ evaluations. In the former, the evaluators investigate the course in its entirety. That is, they look at the program as a unit and investigate its constituents as they interact with one another in a holistic manner using a case study approach in order to produce an evaluation of the whole course. In an analytic evaluation, the evaluators are rather more concerned with specific key areas of the course, aiming to study how these affect or relate to one or more other key aspects of the course.

The above dichotomies, commonly found in the course evaluation literature, result in a diversity of evaluation models and frameworks. For example, summative

evaluations and most extrinsic ones are quantitative and product-oriented in nature. They aim to assess the effectiveness and/or efficiency of a course and usually use one of the three major experimental models of evaluation, namely the ‘true experimental’, ‘quasi-experimental’ or ‘pre-experimental’ models, e.g. the Bangalore project evaluation (Beretta and Davies, 1985) and the Pennsylvanian project (Clark, 1969). Because of space constraints, these models will not be discussed here in detail; for thorough discussions of these and other experimental models, see Nunan (1992), Lynch (1996), Cohen, et al. (2007) and Creswell (2009).

2.17.3.5. ESP Course Evaluation Framework

Dudley-Evans and St John (1998: 128) observe that to evaluate everything is unrealistic and might be time-consuming. What seems to be required, therefore, is to establish the priorities, which Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 153) present clearly: The overall aim of the ESP course is to meet two main needs of the learners: their needs as language learners, and their needs as language users. It follows that the ‘what’ of ESP course evaluation is concerned with assessing the extent to which the course satisfies both kinds of needs. Thus, the enquiry should begin with questions such as: Is the course fulfilling the learners’ language learning needs?

Has the course fulfilled

Is the course fulfilling the learners’ language using needs?

The next question that needs to be addressed in ESP course evaluation is identifying the areas of need that are not being or have not been fulfilled. Once these problem areas are known, according to Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 153), the focus needs to be on identifying the reasons for them. If not identified and dealt with properly, such problems may continue to accumulate and eventually cause the failure of the course to meet its objectives.

For the purpose of this study, the researcher has developed a flexible evaluation framework to fit the evaluation context. This framework, I believe, suits the formative evaluation purposes of the study, which are to improve the quality of the HSC ESP course by empirically investigating the ongoing process (appropriateness), as well as its products (effectiveness), to diagnose the problematic areas and to suggest possible solutions. Therefore, the main purpose of the evaluation is the improvement of teaching and learning, by matching the needs of learners to the systems of teaching, to help those involved to share and become aware of each other's needs, perspectives and perceptions (Harris and Bell, 2003: 42). The general evaluation framework of the current study was devised and derived from course evaluation models proposed by a number of scholars (Kennedy, 1985; McGinley, 1986; Henning, 1987; Sharp, 1990; Blue and Grundy, 1996; Lynch, 2003; Kiely and Rea-Dickins, 2005). In particular, it follows the model employed by Weir and Roberts (1994: 85) to evaluate the pre-sectional English course at the University of Reading and the Performance Indicator model of Mackay et al. (1998: 118). In both of these cases, the authors list a number of evaluation foci and the methods they have used to evaluate them. For the purposes of the current ESP course evaluation, some of these evaluation focal points needed to be modified or eliminated, either because they did not apply to the course under study (e.g. the placement test and the self-access Centre), or due to limits on funding, resources and/or time. The ultimate result of these modifications was a small-scale manageable evaluation framework developed for the particular context of this study. The framework has five major components: curriculum organization and syllabus specifications, objectives, materials, teaching, and assessment procedures. Each component is broken down into a number of focal points. While each component has a very specific focus, these components are closely interrelated. It is suggested that the course objectives, syllabus, materials, teaching

methodology and assessment procedures should be mutually compatible with each other. Therefore, the present evaluation attempts to identify any match or mismatch between these interrelated components. For example, comparing the teaching methodologies employed by teachers with the course objectives can indicate whether these methodologies are likely to lead to attainment of the objectives.

2.18. Concept of Communicative Competence

The term «communicative competence» is comprised of two words, the combination of which means «competence to communicate». This simple lexico-semantic analysis uncovers the fact that the central word in the syntagm «communicative competence» is the word «competence».

«Competence» is one of the most controversial terms in the field of general and applied linguistics. Its introduction to linguistic discourse has been generally

Metodika

Bagarić V., Mihaljević Djigunović J.: Defining Communicative Competence associated with Chomsky who in his very influential book «Aspects of the Theory of Syntax» drew what has been today viewed as a classic distinction between competence (the monolingual speaker-listener's knowledge of language) and performance (the actual use of language in real situations)¹.

Soon after Chomsky proposed and defined the concepts of competence and performance, advocates for a communicative view in applied linguistics (e.g. Savignon, 1972) expressed their strong disapproval at the idea of using the concept of idealized, purely linguistic competence as a theoretical ground of the methodology for learning, teaching and testing languages. They found the alternative to Chomsky's concept of competence in Hymes's communicative competence² which they believed to be a broader and more realistic notion of competence.

Namely, Hymes (1972) defined communicative competence not only as an inherent grammatical competence but also as the ability to use grammatical competence in a variety of communicative situations, thus bringing the sociolinguistic perspective into Chomsky's linguistic view of competence.

During the 1970s and 1980s many applied linguists with a primary interest in the theory of language acquisition and/or the theory of language testing gave their valuable contribution to the further development of the concept of communicative competence. Just a few of them will be mentioned in the following, namely those whose theoretical reflections and empirical work seem to have had the most important impact on the theory of communicative competence.

In an attempt to clarify the concept of communicative competence, Widdowson (1983) made a distinction between competence and capacity. In his definition of these two notions he applied insights that he gained in discourse analysis and pragmatics. In this respect, he defined competence, i.e. communicative competence, in terms of the knowledge of linguistic and sociolinguistic conventions.

Under capacity, which he often referred to as procedural or communicative capacity, he understood the ability to use knowledge as means of creating meaning in a language. According to him, ability is not a component of competence. It does not turn into competence, but remains "an active force for continuing creativity", i.e. a force for the realization of what Halliday called the "meaning potential" (Widdowson, 1983:27). Having defined communicative competence in this way, Widdowson is said to be the first who in his reflections on the relationship between competence and performance gave more attention to performance or real language use.

1 According to many general and applied linguists, Chomsky's distinction between competence and performance is based on the fundamental linguistic distinction between *langue* and *parole* which was made by de Saussure.

2 Campbell and Wales (1970) were among the first who used the term communicative competence.

In their article "The Study of Language Acquisition" they refer to it as "competence 2" or the strong version of competence. However, from their elaboration on this notion it is not quite clear what they mean by it. Therefore we join the opinion of Cazden (1996) that Hymes was the father of the notion of communicative competence because he defined it fully, clearly and explicitly.

METODIKA:Vol. 8, br. 14 (1/2007), str. 94-103 Canale and Swain (1980) and Canale (1983) understood communicative competence as a synthesis of an underlying system of knowledge and skill needed for communication. In their concept of communicative competence, knowledge refers to the (conscious or unconscious) knowledge of an individual about language and about other aspects of language use. According to them, there are three types of knowledge: knowledge of underlying grammatical principles, knowledge of how to use language in a social context in order to fulfill communicative functions and knowledge of how to combine utterances and communicative functions with respect to discourse principles. In addition, their concept of skill refers to how an individual can use the knowledge in actual communication. According to Canale (1983), skill requires a further distinction between underlying capacity and its manifestation in real communication, that is to say, in performance³.

Unlike Hymes, Canale and Swain or even Widdowson, Savignon (1972, 1983) put a much greater emphasis on the aspect of ability in her concept of communicative competence. Namely, she described communicative competence as «the ability to function in a truly communicative setting – that is, in a dynamic exchange in which

linguistic competence must adapt itself to the total informational input, both linguistic and paralinguistic, of one or more interlocutors” (Savignon, 1972:8). According to her, and many other theoreticians (e.g. Canale and Swain, 1980; Skehan, 1995, 1998; Bachman and Palmer, 1996 etc.), the nature of communicative competence is not static but dynamic, it is more interpersonal than intrapersonal and relative rather than absolute. It is also largely defined by context⁴.

As to the distinction between competence and performance, Savignon referred to competence as an underlying ability and to performance as an open manifestation of competence. In her opinion, competence can be observed, developed, maintained and evaluated only through performance. Like many theoreticians in the field of language learning and teaching (e.g. Stern, 1986), Savignon equates communicative competence with language proficiency. Due to this, as well as to the controversial use of the term «competence», Taylor (1988) proposed to replace the term «communicative competence» with the term «communicative proficiency».

At approximately the same time and for similar reasons, Bachman (1990) suggested using the term «communicative language ability», claiming that this term combines in itself the meanings of both language proficiency and communicative competence. Leaning especially on Hymes, Widdowson and Candlin, Bachman defined communicative language ability as a concept comprised of knowledge or competence and capacity for appropriate use of knowledge in a contextual communicative language use. In elaborating on this definition, Bachman devoted space to Canale (1983) as well as Canale and Swain (1980) pointed at the importance of making distinction between communicative competence and communicative performance, that is to say, actual performance which is the term

Canale used in order to avoid (negative) connotations with Chomsky's concept of performance.

4 Stern (1986) and Spolsky (1990) added the ability for creative language use to the list of characteristics of the nature of communicative competence. Bagarić V., Mihaljević Djigunović J.: Defining Communicative Competence special attention to the aspect of language use - that is, the way how language is used for the purpose of achieving a particular communicative goal in a specific situational context of communication.

2.19. Models of Communicative Competence

Recent theoretical and empirical research on communicative competence is largely based on three models of communicative competence: the model of Canale and Swain, the model of Bachman and Palmer and the description of components of communicative language competence in the Common European Framework (CEF).

The theoretical framework/model which was proposed by Canale and Swain (1980, 1981) had at first three main components, i.e. fields of knowledge and skills: grammatical, sociolinguistic and strategic competence. In a later version of this model, Canale (1983, 1984) transferred some elements from sociolinguistic competence into the fourth component which he named discourse competence.

In Canale and Swain (1980, 1981), grammatical competence is mainly defined in terms of Chomsky's linguistic competence, which is why some theoreticians (e.g. Savignon, 1983), whose theoretical and/or empirical work on communicative competence was largely based on the model of Canale and Swain, use the term «linguistic competence» for «grammatical competence». According to Canale and Swain, grammatical competence is concerned with mastery of the linguistic code (verbal or non-verbal) which includes vocabulary knowledge as well as knowledge of morphological, syntactic, semantic, phonetic and orthographic rules.

This competence enables the speaker to use knowledge and skills needed for understanding and expressing the literal meaning of utterances.

In line with Hymes's belief about the appropriateness of language use in a variety of social situations, the sociolinguistic competence in their model includes knowledge of rules and conventions which underlie the appropriate comprehension and language use in different sociolinguistic and socio-cultural contexts. Canale (1983, 1984) described discourse competence as mastery of rules that determine ways in which forms and meanings are combined to achieve a meaningful unity of spoken or written texts. The unity of a text is enabled by cohesion in form and coherence in meaning. Cohesion is achieved by the use of cohesion devices (e.g. pronouns, conjunctions, synonyms, parallel structures etc.) which help to link individual sentences and utterances to a structural whole. The means for achieving coherence, for instance repetition, progression, consistency, relevance of ideas etc., enable the organization of meaning, i.e. establish a logical relationship between groups of utterances.

In the model of Canale and Swain, strategic competence is composed of knowledge of verbal and non-verbal communication strategies that are recalled to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to insufficient competence in one or more components of communicative competence. These strategies include paraphrase, circumlocution, repetition, reluctance, avoidance of words, structures or themes, guessing, changes of register and style, modifications of messages etc.

Canale (1983) pointed out that this competence can also be used to enhance the effectiveness of communication. In a qualitative sense, it is different from the other three components of communicative competence in that it is not a type of stored knowledge and it includes non-cognitive aspects such as self-confidence, readiness to take risks etc. However, since it interacts with other components, it enables

learners to deal successfully with a lack of competence in one of the fields of competence.

Despite the simplicity of the model of Canale and Swain, this model has dominated the fields of second and foreign language acquisition and language testing for more than a decade. Moreover, the tendency to use this model, or refer to it, has remained even after Bachman (1990) and Bachman and Palmer (1996) proposed a much more comprehensive model of communicative competence. The easiness with which the model of Canale and Swain can be applied is probably the main reason why many researchers of communicative competence still use it.

Taking into consideration the results of prior theoretical and empirical research, in the late 1980s, Bachman proposed a new model of communicative competence or, more precisely, the model of communicative language ability. That model was, however, slightly altered by Bachman and Palmer in the mid-1990s.

According to Bachman and Palmer, (1996) many traits of language users, such as some general characteristics their topical knowledge, affective schemata and language ability influence the communicative language ability. The crucial characteristic is their language ability which is comprised of two broad areas – language knowledge and strategic competence.

Language knowledge consists of two main components – organizational knowledge and pragmatic knowledge which complement each other in achieving communicatively effective language use. The subcomponents of these two areas of knowledge are listed in Figure 1.

In Bachman and Palmer's model, organizational knowledge is composed of abilities engaged in a control over formal language structures, i.e. of grammatical and textual knowledge. Grammatical knowledge includes several rather independent areas of knowledge such as knowledge of vocabulary, morphology, syntax, phonology, and graphology. They enable recognition and production of

grammatically correct sentences as well as comprehension of their propositional content. Textual knowledge enables comprehension and production of (spoken or written) texts. It covers the knowledge of conventions for combining sentences or utterances into texts, i.e. knowledge of cohesion (ways of marking semantic relationships among two or more sentences in a written text or utterances in a conversation) and knowledge of rhetorical organization (way of developing narrative texts, descriptions, comparisons, classifications etc.) or conversational organization (conventions for initiating, maintaining and closing conversations).

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Pragmatic knowledge refers to abilities for creating and interpreting discourse.

It includes two areas of knowledge: knowledge of pragmatic conventions for expressing acceptable language functions and for interpreting the illocutionary power of utterances or discourse (functional knowledge) and knowledge of sociolinguistic conventions for creating and interpreting language utterances which are appropriate in a particular context of language use (sociolinguistic knowledge).

Strategic knowledge is conceived in the model as a set of meta-cognitive components which enable language user involvement in goal setting, assessment of communicative sources, and planning. Goal setting includes identifying a set of possible tasks, choosing one or more of them and deciding whether or not to attempt to complete them. Assessment is a means by which language use context is related to other areas of communicative language ability: topical knowledge and affective schemata. Planning involves deciding how to make use of language knowledge and other components involved in the process of language use to complete the chosen task successfully.

At the end of this illustrative description of Bachman and Palmer's model of communicative language ability, one cannot but conclude that this model is more complex, more comprehensive and much clearer than the model of Canale and

Swain. It is preferable because of its detailed and at the same time very organizational description of basic components of communicative competence.

The last model we will refer to is the model or description of communicative language competence in the CEF (2001), the model which is intended for assessment as well as for learning and teaching of languages.

In the CEF, communicative competence is conceived only in terms of knowledge. It includes three basic components – language competence, sociolinguistic competence and pragmatic competence. Thus, strategic competence is not its componential part. It is interesting, however, that each component of language knowledge is explicitly defined as knowledge of its contents and ability to apply it. For instance, language competence or linguistic competence refers to knowledge of and ability to use language resources to form well-structured messages.

The subcomponents of language competence are lexical, grammatical, semantic, phonological, orthographic and orthopedic competences. Sociolinguistic competence refers to possession of knowledge and skills for appropriate language use in a social context. The following aspects of this competence are highlighted: language elements that mark social relationships, rules of appropriate behavior, and expressions of peoples' wisdom, differences in register and dialects and stress.

The last component in this model - pragmatic competence - involves two sub components: discourse competence and functional competence. A part of both of these competences is the so-called planning competence which refers to sequencing of messages in accordance with interactional and transactional schemata. Strategic competence is mentioned in the part the CEF dedicated to a discussion of communicative language use. This competence is conceived as strategy use in the broadest sense. Thus, the stress is put not only on the use of communication strategies which can help to overcome the lack in a particular area of language knowledge but on the use of all types of communication strategies. As

to the authors of the CEF, the use of strategies can be compared with the application of meta-cognitive principles (planning, achieving, controlling and correcting) on different forms of language activity: reception, interaction, production and meditating.

At the end of this chapter, the similarities and differences in the componential structure of the three models of communicative competence described above - the model of Canale and Swain, the model of Bachman and Palmer and the model proposed in the CEF – are presented in a graphic illustration.

2.20. Part Two Previous Studies

The researcher surveyed the Sudanese Universities in search of previous studies related to, or in the domain of syllabus design and teaching materials of English for agriculture students. The results of the survey have shown that the problems and solutions of syllabus design have never been incorporated into the field of research in Sudanese Universities.

2.20.1. The First Study

Mahadi Hamad ELballal Hamad (2014) conducted an MA study, College of Languages, English Department, Sudan University of Science and Technology, under the title “investigating of ESP Vocabulary Difficulties Encountered by EFL Learners, A case Study of Omdurman Islamic University and ELahfad University in Khartoum State. The researcher arrived at the following findings.

1. The ESP specialized vocabulary, in fact creates some difficulties for EFL learners.
2. The ESP courses at Sudanese Universities do not solve the problems of ESP specialized vocabulary

3. The difficulties of specialized vocabulary affect the students' progress in the study.

4. The ESP teachers need more training in order to improve and develop their performance and competence.

Mahadi Hamad E, (2014). Investigating of ESP Vocabulary Difficulties Encountered by EFL Learners MA thesis, Sudan University of Science and Technology, College of Languages, Sudan.

2.20.2. The Second Study

Rabab Abd ELsalam (2006) conducted MA thesis at College of Education, Sudan University of Science and Technology, under the title "The Attitudes and Motivation of University Students towards English Language Learning as a University Requirement course post-Arabicization" A case study of some Universities in Khartoum. The results of the Study are summarized as follows:

1. Learners are not intended in learning English as University requirement.
2. Teachers themselves have no motivation in teaching such courses.
3. University policies have major role in these negative attitudes and motivation.

Rabab, A (2006) Attitudes and Motivation of University Students Towards English language Learning as University Requirement, MA thesis, Sudan University of Science and Technology, college of Education.

2.20.3. The Third Study

Yassin, A (1999) conducted a thesis under the title "The need for ESP/EAP Teacher Training in Sudanese Tertiary Institutions post-Arabicization" PhD thesis,

University of Khartoum. The results arrived are that the difference between ESP and EAP is largely difference in degree rather than in kind and in practice rather than in theory. The results also show that ESP/EAP teachers' training was not catered for adequately in these English teachers training progress.

2.20.4. The Fourth Study

Nagat Gailani Esyed (1989) conducted PhD thesis at College of Education, University of Khartoum, under the title "Evaluation of Sudanese Higher Education Curricula of Social Sciences on the Basis of a Suggested Model for Building a science Based Healthy and Productive Society.

The aim of the study was to evaluate Sudanese higher education curricula of social sciences. The method used in the study was a mixed- method approach. The instruments used are questionnaire and interview. The results show that the curricula need some amendments in terms of planning and content. The study recommended the necessity of solving the areas of weakness in the curricula

2.20.5. The Fifth Study

Priya Sasidharan (2012) conducted a PhD thesis at National Institute of Technology, Rourkela, Orissa, India, under the title "A needs-Based approach to Teaching and Learning of English for engineering purposes,

.The study aimed at assessing the English language needs of learners of engineering colleges of Orissa and examine how effective is the course. The method used in the study is descriptive analytical approach. A questionnaire was used for both teachers and students. The results of the study show that students at college of engineering are weak in acquiring the four skills. The teachers are not getting training in teaching ESP courses. The study recommended that learners be

involved more in interactive sessions in classroom. Teachers should be trained in teaching ESP courses.

2.20.6. The Sixth Study

Abdulaziz Fahad Alfahaid (2011) conducted a PhD thesis at University of Leicester under the title “Developing an ESP Curriculum for Students of Health Sciences through needs Analysis and Course Evaluation in Saudi Arabia.

The aim of the study is to create approach development of ESP course at Health Science Colleges in Saudi Arabia on the basis of need Analysis and course evaluation. The method used is mixed method approach was adopted. A questionnaire and semi-structure interview. The findings show that generally the course was helpful. It has some limitation in fulfilling students’ needs in the four skills. The study recommended the provision of teacher training and recruitment of additional ESP teaching staff.

2.20.7. The Seventh Study

Nawel Krarzi (20015) conducted a PhD thesis at College of Letters and Languages, University of Constanine under the title “Designing a Syllabus for ESP learners: The case of 2nd year Commercial Sciences.

The study aimed at investigating the attitudes towards Designing ESP course for commerce students. The method used was descriptive analytical method. Questionnaire was adopted as main tool. The results indicate that all skills are needed in developing students’ language competence in English. The study recommended that the course should include all language skills

2.20.8. The Eighth Study

Ahmed Mohammed S Aldvais (2012) conducted a PhD thesis under the title “Analysis of ESP Syllabus Analysis the book Basic English for Computing as a sample and Testing its Suitability for ESP learners in Public Private Yemeni and Saudi Arabian Universities. The researcher used mixed-method. A questionnaire and interview were employed in the study. The results show that the book seems to have high standard design and format interims of planning stage, implementation, evaluation and management. But according to researchers view, it doesn’t suit the level of ESP learners in both public and private Yemeni universities due to miss use of wrong interpretation of the term ESP in Yemen among English teachers specialized in the field of English language and decision-makers as well.

2.21. Summary of the Chapter

This chapter is the second chapter of the study. It is divided into two main parts. The first part is known as literature review which covers titles related to the present study. The second part is known as previous studies presenting studies related to current study.

Chapter Three

Methodology

Chapter Three

Methodology

3.1. Introduction

This chapter describes the research methodology of the study .It presents a concise description of what has been done by the researcher about the methodology that is adopted. It describes the design of the study, the target population, research instrument, and procedures for data collection. Then it goes further to present tools, validity and reliability of the study .The researcher uses questionnaire and interview as main tools, to answer the questions of the study. The questionnaire; is designed for the teachers of English language as a foreign language and the interview is designed for ESP experts.

3.2. Design of the Study

In any research study, the researcher usually goes through a series of inter-related phases which together make up the design of the study .A research design there for, refers to the general plan of data collection and procedures, which are used in the analysis of data, in order to shed light on the problem(s) under investigation. The aim is to obtain data which serve to answer the research questions thus, a research design in this sense can be defined as the procedures for conducting the study including when, from, whom and under what condition data were obtained. Its purpose is to provide the most valid, accurate answers as possible to the research questions.

This study adopts descriptive analytical approach...The aim of such mixed method is to provide quantitative qualitative interpretive data obtained from the analysis of the questionnaire which administered to university teachers as experts at colleges of educations and languages, and questionnaire to teachers of English language at university level.

In this quantitative qualitative analysis the researcher conducts a questionnaire which is given to the teachers at colleges of education and languages at different Sudanese Universities in Khartoum state.

3.3. Data Collection of the Study Tools

Choosing a method that enables the researcher to collect relevant information is quiet important, thus selecting the data and gathering tools which apparent to be more suitable and adequate for the study are so crucial. In this study a descriptive analytical and experimental method is used. The interview was conducted for experts .The second tool is the questionnaire, which designed for the teachers of English language at university level.

3.4. Population and Sample of the Study

This includes the samples who respond to the interview, and to the questionnaire. The first sample groups of this study are teachers of English Language as experts, they are requested to answer the questions of the interview. The second sample population, are English language teachers at Sudanese Universities. They are asked to identify their options in the given questionnaire. The two tools are analyzed analytically.

3.4.1. Teachers' Questionnaire

The questionnaire is considered as the main tool for gathering data on the topic of the research. Questionnaire, are any written instrument, that present respondents with a series of questions or, statements to which they are to react either by writing out their answers or, selecting their options from among existing answers, so it is one of the main instrument used in this study, it is designed for foreign language teachers. Teachers are requested to identify their options by ticking in the proper place, relating to the mentioned statements. They are 30 statements, designed from the hypotheses of the study. These statements are about grammatical structures.

The questionnaire is divided into two parts: the first part includes, information about the teacher's demographic data such as, age, years of experience and qualifications. The second part consists of the three domains of the study. The aim of the questionnaire is to see teacher's views about the role of grammatical structures in encoding the intended meaning of the written discourse.

3.4.1.1. Population of the Questionnaire

The population of the questionnaire is English language teachers teaching English as a foreign language in different Sudanese Universities. They were asked to respond to the questionnaire statements given to them.

3.4.1.2. Sample of the Questionnaire

The sample of the questionnaire is English language teachers teaching at University level. Most of teachers are full-time at Universities. The number of questionnaire teachers is 100. In order to ensure that the observed directive responses strategies would not be influenced by gender different, the participants' gender will almost be equally presented in each group as possible.

3.4.2. The Experts' Interview

The interview was used as a second tool in this study. The researchers sees that the questionnaire was not enough for covering this study. Another tool is needed to cover what is needed fulfill the requirement of the hypotheses, therefore an interview is used in this study. The interview is the open-ended question interview .The experts were given enough time to think of the questions in order to give deep information about the questions.

3. 4.2.1. Population of the Interview

The population of the interview is experts teaching English at colleges of languages and education, at different Sudanese Universities. They were asked to respond to the interview questions.

3.4 2.2 Sample of the Interview

The sample of the interview is experts. They are (5) English language teachers. Experts were selected in this study because they have already had experience in teaching ESP courses. Their ages ranged between 50-64 years old. They were chosen randomly to represent the whole population of the experts. They hold PhDs in English language.

3.5. Validity and Reliability

Validity and reliability are two important criteria for assuring the quality of the data collection procedures. In social science research .Merriam (1998) argues that, all kinds of researches are concerned with producing validity and reliable knowledge in an ethical manner. Validity and reliability are utilized as criteria for judging the quality of this research design.

3.5.1. Validity of the Study

Validity is the touch stone of all the types of educational research that a researcher tries to ensure. (Cohen, etal: 2007) in establishing the validity of a survey method in this study the initial versions of the interview questions are given to English language teachers at universities for their face, content and construct validity and its applicability to the content of the study . As for the questionnaire, the researcher asked a panel of experts to evaluate the statements of the questionnaire and to find out if they measures what they are supposed to measure .They recommended deleting, editing and adding some statements to the questionnaire and according to the comment of the panel, the questionnaire is modified.

For the interview the researcher exposed the questions to some experts, also they recommend some changing; according to their advices the necessary changes are made.

Table of Validity

Name	Position	Place of work	Phone No
Mohamed elameen Elshigiti	Associate professor	Elrebat University	0116899176
Muntasir Hassan Mubarak	Assistant professor	SUST	0913222280
Hilary Mariam	Assistant professor	SUST	0994200028

3.5.2. Reliability of the Study

As for survey reliability is concerned, according to Brown (2001) with the consistency which measures what is measuring .what is meant by consistency in this definition is that, when the procedure is repeated on a population of individuals of group, the responses should be the same. This test retests reliability and if several people are reading the responses they would interpret term in the same way. Reliability is usually tested by statistical operation indicated by reliability coefficient, alpha-Devellis(1991)describes alpha as "an indication of the proportion of variance in scale scores that is attributed to the true score" ideally there should be no variance but a score of higher than 70 are suggested.(Nunn ally, 1994and Litwia1995)as acceptable there for, the higher .

3.6. Statistical Reliability

Reliability refers to the reliability of any test, to obtaining the same results if the same measurement is used more than one time under the same conditions. In addition, the reliability means when a certain test was applied on a number of individuals and the marks of every one were counted; then the same test applied another time on the same group and the same marks were obtained; then we can describe this test as reliable. In addition, reliability is defined as the degree of the accuracy of the data that the test measures. Here are some of the most used methods for calculating the reliability: Alpha-Cronach coefficient.

On the other hand, validity also is a measure used to identify the validity degree among the respondents according to their answers on certain criterion. The validity is counted by a number of methods, among them is the validity using the square root of the (reliability coefficient). The value of the reliability and the validity lies in the range between (0-1). The validity of the questionnaire is that the tool should measure the exact aim, which it has been designed for.

In this study the validity calculated by using the following equation:

$$\text{Validity} = \sqrt{\text{Reliability}}$$

The reliability coefficient was calculated for the measurement, which was used in the questionnaire using Alpha-Cronbach coefficient Equation as the following:

For calculating the validity and the reliability of the questionnaire from the above equation, the researcher distributed (20) questionnaires to respondents to calculate the reliability coefficient using the Alpha-Cronbach coefficient; the results have been showed in the following table.

Hypotheses	Reliability	Validity
A	0.75	0.86
B	0.76	0.87
C	0.80	0.89
Overall	83	0.93

It is noticed from the results of the above table No.() that all reliability validity coefficients for pre-test sample individuals about each questionnaire's theme, for overall questionnaire, are greater than (50%), some of them are nearest to one. This indicates to the high validity and reliability of the answers, so, the study questionnaire is valid and reliable, and that will give correct and acceptable statistical analysis.

3.7. Statistical Instruments

In order to satisfy the study objectives and to test its hypotheses, the following statistical instruments were used:

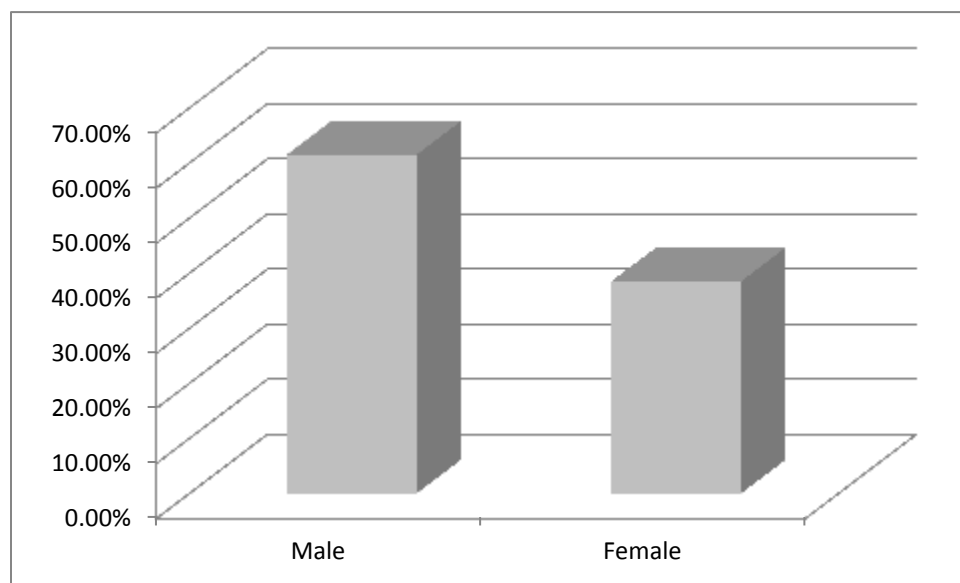
1. Graphical figures.
2. Frequency distribution.
4. Non-parametric Chi-square test.

In order to obtain accurate results, Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was used. In addition, to design the graphical figures, which are needed for the study, the computer program (Excel) was also used.

The Frequency Distribution for the Study Respondents According to Sex:

Table (3.1) : The Frequency Distribution for the Respondents' Answers according to the sex

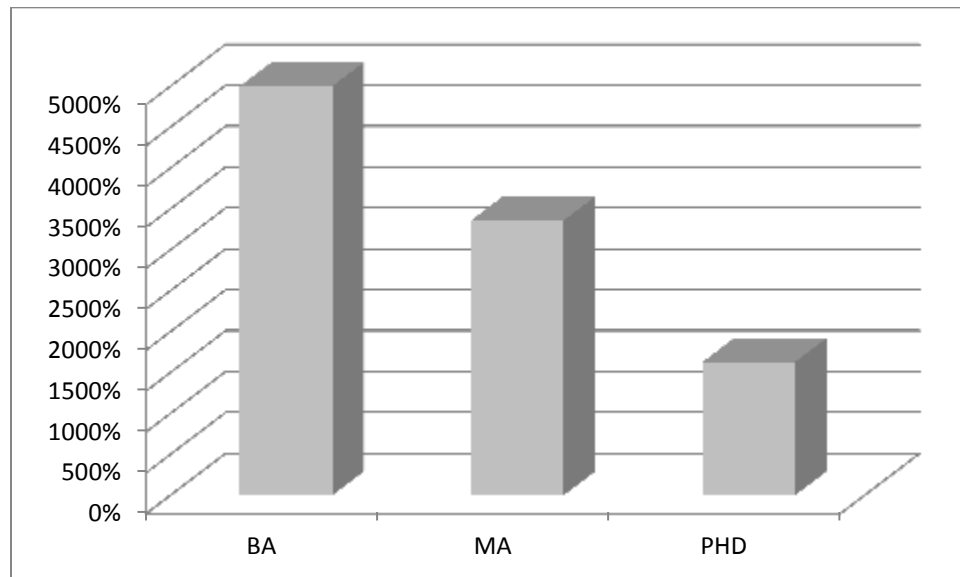
Sex	Number	Percent
Male	64	61.5%
Female	40	38.5%
Total	104	100.0%



From the above table No.(3.1) and figure No.(3.1), it is shown that most of the study's respondents are males, the number of those was (64) persons with percentage (61.5%). The female respondents number was (40) persons with (38.5%).

Table (3.2) : The Frequency Distribution for the Study Respondents According to their Academic qualification

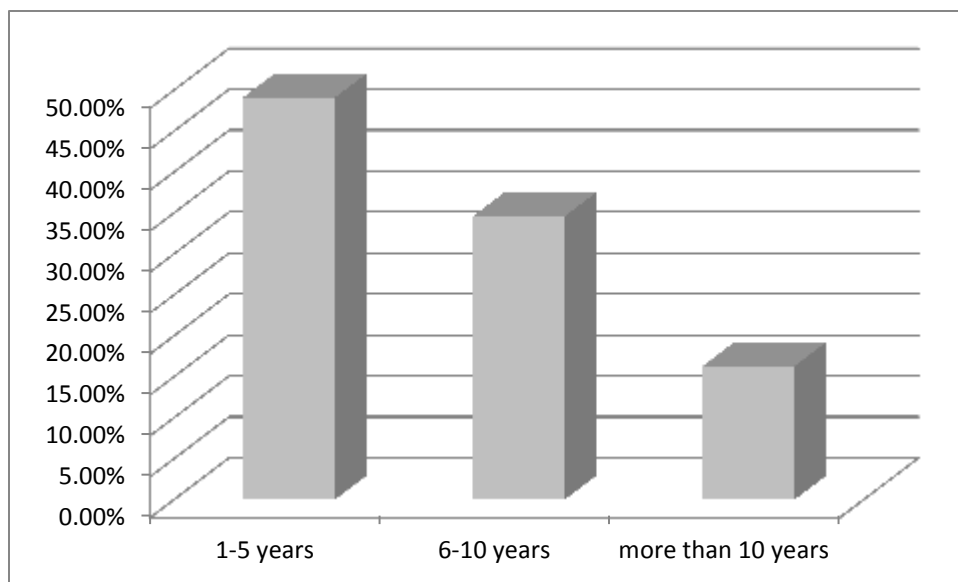
Valid	Frequency	Percent
BA	52	50%
MA	35	33.6
PHD	17	16.3
Total	104	100%



The above table (3.2) and figure (3.2) show the Frequency Distribution for the Study Respondents According to their academic qualifications and its clear that most of the study sample have BA qualification , the number of those was (52) with percentage (50.0%)

Table (3.3) : The Frequency Distribution for the Study Respondents According to their Years of experience

Valid	Frequency	Percent
1-5 years	51	49.1%
6-10 years	36	34.6%
more than 10 years	17	16.3%
Total	104	100%



The above table (3.3) and figure (3.3) show the Frequency Distribution for the Study Respondents According to their years of experience and it is clear that most of the study sample have experience from (1 to 5 years) the number of those is (51) with 49.1%

3.8. Procedures of Data Collection

The researcher follows these procedures in order to conduct the study:

- 1-He reviews the related literature which, is related to ESP.
- 2-Identifies the research objectives, samples and questions which utilize reading from previous studies and thus the elements of the study are established
- 3-The interview is given to experts at Sudanese Universities to be answered.
- 4-The interview is analyzed through different features of ESP courses.
- 5-The data of the interview is analyzed statistically through SPSS program.
- 6-following the completion of interview, the teachers are asked to tick at the questionnaire
- 7- The questionnaire is conducted for the teachers of English language and asked to respond to the statements.
- 8-The data of the questionnaire is analyzed statistically via SPSS program.
9. The data of the questionnaire was collected and analyzed by using simple tables and figures followed by commentary on the items of the questionnaire along with logical explanation to them.
10. Finally, the researcher drew the main findings, conclusion of the study, and recommendation for further researches.

3.9. Summary of the Chapter

This chapter is known as research methodology. It has covered the analysis of the instruments namely; the questionnaire and interview. The questionnaire was analyzed statistically while the interview was analyzed analytically as qualitative approach. The data of the two instruments were drawn in chapter four.

Chapter Four

Data Analysis, Results and Discussions

Chapter Four

Data Analysis, Results and Discussions

4.0: Introduction

The aim of this study is to investigate the impact of ESP teachers' attitudes towards using ESP courses on developing students' communicative competence. In this chapter, the results of the research study are presented in two sections. The first section of this chapter displays participants' demographic information. The second section is about the results of the questionnaire administered to English language teachers. The questionnaire consists of (30) statements. The participants were asked to determine their opinions to the distributed questionnaire statements.

4.1. Analysis of the Questionnaire

After the step of checking questionnaire reliability and validity, the researcher distributed the questionnaire on determined study sample (104), and constructed the required tables for collected data. This step consists transformation of the qualitative (nominal) variables (strongly disagree, disagree, Undetermined, agree, and strongly agree) to quantitative variables (1, 2, 3, 4, 5) respectively, also the graphical representations were used for this purpose.

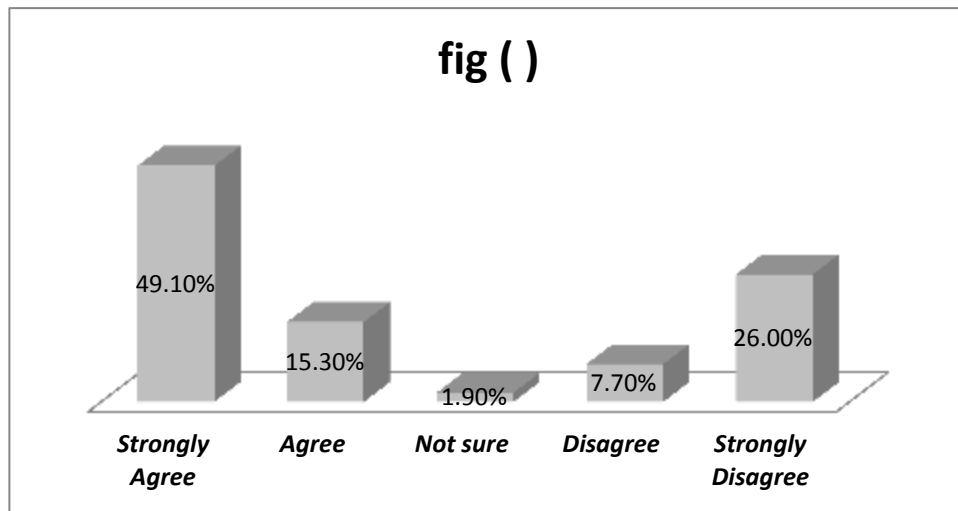
The First Hypothesis (1): ESP courses at Sudanese universities do not fulfill the students' needs in communication

Statement No.(1): ESP students are unable to produce simple discourses for the adequate basic function.

Table No (4.1)

The Frequency Distribution for the Respondents' Answers of Question No.(1)

Valid	Frequency	Percent
Strongly Agree	51	49.1%
Agree	16	15.3%
Not sure	2	1.9%
Disagree	8	7.7%
Strongly Disagree	27	26.0%
Total	104	100%



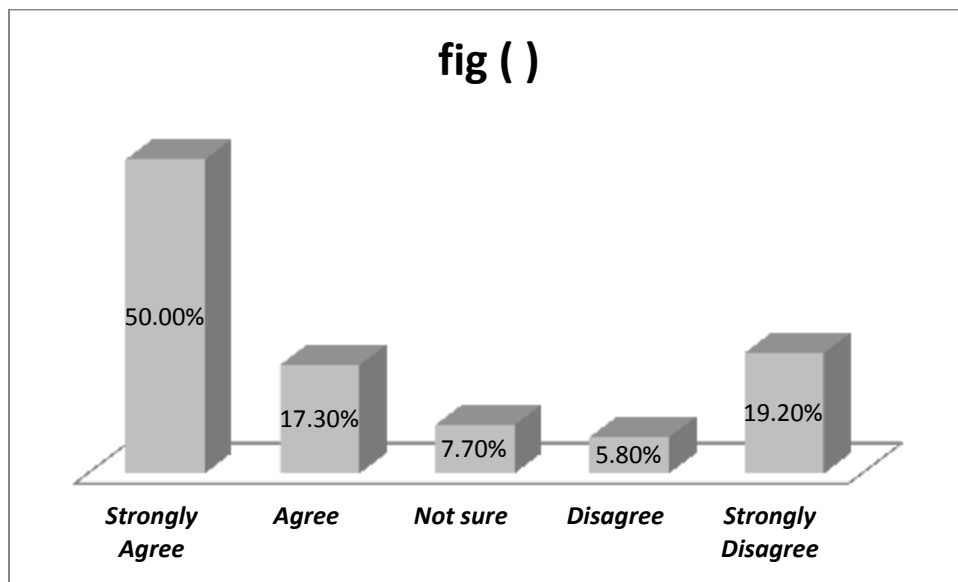
It is clear from the above table No.(4.1) and figure No (4.1) that there are (50) persons in the study's sample with percentage (48.1%) strongly agree with " ESP students are unable to produce simple discourses for the adequate basic function". There are (17) persons with percentage (16.3%) agreed, and (2) persons with percentage (1.9%) were not sure, and (8) persons with percentage (7.7%) disagree, while (27) persons with percentage (26.0%) strongly disagreed.

Statement No.(2) ESP students are unable to express various utterances in communication

Table no (4.2).

The Frequency Distribution for the Respondents' Answers of Question No.(2).

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	52	50.0%
Agree	18	17.3%
Not sure	8	7.7%
Disagree	6	5.8%
Strongly Disagree	20	19.2%
Total	104	100%



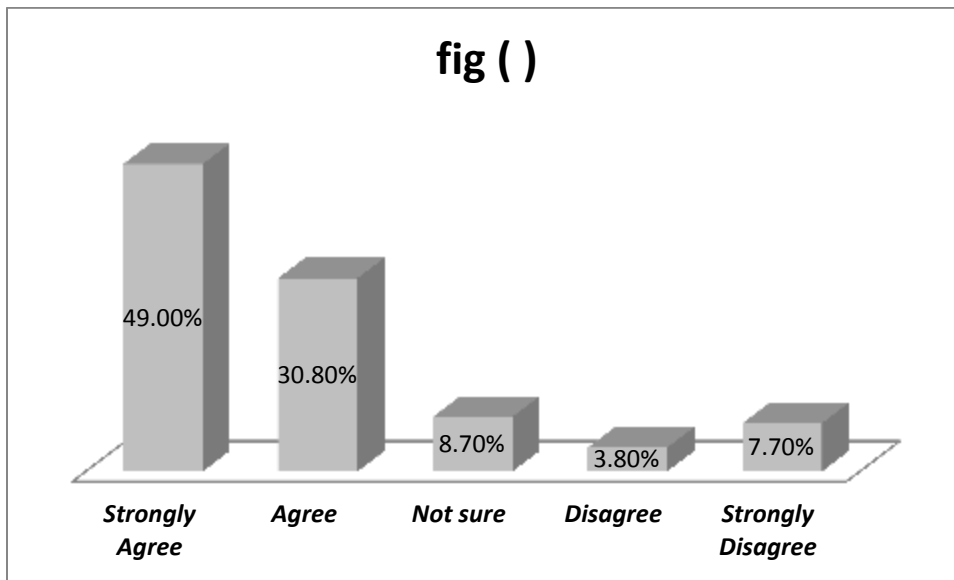
It is clear from the above table No.(4.2) and figure No (4.2) that there are persons in the study's sample with percentage (50.0%) strongly agreed with " ESP students are unable to express various utterances in communication". There are (18) persons with percentage (17.3%) agreed, and (8) persons with percentage (7.7%) were not sure, and (6) persons with percentage (5.8%) disagree, while (20) persons with percentage (19.2%) strongly disagreed.

Statement No.(3): The outstanding use of function words, helps in encoding the meaning of written discourse.

Table No (4.3) ESP students are unable to comprehend lectures in English and take notes and dictation in English

The Frequency Distribution for the Respondents’ Answers of Question No.()

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	51	49.0%
Agree	32	30.8%
Not sure	9	8.7%
Disagree	4	3.8%
Strongly Disagree	8	7.7%
Total	104	100%



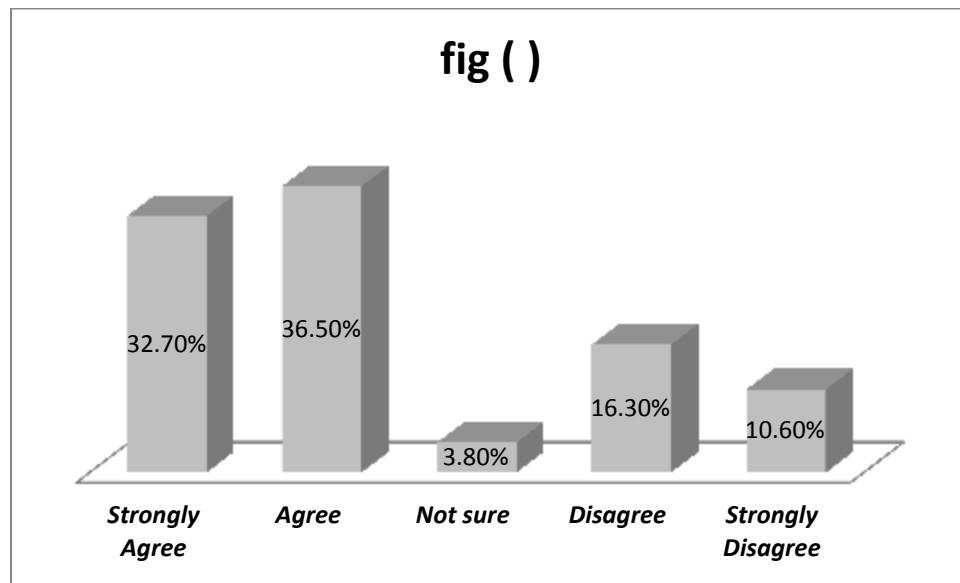
It is clear from table No.(4.3) and figure No (4.3) that there are (51) persons in the study's sample with percentage (49.0%) strongly agreed with " ESP students are unable to comprehend lectures in English and take notes and dictation in English” There are (32) persons with percentage (30.80%) agreed with that and (9) persons with percentage (8.7%) were not sure about that and (4) persons with percentage (3.80%) disagreed, while (8) persons with percentage (7.7%) strongly disagreed.

Statement No.(4): ESP students are unable to report the exploration actively in written form individually or in a group.

Table No (4.4).

The Frequency Distribution for the Respondents' Answers of Question No.().

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	34	32.7%
Agree	38	36.5%
Not sure	4	3.8%
Disagree	17	16.3%
Strongly Disagree	11	10.6%
Total	104	100%



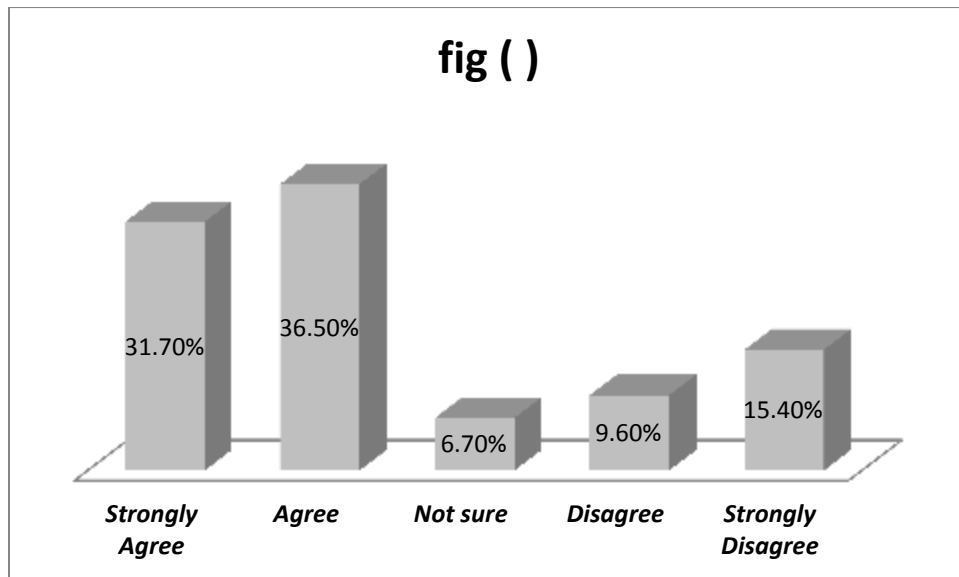
It is clear from the above table No.(4.4) and figure (4.4) that there are (34) persons in the study's sample with percentage (32.7%) strongly agreed with " ESP students are unable to report the exploration actively in written form individually or in a group ". There are (38) persons with percentage (36.5%) agreed with that and (4) persons with percentage (3.8%) were not sure. and (17) persons with percentage (16.3%) disagreed, while (11) persons with percentage (10.6%) strongly disagreed.

Statement No.(5): ESP students are unable to talk about a text in new way.

Table No (4,5)

The Frequency Distribution for the Respondents' Answers of Question No.(.).

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	33	31.7%
Agree	38	36.5%
Not sure	7	6.7%
Disagree	10	9.6%
Strongly Disagree	16	15.4%
Total	104	100%



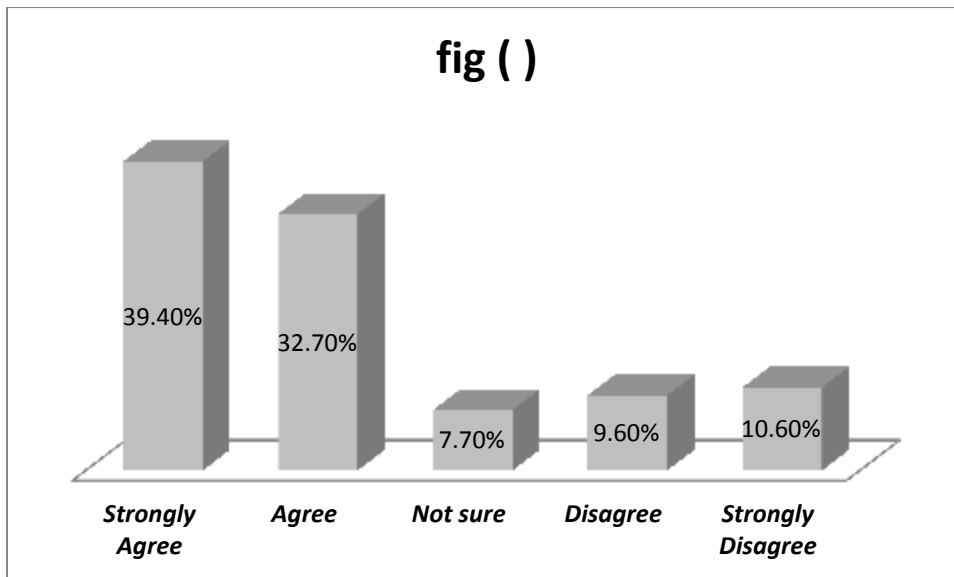
It is clear from the above table No.(4.5) and figure (4.5) that there are (33) persons in the study's sample with percentage (31.7%) strongly agreed with " ESP students are unable to talk about a text in new way..". There are (38) persons with percentage (36.5%) agreed with that and (7) persons with percentage (6.7%) were not sure. and (10) persons with percentage (9.6%) disagreed, while (16) persons with percentage (15.4%) strongly disagreed.

Statement No.(6) : ESP students are unable to formulate ideas more precisely.

Table No (4.6).

The Frequency Distribution for the Respondents’ Answers of Question No.()

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	41	39.4%
Agree	34	32.7%
Not sure	8	7.7%
Disagree	10	9.6%
Strongly Disagree	11	10.6%
Total	104	100%

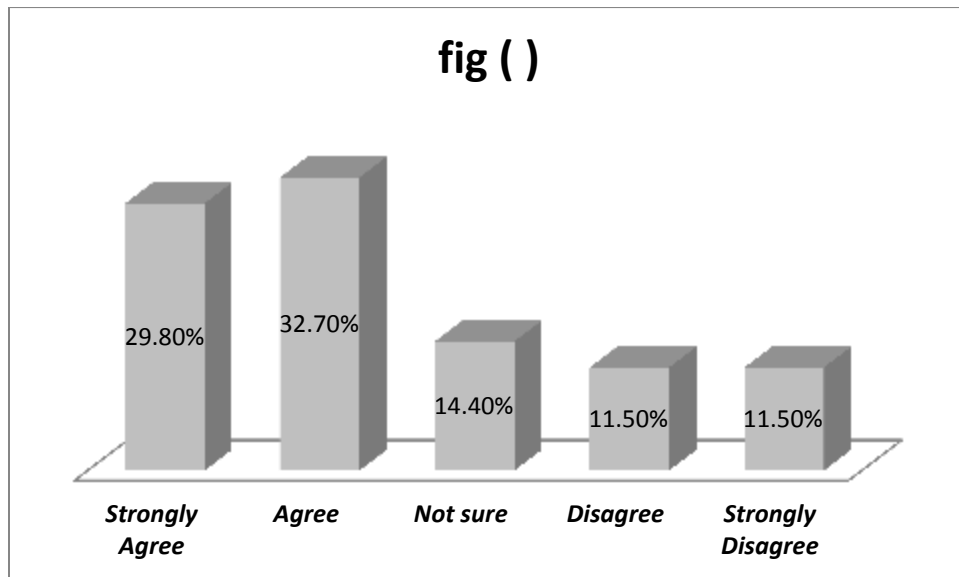


It is clear from the above table No.(4.6) and figure (4.6) that there are (41) persons in the study's sample with percentage (39.4%) strongly agreed with " ESP students are unable to formulate ideas more precisely". There are (34) persons with percentage (32.7%) agreed with that and (8) persons with percentage (7.7%) were not sure. and (10) persons with percentage (9.6%) disagreed, while (11) persons with percentage (10.6%) strongly disagreed.

Question No.(7): ESP students are unable to think in English and build linguistic competence as well as performance.

Table No (4.7)

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	31	29.8%
Agree	34	32.7%
Not sure	15	14.4%
Disagree	12	11.5%
Strongly Disagree	12	11.5%
Total	104	100%



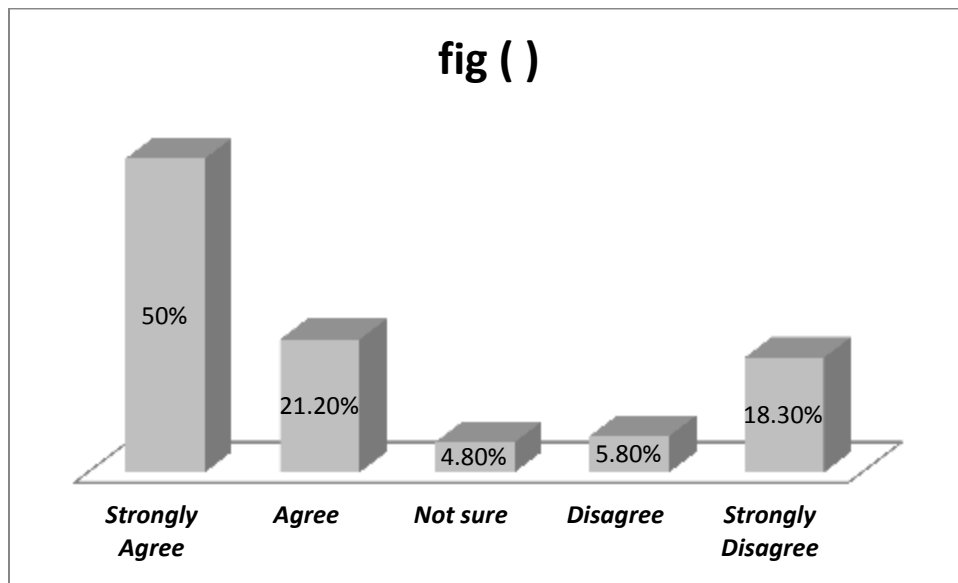
It is clear from the above table No.(4.7) and figure (4.7) that there are (31) persons in the study's sample with percentage (29.4%) strongly agreed with " ESP students are unable to think in English and build linguistic competence as well as performance". There are (34) persons with percentage (32.7%) agreed with that, and (12) persons with percentage (14.4 %) were not sure. and (12) persons with percentage (11.5%) disagreed, while (12) persons with percentage (11.5%) strongly disagreed.

Statement No.(8): ESP students are unable to apply grammatical points in both spoken and written English.

Table No (4.8).

The Frequency Distribution for the Respondents' Answers of Question No.()

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	52	50%
Agree	22	21.2%
Not sure	5	4.8%
Disagree	6	5.8%
Strongly Disagree	19	18.3%
Total	104	100%



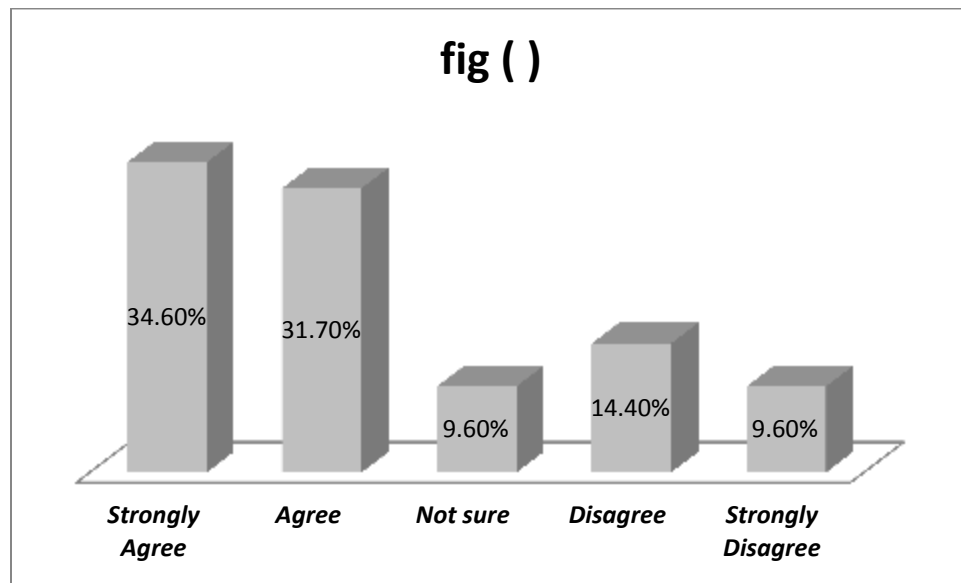
It is clear from the above table No.(4.8) and figure (4.8) that there are (52) persons in the study's sample with percentage (50.2%) strongly agreed with " ESP students are unable to apply grammatical points in both spoken and written English.". There are (22) persons with percentage (21.2%) agreed with that and (5) persons with percentage (4.8 %) were not sure. and (6) persons with percentage (5.8%) disagreed, while (19) persons with percentage (18.3%) strongly disagreed.

Statement No.(9): ESP students are unable to communicate effectively using visuals, symbolic, and/or language skills in various modes.

Table No (4.9).

The Frequency Distribution for the Respondents' Answers of Question No.().

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	36	34.6%
Agree	33	31.7%
Not sure	10	9.6%
Disagree	15	14.4%
Strongly Disagree	10	9.6%
Total	104	100%



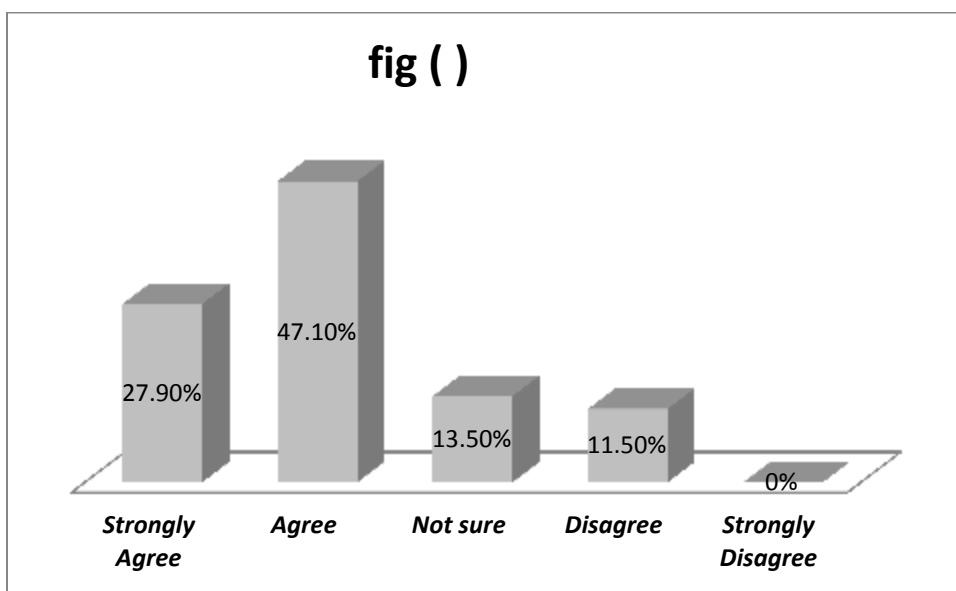
It is clear from the above table No.(4.9) and figure (4.9) that there are (36) persons in the study's sample with percentage (34.6%) strongly agreed with " ESP students are unable to communicate effectively using visuals, symbolic, and/or language skills in various modes". There are (33) persons with percentage (31.7%) agreed with that, and (10) persons with percentage (9.6 %) were not sure . and (15) persons with percentage (14.4%) disagreed , while (10) persons with percentage (9.6%) strongly disagreed.

Statement No.(10): ESP students are unable to know different types of messages and the discourse, stylistic and their proper application

Table (4.10).

The Frequency Distribution for the Respondents' Answers of Question No.()

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	29	27.9%
Agree	49	47.1%
Not sure	14	13.5%
Disagree	12	11.5%
Strongly Disagree	0	0%
Total	104	100%



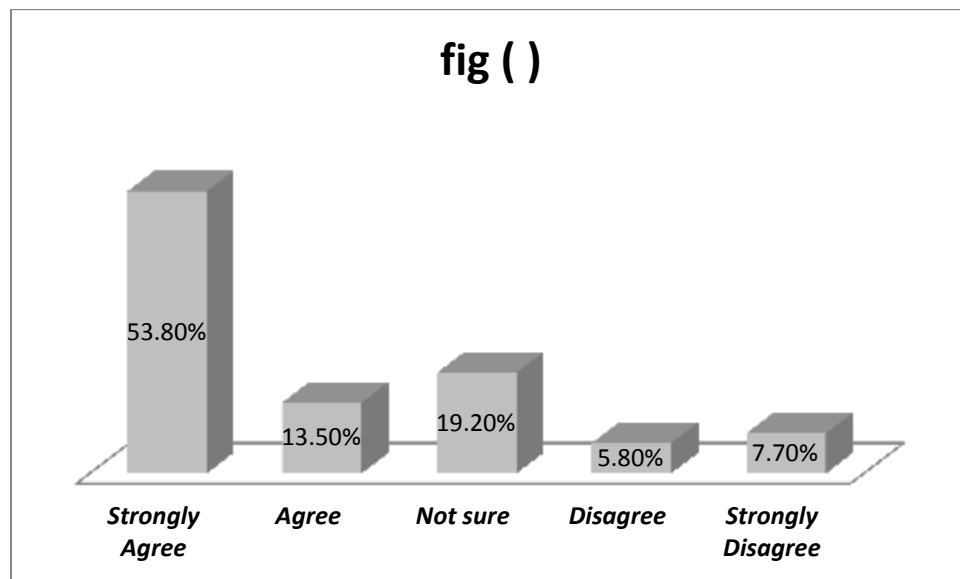
It is clear from the above table no. (4, 10) and figure (4.10) that there are (29) persons in the study's sample with percentage (29.9%) strongly agreed with " ESP students are unable to know different types of messages and the discourse, stylistic and their proper application ". There are (49) persons with percentage (47.1%) agreed with that and (14) persons with percentage (13.5 %) were not sure. and (12) persons with percentage (0.0%) disagreed, while (0) persons with percentage (0.0%) strongly disagreed.

Hypothesis (2): ESP teachers at Sudanese universities have negative attitude towards the current ESP courses in developing students' communicative competence.

Table No (4.11) As a teacher, I believe that the content of ESP courses are not covered properly to develop students' communicative competence

The Frequency Distribution for the Respondents' Answers of Question No.()

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	56	53.8%
Agree	14	13.5%
Not sure	20	19.2%
Disagree	6	5.8%
Strongly Disagree	8	7.7%
Total	104	100%



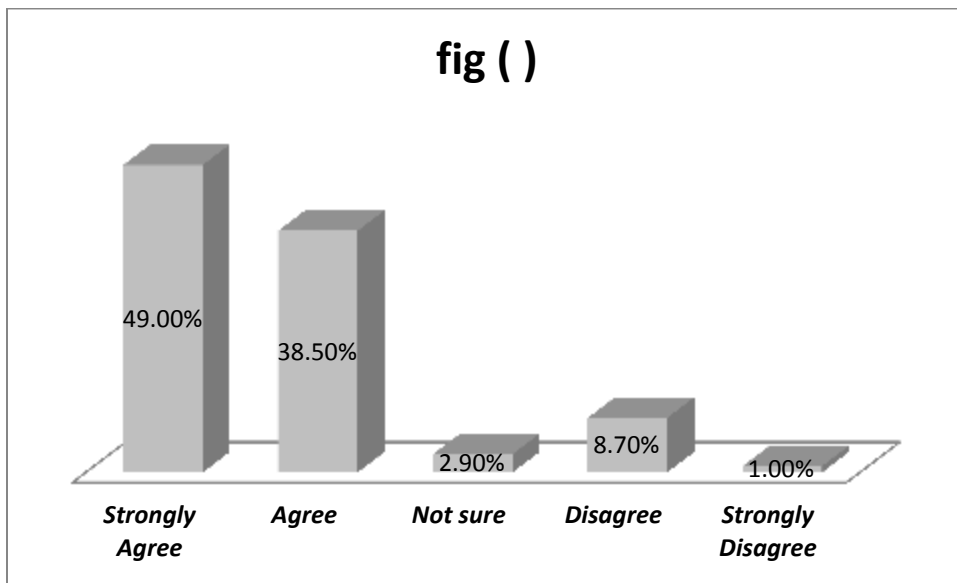
It is clear from the above table No.(4.11) and figure (4.11) that there are (56) persons in the study's sample with percentage (53.8%) strongly agreed with " As a teacher, I believe that the content of ESP courses are not covered properly to develop students' communicative competence" There are (14) persons with percentage (13.5%) agreed with that and (20) persons with percentage (19.2 %) were not sure. and (6) persons with percentage (5.8%) disagreed, while (8) persons with percentage (7.7%) strongly disagreed.

Statement No.(12): As a teacher, I believe that the ESP courses which are taught at universities are not fully revised and developed regularly

Table No (4.12)

The Frequency Distribution for the Respondents' Answers of Question No.()

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	51	49.0%
Agree	40	38.5%
Not sure	3	2.9%
Disagree	9	8.7%
Strongly Disagree	1	1.0%
Total	104	100%



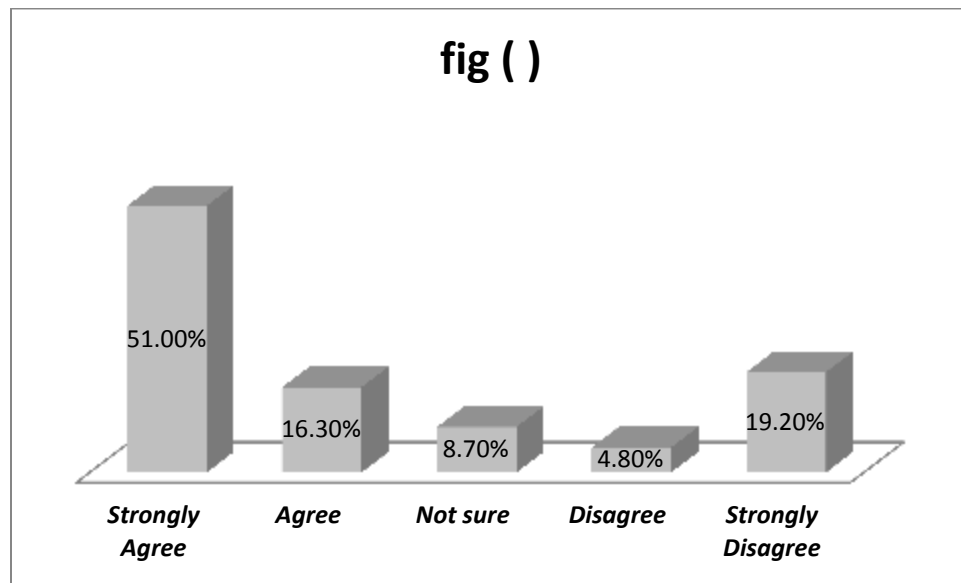
It is clear from the above table No.(4.12) and figure No (4.12) that there are (51) persons in the study's sample with percentage (49.0%) strongly agreed with " As a teacher, I believe that the ESP courses which are taught at universities are not fully revised and developed regularly ". There are (40) persons with percentage (38.5%) agreed, and (3) persons with percentage (2.9%) were not sure and (9) persons with percentage (8.7%) disagreed, while only one person with percentage (1.0%) strongly disagreed.

Statement No.(13): As a teacher, I believe that the ESP course activities inside the class do not help the students to improve their communicative competence

Table No (4-13)

The Frequency Distribution for the Respondents' Answers of Question No.(3)

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	53	51.0%
Agree	17	16.3%
Not sure	9	8.7%
Disagree	5	4.8%
Strongly Disagree	20	19.2%
Total	104	100%



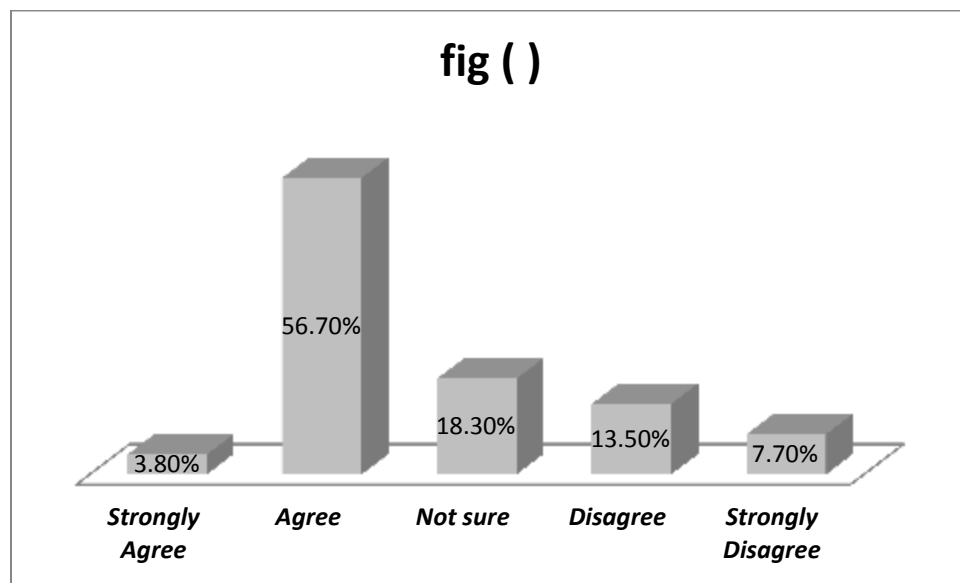
It is clear from the above table No.(4.13) and figure (4.13) that there are (53) persons in the study's sample with percentage (51.0%) strongly agreed with " As a teacher, I believe that the ESP course activities inside the class do not help the students to improve their communicative competence". There are (17) persons with percentage (16.3%) agreed with that and (9) persons with percentage (8.7 %) were not sure. and (5) persons with percentage (4.8%) disagreed, while (20) persons with percentage (19.2%) strongly disagreed.

Question No.(14):Most of ESP courses concentrate on structure and grammar rather than communicative competence.

Table No (4-14)

The Frequency Distribution for the Respondents' Answers of Question No.(4)

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	4	3.8%
Agree	59	56.7%
Not sure	19	18.3%
Disagree	14	13.5%
Strongly Disagree	8	7.7%
Total	104	100%



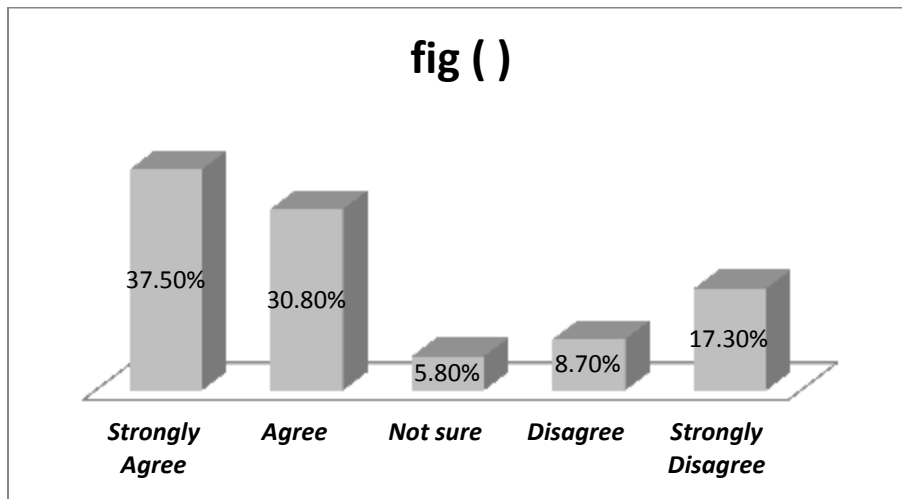
It is clear from the above table No.(4.14) and figure (4.14) that there are (4) persons in the study's sample with percentage (3.8%) strongly agreed with " Most of ESP courses concentrate on structure and grammar rather than communicative competence ". There are (59) persons with percentage (56.7%) agreed with that and (19) persons with percentage (18.3 %) were not sure. and (14) persons with percentage (13.5%) disagreed, while (8) persons with percentage (7.7%) strongly disagreed.

Statement No.(15): . As a teacher, I believe that the limited use of ESP books as references caused insufficient ESP competence

Table No (4.15)

The Frequency Distribution for the Respondents' Answers of Question No.()

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	39	37.5%
Agree	32	30.8%
Not sure	6	5.8%
Disagree	9	8.7%
Strongly Disagree	18	17.3%
Total	104	100%



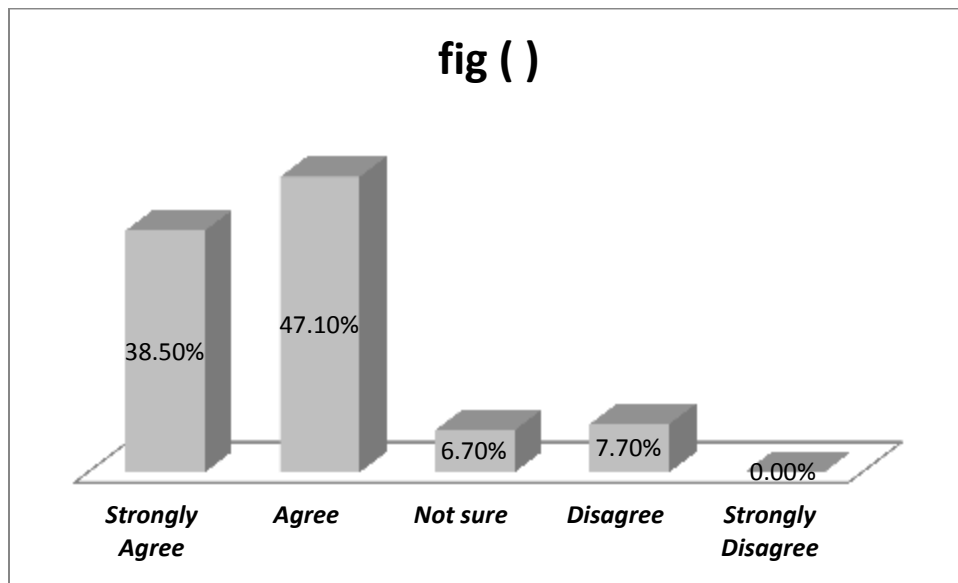
It is clear from the above table No.(4.15) and figure (4.15) that there are (39) persons in the study's sample with percentage (37.5%) strongly agreed with " . As a teacher, I believe that the limited use of ESP books as references caused insufficient ESP competence ". There are (32) persons with percentage (30.8%) agreed with that, and (6) persons with percentage (5.8 %) were not sure. and (9) persons with percentage (8.7%) disagreed, while (18) persons with percentage (17.3%) strongly disagreed.

Question No.(16): As a teacher, I believe that drawbacks in ESP materials are due to the absence of syllabus design.

Table No (4.16)

The Frequency Distribution for the Respondents' Answers of Question No.()

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	40	38.5%
Agree	49	47.1%
Not sure	7	6.7%
Disagree	8	7.7%
Strongly Disagree	0	0.0%
Total	104	100%



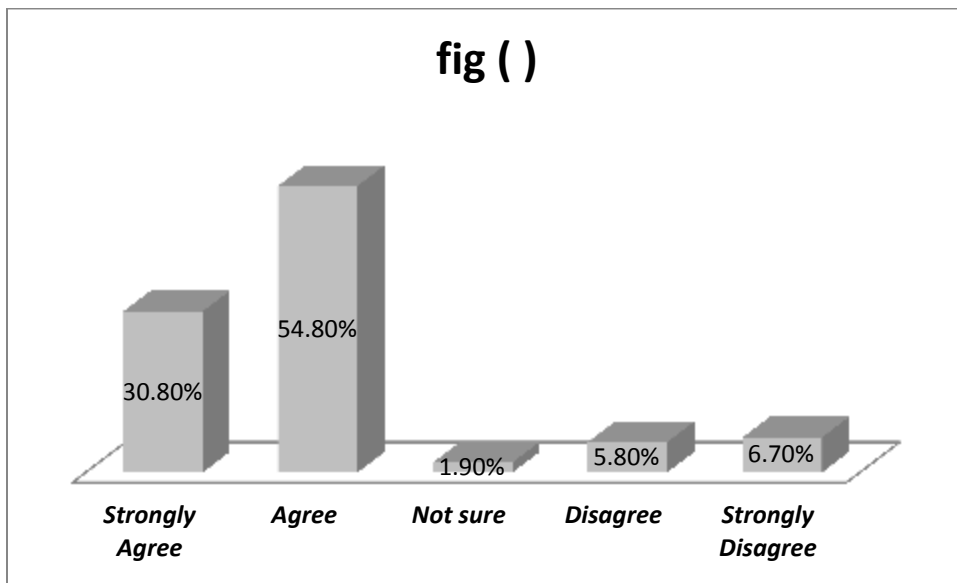
It is clear from the above table No.(4.16) and figure (4.16) that there are (40) persons in the study's sample with percentage (38.5%) strongly agree with " As a teacher, I believe that drawbacks in ESP materials are due to the absence of syllabus design". There are (49) persons with percentage (37.1%) agreed with that and (7) persons with percentage (6.7 %) were not sure. and (8) persons with percentage (7.7%) disagreed, while (0) persons with percentage (0.0%) strongly disagreed.

Statement No.(17): ESP materials which are taught to students in Sudanese higher institutions do not match the students’ target needs

Table No (4.17)

The Frequency Distribution for the Respondents’ Answers of Question No.()

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	32	30.8%
Agree	57	54.8%
Not sure	2	1.9%
Disagree	6	5.8%
Strongly Disagree	7	6.7%
Total	104	100%



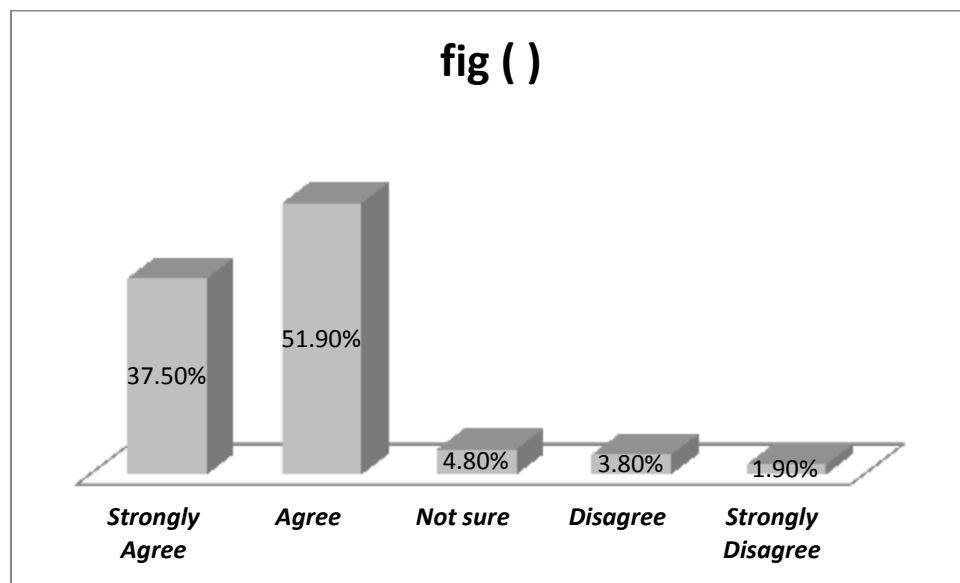
It is clear from the above table No.(4.17) and figure (4.17) that there are (32) persons in the study's sample with percentage (30.8%) strongly agreed with " ESP materials which are taught to students in Sudanese higher institutions do not match the students’ target needs". There are (57) persons with percentage (54.8%) agreed with that, and (2) persons with percentage (1.9 %) were not sure. and (6) persons with percentage (5.8%) disagreed, while (7) persons with percentage (6.7%) strongly disagreed.

Statement No.(18): As a teacher, I believe that the current ESP courses do not develop the students academically and professionally

Table No (4.18)

The frequency distribution for the respondents' answers of question No.()

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	39	37.5%
Agree	54	51.9%
Not sure	5	4.8%
Disagree	4	3.8%
Strongly Disagree	2	1.9%
Total	104	100%



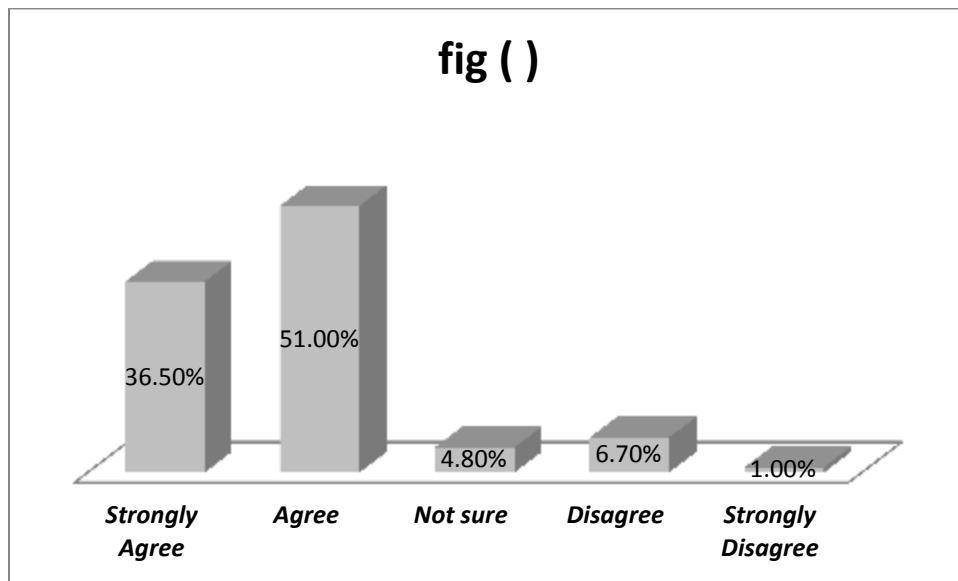
It is clear from the above table No.(4.18) and figure (4.18) that there are (39) persons in the study's sample with percentage (37.5%) strongly agreed with " As a teacher, I believe that the current ESP courses do not develop the students academically and professionally.". There are (54) persons with percentage (51.9%) agreed with that and (5) persons with percentage (4.8 %) were not sure. and (4) persons with percentage (3.8%) disagreed, while (2) persons with percentage (1.9%) strongly disagreed.

Statement No.(19): As a teacher, I think that ESP courses are not appropriately graded. .

Table No (4.19).

The Frequency Distribution for the Respondents’ Answers of Question No.().

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	38	36.5%
Agree	53	51.0%
Not sure	5	4.8%
Disagree	7	6.7%
Strongly Disagree	1	1.0%
Total	104	100%



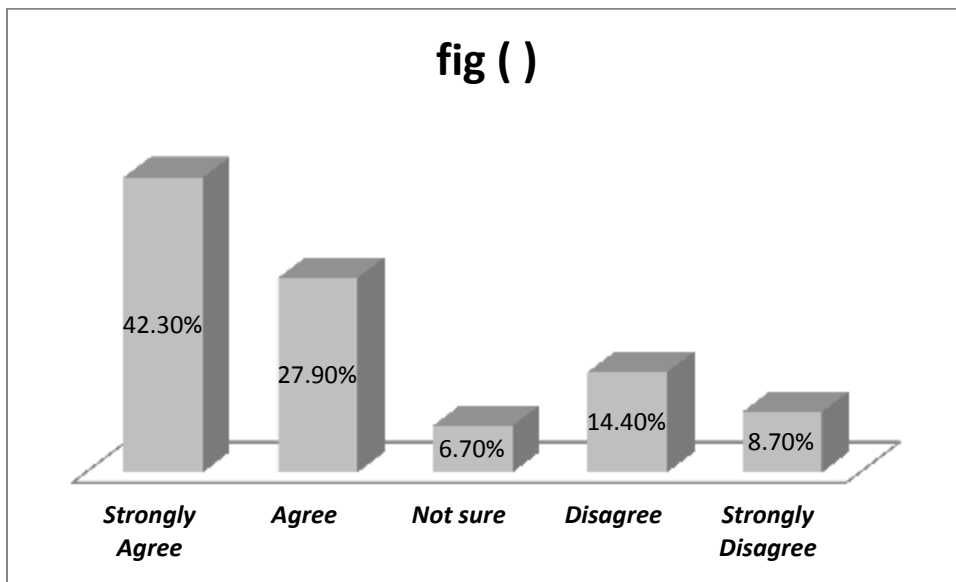
It is clear from the above table No.(4.19) and figure (4.19) that there are (36.5) persons in the study's sample with percentage (51.0%) strongly agreed “As a teacher, I think that ESP courses are not appropriately graded. ” .There are (54) persons with percentage (51.0%) agreed with that and (5) persons with percentage (4.8 %) were not sure. and (7) persons with percentage (6.7%) disagreed, while (1) persons with percentage (1.0%) strongly disagreed.

Statement No.(20): As a teacher, I think that sufficient ESP competence is required for communication tasks

Table No (4.20)

The frequency distribution for the respondents' answers of question No.()

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	44	42.3%
Agree	29	27.9%
Not sure	7	6.7%
Disagree	15	14.4%
Strongly Disagree	9	8.7%
Total	104	100%



It is clear from the above table no.(4.20) and figure (4.20) that there are (36.5) persons in the study's sample with percentage (51.0%) strongly agreed with " As a teacher, I think that sufficient ESP competence is required for communication tasks.". There are (54) persons with percentage (51.0%) agreed with that and (5) persons with percentage (4.8 %) were not sure. and (7) persons with percentage (6.7%) disagreed, while (1) persons with percentage (1.0%) strongly disagreed.

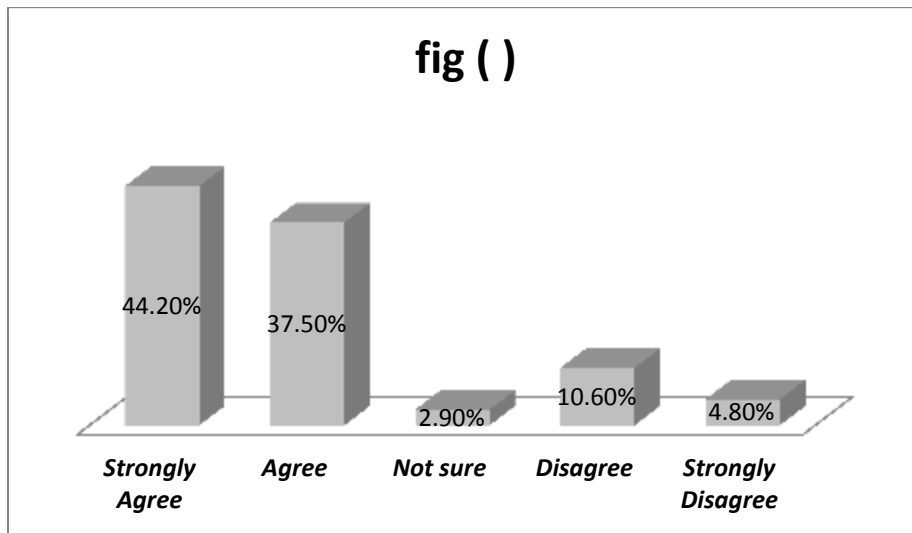
Hypothesis (3): ESP courses at Sudanese Universities do not enhance students' communicative competence.

Statement No.(21): The aspect and terms in ESP courses have nothing to do with students' communicative competence.

Table No (4.21).

The Frequency Distribution for the Respondents' Answers of Question No.()

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	46	44.2%
Agree	39	37.5%
Not sure	3	2.9%
Disagree	11	10.6%
Strongly Disagree	5	4.8%
Total	104	100%



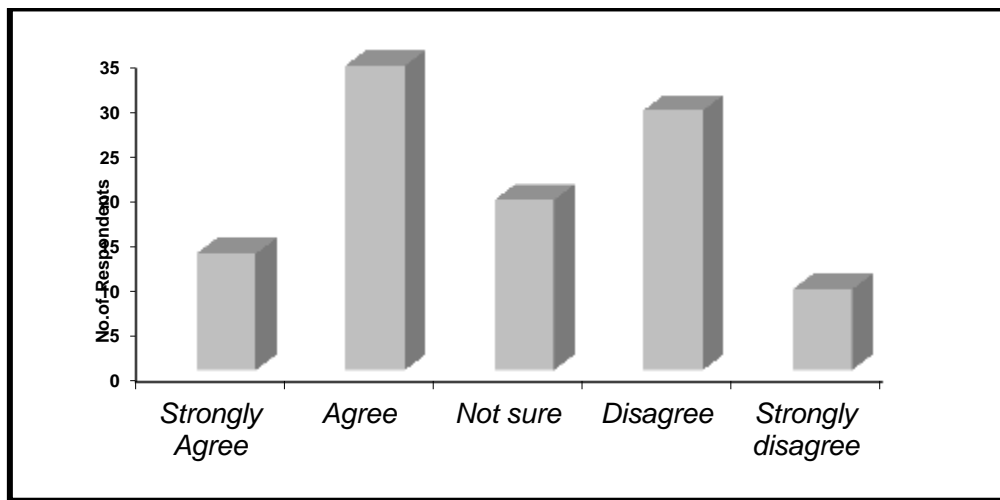
It is clear from the above table No.(4.21) and figure (4.21) that there are (46) persons in the study's sample with percentage (44.2%) strongly agreed with “The aspect and terms in ESP courses have nothing to do with students' communicative competence ”. There are (39) persons with percentage (37.5%) agreed with that and (3) persons with percentage (2.9 %) were not sure. and (11) persons with percentage (10.6%) disagreed, while (5) persons with percentage (4.8%) strongly disagreed.

Statement no.(22): ESP courses do not include detailed overview of the function structure and vocabulary that enhance communicative competence.

Table No (4.22).

The Frequency Distribution for the Respondents' Answers of Question No.()

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	13	12.5%
Agree	34	32.7%
Not sure	19	18.3%
Disagree	29	27.9%
Strongly Disagree	9	8.7%
Total	104	100%



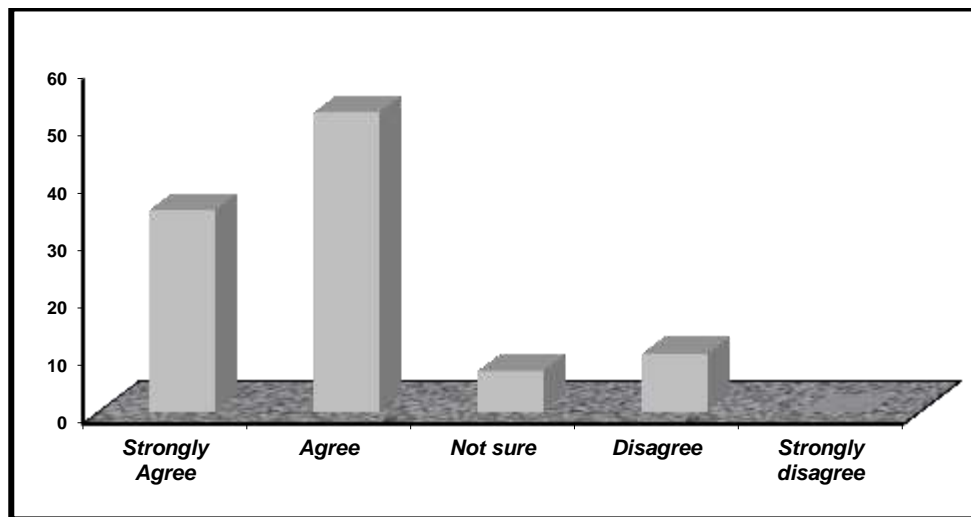
It is clear from the above table No.(4.22) and figure No (4.22) that there are (13) persons in the study's sample with percentage (12.5%) strongly agreed with " ESP courses do not include detailed overview of the function structure and vocabulary that enhance communicative competence. ". There are (34) persons with percentage (32.7%) agreed, and (19) persons with percentage (18.3%) were not sure, and (29) persons with percentage (27.9%) disagreed, while (9) persons with percentage (8.7%) strongly disagreed.

Statement No.(23): ESP courses are not designed to meet the specific needs of the students in communicative competence.

Table No (4.23).

The Frequency Distribution for the Respondents' Answers of Question No.().

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	35	33.7%
Agree	52	50.0%
Not sure	7	6.7%
Disagree	10	9.6%
Strongly Disagree	0	0.0%
Total	104	100%



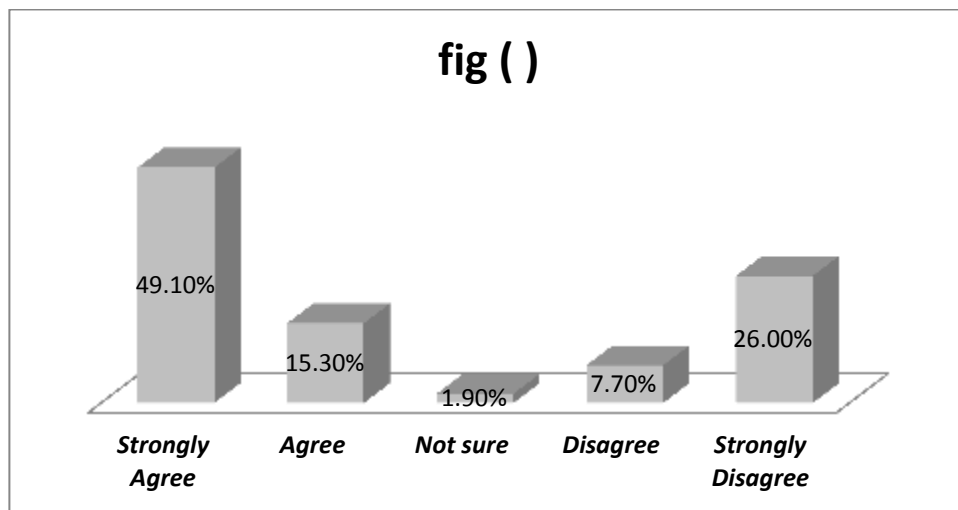
It is clear from the above table No.(4.23) and figure No (4.23) that there are (35) persons in the study's sample with percentage (33.7%) strongly agreed with " ESP courses are not designed to meet the specific needs of the students in communicative competence" . "There are (52) persons with percentage (50.0%) agreed, and (7) persons with percentage (6.7%) were not sure, and (10) persons with percentage (9.6%) disagreed.

Statement No.(24): ESP courses do not use context, text, and situation from the students' subject area.

Table No (4.24).

The Frequency Distribution for the Respondents' Answers of Question No.()

Valid	Frequency	Percent
Strongly Agree	51	49.1%
Agree	16	15.3%
Not sure	2	1.9%
Disagree	8	7.7%
Strongly Disagree	27	26.0%
Total	104	100%



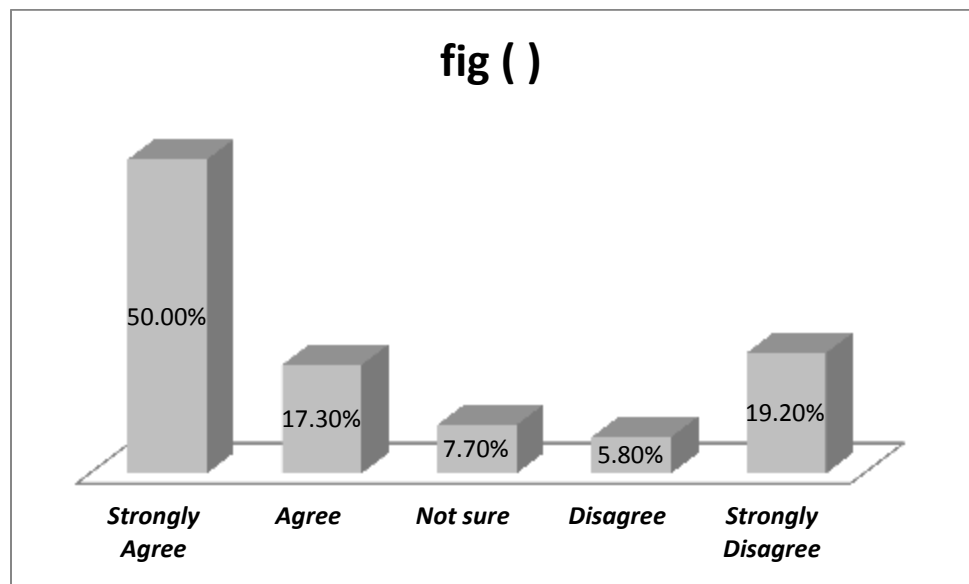
It is clear from the above table No.(4.24) and figure No (4.24) that there are (50) persons in the study's sample with percentage (48.1%) strongly agreed with " ESP courses do not use context, text, and situation from the students' subject area. "There are (17) persons with percentage (16.3%) agreed, and(2) persons with percentage (1.9%) were not sure, and (8) persons with percentage (7.7%) disagree, while (27) persons with percentage (26.0%) strongly disagreed.

Statement No.(25): Learning the functions existed in ESP courses will not preserved in the mind of students after their graduation to serve their communicative competence.

Table No (4.25).

The Frequency Distribution for the Respondents' Answers of Question No.(2).

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	52	50.0%
Agree	18	17.3%
Not sure	8	7.7%
Disagree	6	5.8%
Strongly Disagree	20	19.2%
Total	104	100%



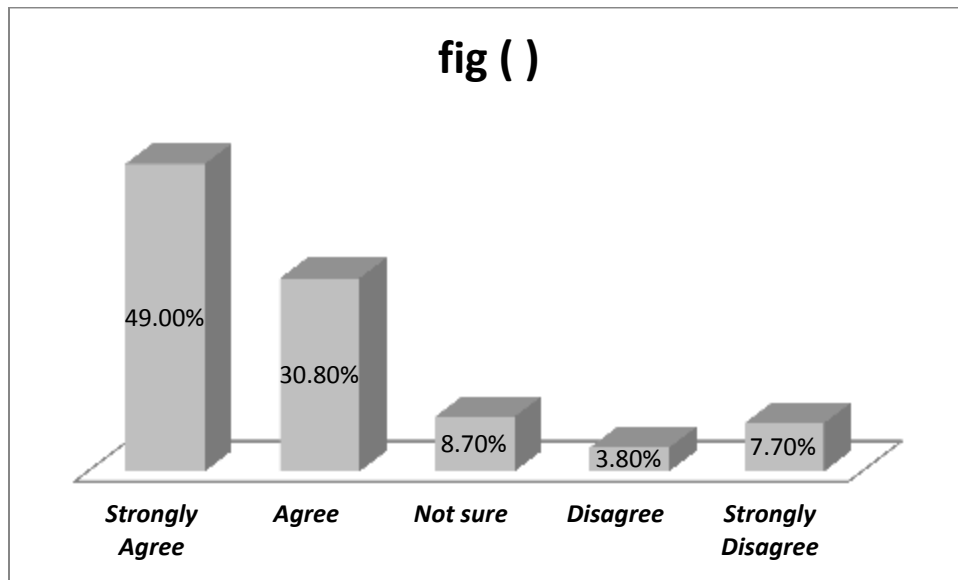
It is clear from the above table No.(4.25) and figure No (4.25) that there are () persons in the study's sample with percentage (50.0%) strongly agreed with Learning the functions existed in ESP courses will not preserved in the mind of students after their graduation to serve their communicative competence. ". There are (18) persons with percentage (17.3%) agreed, and(8) persons with percentage (7.7%) were not sure, and (6) persons with percentage (5.8%) disagree, while (20) persons with percentage (19.2%) strongly disagreed.

Statement No.(26): ESP courses are not centered on skill, discourse and genres appropriate to the students activities

Table No (4.26).

The Frequency Distribution for the Respondents' Answers of Question No.().

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	51	49.0%
Agree	32	30.8%
Not sure	9	8.7%
Disagree	4	3.8%
Strongly Disagree	8	7.7%
Total	104	100%



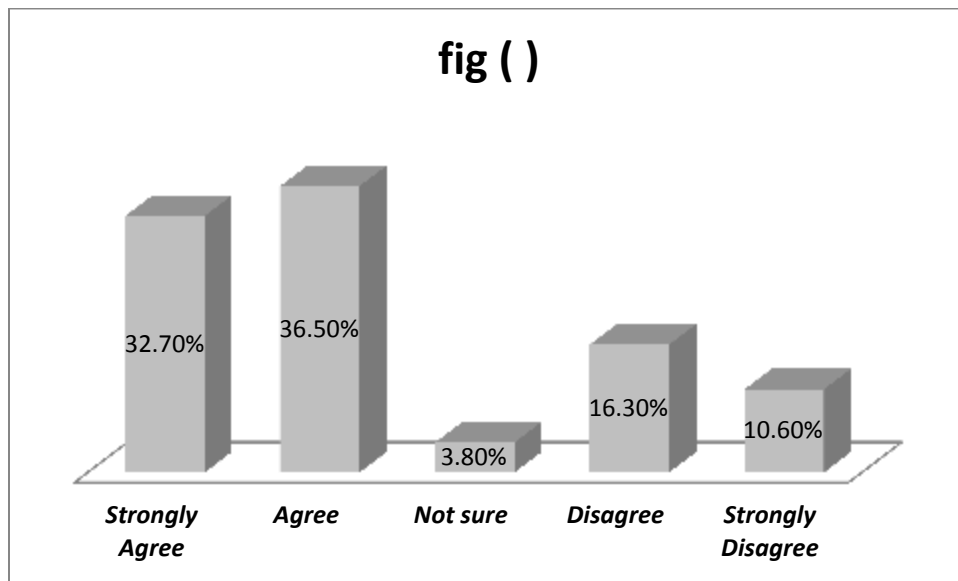
It is clear from table No.(4.26) and figure No (4,26) that there are (51) persons in the study's sample with percentage (49.0%) strongly agreed with " ESP courses are not centered on skill, discourse and genres appropriate to the students activities". There are (32) persons with percentage (30.80%) agreed with that, and (9) persons with percentage (8.7%) were not sure about that, and (4) persons with percentage (3.80%) disagreed, while (8) persons with percentage (7.7%) strongly disagreed.

Statement No.(27): ESP courses do not facilitate the interaction among students with teachers, the environment and other learning sources.

Table No (4.27)

The Frequency Distribution for the Respondents' Answers of Question No.().

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	34	32.7%
Agree	38	36.5%
Not sure	4	3.8%
Disagree	17	16.3%
Strongly Disagree	11	10.6%
Total	104	100%



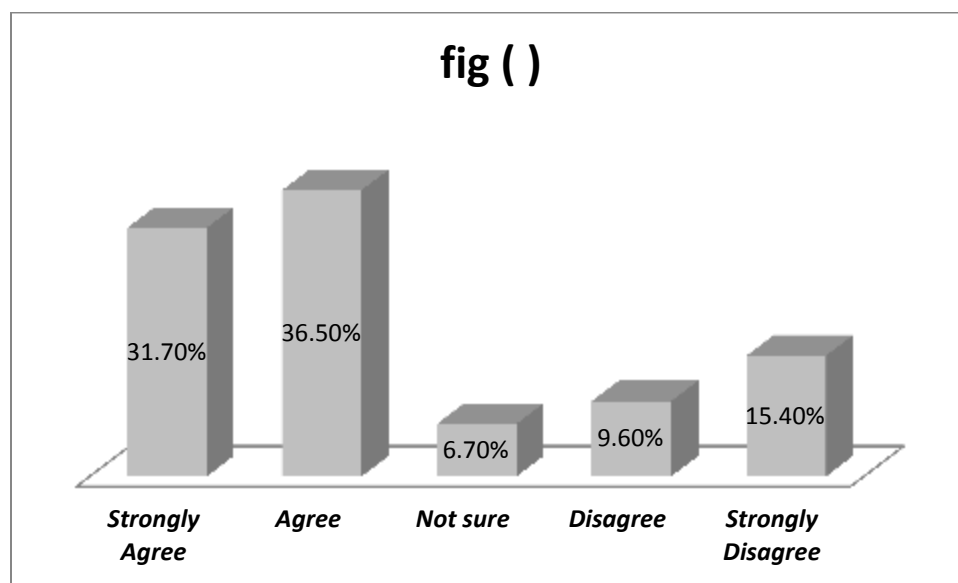
It is clear from the above table No.(4.27) and figure (4.27) that there are (34) persons in the study's sample with percentage (32.7%) strongly agreed with “ESP courses do not facilitate the interaction among students with teachers, the environment and other learning sources”. There are (38) persons with percentage (36.5%) agreed with that, and (4) persons with percentage (3.8%) were not sure. and (17) persons with percentage (16.3%) disagreed, while (11) persons with percentage (10.6%) strongly disagreed.

Statement No.(28): Effectiveness, appropriateness, and feasibility of the ESP courses are not satisfactory to students' interest in language level.

Table No (4.28).

The Frequency Distribution for the Respondents' Answers of Question No.().

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	33	31.7%
Agree	38	36.5%
Not sure	7	6.7%
Disagree	10	9.6%
Strongly Disagree	16	15.4%
Total	104	100%



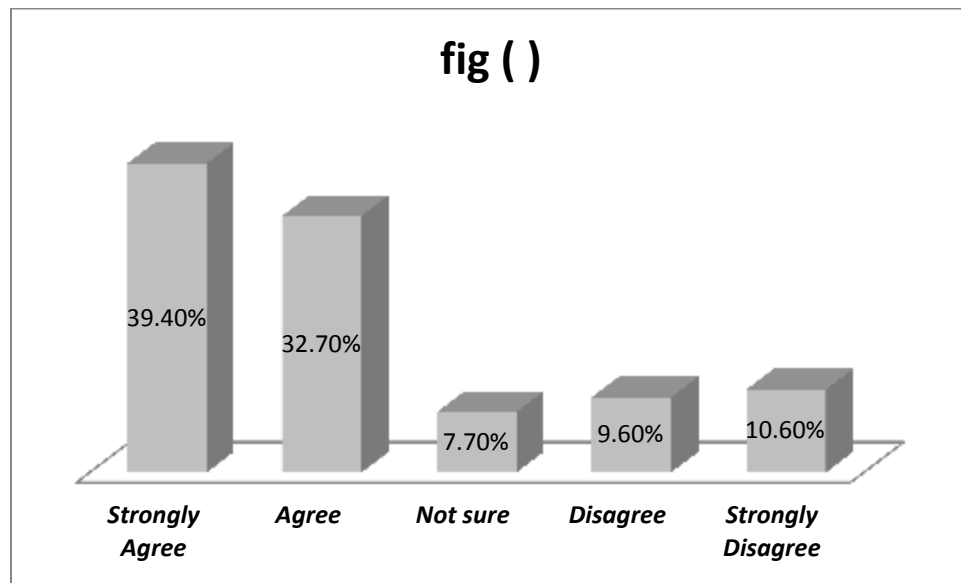
It is clear from the above table No.(4.28) and figure (4.28) that there are (33) persons in the study's sample with percentage (31.7%) strongly agreed with " Effectiveness, appropriateness, and feasibility of the ESP courses are not satisfactory to students' interest in language level". There are (38) persons with percentage (36.5%) agreed with that and (7) persons with percentage (6.7%) were not sure. and (10) persons with percentage (9.6%) disagreed, while (16) persons with percentage (15.4%) strongly disagreed.

Statement No.(29): Many topics in ESP courses do not reflect the students' needs in communication.

Table No (4.29).

The Frequency Distribution for the Respondents' Answers of Question No.()

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	41	39.4%
Agree	34	32.7%
Not sure	8	7.7%
Disagree	10	9.6%
Strongly Disagree	11	10.6%
Total	104	100%



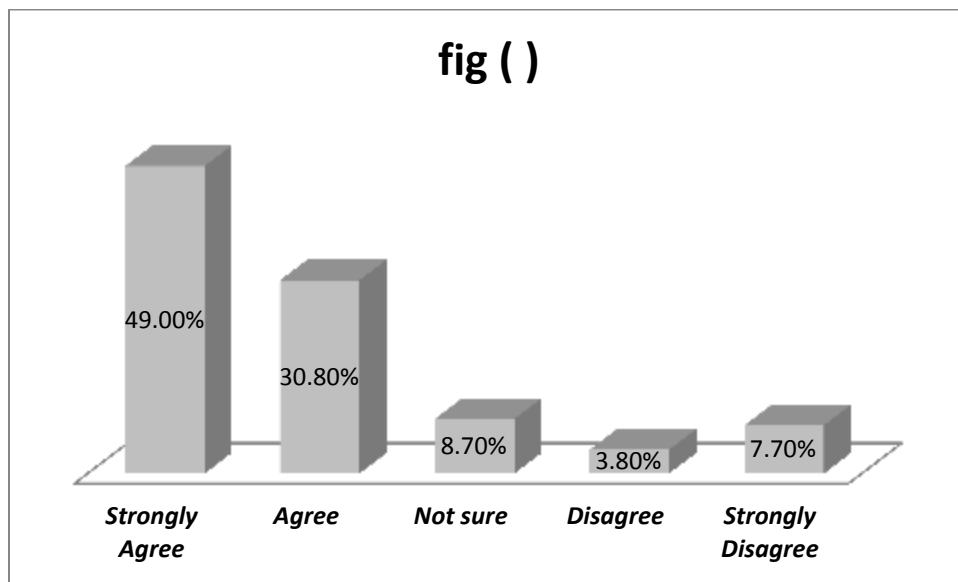
It is clear from the above table No.(4.29) and figure (4.29) that there are (41) persons in the study's sample with percentage (39.4%) strongly agreed with " Many topics in ESP courses do not reflect the students' needs in communication "There are (34) persons with percentage (32.7%) agreed with that and (8) persons with percentage (7.7%) were not sure. and (10) persons with percentage (9.6%) disagreed, while (11) persons with percentage (10.6%) strongly disagreed.

Statement No.(30): ESP courses do not help the students to comprehend and write short ESP situation.

Table No (4.26).

The Frequency Distribution for the Respondents' Answers of Question No.().

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	51	49.0%
Agree	32	30.8%
Not sure	9	8.7%
Disagree	4	3.8%
Strongly Disagree	8	7.7%
Total	104	100%



It is clear from table No.(4.26) and figure No (4,26) that there are (51) persons in the study's sample with percentage (49.0%) strongly agreed with " ESP courses do not help the students to comprehend and write short ESP situation ". There are (32) persons with percentage (30.80%) agreed with that, and (9) persons with percentage (8.7%) were not sure about that, and (4) persons with percentage (3.80%) disagreed, while (8) persons with percentage (7.7%) strongly disagree

4.2. Test of the Study's Hypotheses

To answer the study questions and check its hypotheses, the mean and standard deviation will be computed for each question from the questionnaire that shows the opinions of the study respondents about the problems .To do that, we will give five degrees for each answer "strongly agree", four degrees for each answer "agree", three degrees for each answer "neutral", two degrees with each answer "disagree", and one degree for each answer with "strongly disagree ". This means, in accordance with the statistical analysis requirements, transformation of nominal variables to quantitative variables. After that, we will use the non-parametric chi-square test to know if there are statistical differences amongst the respondents' answers about hypotheses questions

Chi –square test for hypothesis NO (1): ESP courses at Sudanese universities do not fulfill the students’ needs in communication.

Table (4.31)

Nom	Statement	mean	SD	Chi square	p-value
1	1/ ESP students are unable to produce simple discourses for the adequate basic function.	2.7	4.1	22	0.000
2	2/ ESP students are unable to express various utterances in communication.	2.6	0.5	19	0.000
3	3/ ESP students are unable to comprehend lectures in English and take notes and dictation in English	2.5	0.9	31	0.000
4	4/ ESP students are unable to report the exploration actively in written form individually or in a group.	2.9	1.6	22	0.000
5	5/ ESP students are unable to talk about a text in new ways	2.6	0.7	36	0.000
6	6/ ESP students are unable to formulate ideas more precisely.	2.7	1.5	23	0.000
7	7/ ESP students are unable to think in English and build linguistic competence as well as performance	2.8	2.1	27	0.000
8	8/ ESP students are unable to apply grammatical points in both spoken and written form..	2.7	1.5	29	0.000
9	9/ ESP students are unable to	2.6	0.5	34	0.000

	communicate effectively using visuals, symbolic and/or language skills in various modes.				
10	10/ ESP students are unable to know different types of messages and the discourse , stylistic and their proper application.	2.4	1.6	27	0.000

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the statement No (1) was (22) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.8) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which support the respondents who agreed with the statement "ESP students are unable to produce simple discourses for the adequate basic function

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the statement No (2) was (19) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is(2.6) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which support the respondents who agreed with the statement "ESP students are unable to express various utterances in communication.

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the statement No (3) was (31) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value

level (5%) which was (11.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.5) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which support the respondents who agreed with the statement “ESP students are unable to comprehend lectures in English and take notes and dictation in English”

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent’s answers in the statement No (4) was (22) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.9) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which support the respondents who agreed with the statement “ESP students are unable to report the exploration actively in written form individually or in a group.

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent’s answers in the statement No (5) was (32) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.6) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which support the respondents who agreed with the statement “ESP students are unable to talk about a text in new ways.

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent’s answers in the statement No (6) was (23) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant

differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.7) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which support the respondents who agreed with the statement “ESP students are unable to formulate ideas more precisely

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent’s answers in the statement No (7) was (27) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.8) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which support the respondents who agreed with the statement “ESP students are unable to think in English and build linguistic competence as well as performance

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent’s answers in the statement No (8) was (29) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.7) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which support the respondents who agreed with the statement “ESP students are unable to apply grammatical points in both spoken and written form.

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent’s answers in the statement No (9) was (34) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.6) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which

support the respondents who agreed with the statement “/ESP students are unable to communicate effectively using visuals, symbolic and/or language skills in various modes.

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent’s answers in the statement No (10) was (27) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.4) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which support the respondents who agreed with the statement “ESP students are unable to know different types of messages and the discourse, stylistic and their proper application”.

According to the previous results the hypothesis NO (1) is accepted

Table (4.32) Chi –square test for hypothesis NO (2) ESP teachers at Sudanese Universities have negative attitudes towards ESP courses in developing students’ communicative competence.

Nom	Statement	mean	SD	Chi square	p-value
1	11/As a teacher, I believe that the content of ESP courses are covered properly to develop students’ communicative competence.	2.8	2.1	27	0.000
2	12/ As a teacher, I believe that the ESP courses which are taught at universities are not revised and developed regularly.	2.7	1.5	29	0.000
3	13 As a teacher, I believe that the activities inside the lass do not help the students to improve their communicative competence.	2.6	0.5	34	0.000
4	14/ Most of the ESP. courses concentrate on structure and grammar rather than communicative competence.	2.4	1.6	27	0.000
5	15/ As a teacher, I believe that the limited use of ESP books as references caused insufficient ESP competence	2.9	2.7	23	0.000
6	16 As a teacher, I believe that the draw backs in ESP materials are due to the absence of syllabus design.	2.7	1.5	30	0.000
7	17/ESP materials which are taught to students in Sudanese higher institutions do not match students’	2.8	2.1	27	0.000

	target needs				
8	18/ As a teacher, I believe that the current ESP courses do not develop the students academically and professionally.	2.7	1.5	29	0.000
9	19/ As a teacher, I think that ESP courses are not appropriately graded	2.6	0.5	34	0.000
10	20/ As a teacher, I think that sufficient ESP competence is required for communication tasks.	2.4	1.6	27	0.000

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the statement No (11) was (27) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.8) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which support the respondents who agreed with the statement / As a teacher, I believe that the content of ESP courses are covered properly to develop students' communicative competence.

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the statement No (12) was (29) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.7) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which support the respondents who agreed with the statement "As a teacher, I believe that

the ESP courses which are taught at universities are not revised and developed regularly.

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the statement No (13) was (34) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.6) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which support the respondents who agreed with the statement "As a teacher, I believe that the activities inside the lass do not help the students to improve their communicative competence.

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the statement No (14) was (27) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is(2.4) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which support the respondents who agreed with the statement / Most of the ESP. courses concentrate on structure and grammar rather than communicative competence.

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the statement No (15) was (23) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.9) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which support the respondents who agreed with the statement "As a teacher, I believe that the limited use of ESP books as references caused insufficient ESP competence

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the statement No (16) was (30) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.7) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which support the respondents who agreed with the statement As a teacher, I believe that the draw backs in ESP materials are due to the absence of syllabus design.

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the statement No (17) was (27) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.8) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which support the respondents who agreed with the statement "ESP materials which are taught to students in Sudanese higher institutions do not match students' target needs

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the statement No (18) was (29) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.7) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which support the respondents who agreed with the statement "As a teacher, I believe that the current ESP courses do not develop the students academically and professionally.

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the statement No (19) was (34) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.6) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which support the respondents who agreed with the statement "As a teacher, I think that ESP courses are not appropriately graded

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the statement No (20) was (27) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.4) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which support the respondents who agreed with the statement "As a teacher, I think that sufficient ESP competence is required for communication tasks *According to the previous results the hypothesis NO (2) is accepted.*

Table (4.33) Chi –square test for hypothesis NO (3) ESP courses at Sudanese Universities do not enhance the students’ communicative competence.

Nom	Statement	mean	SD	Chi square	p-value
1	21/ The aspects and terms in ESP courses have nothing to do with students’ communicative competence.	2.8	3.4	25	0.000
2	22/ ESP courses do not include detailed overview of the function structures and vocabulary that enhance communicative competence.	2.5	1.5	19	0.000
3	23 ESP courses are not designed to meet the specific needs of the students in communicative competence	2.4	0.9	31	0.000
4	24/ ESP courses do not do not use context, text, and situation from the students’ subject area.	2.9	1.6	25	0.000
5	25/ Learning the functions existed in ESP courses will not preserved in the mind of the students after the graduation to serve their communicative competence.	2.6	0.7	36	0.000
6	26 /ESP courses are not centered on skill, discourse and genres appropriate to the other activities.	2.8	0.6	22	0.000

7	27/ESP courses do not facilitate the interaction among students with teachers and other learning sources.	3.1	3.5	38	0.001
8	28/ Effectiveness, appropriateness and feasibility of the ESP courses are not satisfactory to students' interest in the language level.	2.8	0.6	24	0.000
9	29/ Many topics in ESP courses do not reflect the students' needs in communication	3.2	3.5	33	0.001
10	30/ ESP courses do not do not help the students to comprehend and write short ESP situation.	3.1	4	22	0.000

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the statement No (21) was (25) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.8) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which support the respondents who agreed with the statement. "The aspects and terms in ESP courses have nothing to do with students' communicative competence.

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the statement No (22) was (19) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.5) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which support the respondents who agreed with the statement "ESP courses do not

include detailed overview of the function structures and vocabulary that enhance communicative competence.

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the statement No (23) was (31) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.4) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which support the respondents who agreed with the statement "ESP courses are not designed to meet the specific needs of the students in communicative competence

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the statement No (24) was (31) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is(2.4) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which support the respondents who agreed with the statement "ESP courses do not do not use context, text, and situation from the students' subject area.

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the statement No (25) was (25) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is(2.9) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which support the respondents who agreed with the statement "Learning the functions existed in ESP courses will not preserved in the mind of the students after the graduation to serve their communicative competence.

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the statement No (26) was (36) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.6) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which support the respondents who agreed with the statement "ESP courses are not centered on skill, discourse and genres appropriate to the other activities

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the statement No (27) was (22) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.8) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which support the respondents who agreed with the statement ".ESP courses do not facilitate the interaction among students with teachers and other learning sources.

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the statement No (28) was (38) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (3.1) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which support the respondents who agreed with the statement "/ Effectiveness, appropriateness and feasibility of the ESP courses are not satisfactory to students' interest in the language level.

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the statement No (29) was (24) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.8) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which support the respondents who agreed with the statement many topics in ESP courses do not reflect the students' needs in communication

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the statement No (30) was (33) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (3.2) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which support the respondents who agreed with the statement "ESP courses do not do not help the students to comprehend and write short ESP situation

According to the previous results the hypothesis NO (3) is accepted.

4.3. The Analysis of the Interview Questions

The results of the questionnaire were not sufficient to fully understand and find answers to the research questions. Another tool needs to be analyzed by experts who can provide us with fruitful information; therefore, an interview was designed for ESP teachers in colleges of Health at University of Khartoum. The purpose of the interview in this study was mainly to supplement the findings of the data collected through questionnaire by Eliciting responses not dealt with in the questionnaire. Interviews were chosen purposefully which would help enhance the reliability of the research data. Interviews were carried out with five experts.

In order to help the participants to freely elaborate on their answers, each participant was given enough time to think of the questions.

The following are their perceptions as revealed in the interview:

In response to the first question “How many years have you been teaching ESP at University”?

Their years of experience ranged between six to eleven and all of them have experience in teaching ESP courses at their Universities and colleges.

With regard to the second question “Do you think that ESP courses are important to your students in developing their communicative competence?”

The experts' answers generally were as follows:

The five experts agree that ESP course is important so, their answer were “yes” because they cannot understand, read, write or speak in any target career without having competence in English. They strongly believe that having a good command of English is one of the most important aspects of career development in any field.

Concerning the third question “How many courses have you undertaken in ESP?”

Two of them attended three courses, another two attended five courses and one attended seven courses.

When discussing the fourth question “How satisfied are you with the current ESP course in improving students’ communication awareness?”

They all answered with “no” because they think that the course does not achieve students’ needs in future career, the course ignores agriculture terms, the course does not determine need analysis in the College of Agriculture. No attention is given to writing skill as needed to write paragraph about agriculture.

As far as the fifth question is concerned “How do you assess the ESP course in your college?”

They all believe that the course was not effective in meeting students’ academic and work needs; they also think that the course does not prepare students well in their future career and work requirement.

With regard to the sixth question “What problems do your students at ESP courses encounter and why?”

The experts think that students have problems in listening and speaking because textbooks are based on western culture which is difficult for our students to understand. Another problem to them is that students join this college with weak background of English in all skills. They also think that the textbook causes both teachers and students tiredness and it is time-consuming. Students feel shy of participating and they lack competence as well.

In response to the seventh question “What suggestion would you like to make for improvement of the ESP course more effective and relevant to students’ needs?”

They gave the following responses;

The present course should be changed; the focus should be on students’ field. Currently, students are expected to expose to Health Science in put in only one

subject which is agriculture terminology. They also think that more time is needed as the course is very short, technology should be used, textbooks should include Health Science topics and the current assessment scheme should be changed. They further think that students should be tested before admission and giving remedial courses for all students in need. Teachers training are also very important. There is urgent need for more well qualified teachers because we suffer from a shortage of teaching staff. Choosing more integrated textbooks, increasing the hours of English teaching per week because they think the time available now to learn English language in Agriculture College is too little. Students need more time one learning English in order to reach a level where they can follow their academic studies. As for the eighth and last questions asking about their comment, they did not give any comment. They just responded with “no, thank you”.

4.4. Summary of the Chapter

This chapter is devoted to the analysis, interpretation and discussion of the study. It presented full details of the questionnaire and interview. The finding, conclusions and discussions and recommendation will be discussed in the following chapter.

Chapter Five
Main Findings, Conclusion, Recommendations and
Suggestions for Further Studies

Chapter Five

Main Findings, Conclusion, Recommendations and Suggestions for Further Studies

5.1. Introduction

In this final chapter, the results of the study obtained from the questionnaire and interview are presented and conclusion regarding the results is deduced. The chapter is then followed by recommendation and suggestions for further research.

5.2. Main Findings

The findings consist of the data obtained through questionnaire and interview to investigate the EFL teachers' attitudes towards using ESP courses in developing students' communicative competence.

1. The research findings indicate that ESP courses at Health Science Colleges at Sudanese universities do not fulfill the students' needs in communication. Students are unable to produce simple discourses for the adequate basic function; they are unable to express various utterances in communication. They are unable to report the exploration activity in written form individually or in group. They are unable to talk, think, and formulate a text in new ways.

2. Another finding indicates that ESP teachers at Sudanese universities have negative attitudes towards the current ESP courses in developing students' communicative competence. ESP teachers believe that the content of ESP courses are not covered properly to develop students' communicative competence. Teachers think that the courses are not revised and developed regularly. According to their opinions, the activities inside the class do not help the students to improve their communicative competence, the courses focus on structure and grammar rather than communicative competence. In addition, the teachers think that courses

are not appropriately graded, do not develop the students academically and professionally. Draw backs in the ESP courses are due to limited use of ESP books, references and materials that are absent in the syllabus design

3. The findings also revealed that ESP courses at Sudanese universities do not enhance the students' communicative competence. The aspect and terms in ESP courses have nothing to do with students' communicative competence. The courses do not include detailed overview of the function structures and vocabulary that enhance communicative competence. The courses are not designed to meet the specific needs of the students in communicative competence. Learning functions existed in the course will not preserved in the mind of the students after their graduation to serve their communicative competence. The courses are not centered on skills, discourses and genres appropriate to their activities. The courses do not facilitate the interaction among students with teachers, the environment and other learning sources. Effectiveness, appropriateness, and feasibility of the courses are not satisfactory to students' needs and interest in language level. Many topics in the courses do not reflect the students' needs in communication. The courses do not help the students to comprehend and write short ESP situation.

5.3. Conclusion

On the basis of the present study, the following conclusions are derived.

The findings revealed that health science students need not only linguistic competence in English, but also certain life skills and technical skills related to language learning that needs to be included into the syllabus to handle real-life situation on completion of their health science course.

This study thus probed the fulfillment of ESP related goals with reference to contexts of the health science studies in Sudanese colleges of health. The existing syllabus of communicative English course fulfills the goals and objectives only

partially the following needs are to be addressed immediately to improve the quality of communicative competence in health science programs

The researcher drew the following conclusions from the findings of the study:

1. One of the important goals of communicative English courses is to equip the students with proper communication skills for effective usage in everyday situation and also manage future workplace situations. This analysis of data collected from students revealed that this goal has been achieved only partially and the teaching and learning practice are to be reoriented to improve the outcomes.
2. Communicative training, exposures to various English speaking accents, creative activities, project report have not been specified in the syllabus, many teachers prepare their own teaching materials to attain these goals
3. Needs assessment of the students with regard to their schooling background, previous language competency, language learning capacity etc. should be taken up before the beginning of the course.
4. The absence of the linguistic competence assessment before the beginning of the language training program, disadvantages students who have no exposure to basic language skills such as listening, speaking, reading and writing should be practiced in classrooms and teachers have to provide personal attention in developing these skills.
5. The findings revealed that students are in urgent need of training for personal development of language skills
6. The ESP teachers need more training in order to improve and develop their performance and competence.
7. Choice in doing assessment should be provided to make learners autonomous. Students need guidance and constructive feedback so that they

could evaluate the activity they involve in, by themselves. This can be done through self-evaluation or peer evaluation.

8. The researcher concludes that needs analysis are required when designing any ESP course in general and health science course in particular. Course evaluation and teachers training are required as well. **5.4.**

Recommendations

Based on the findings of the study, the researcher recommends the following:

1. The importance of determining the English language for specific purposes based on the students' needs and thus designing the courses based on this analysis gathered.
2. ESP courses which are taught in Sudanese universities should be tailored to the students' specific purpose.
3. ESP textbooks in health science could be useful and effective in term of content and needs achievements.
4. The researcher recommends the ESP teachers to give ample practice to students in lab classes to give power points presentations, report writing, project report presentation etc.
5. The researcher recommends an alternative course to fulfill the real needs of the students on the basic standards in designing the ESP courses.
6. Teachers need to be trained in syllabus designs, material production, and formative assessment systems in communicative aspects.
7. Professional development of the English is one of the most neglected aspects in health science colleges. There is the need to establish a Resource centre at the university level for imparting training in language teaching to appear a pretest based on communicative English .

8. The researcher recommends a continuous evaluation system that gives scope for improvement in health science context.
9. Group discussion on different technical topics debates can be organized by students so that they will be in touch with corporate environment. These activities would be of help in promoting oral communication and workplace communication skills
10. The researcher recommends that the syllabus includes tasks that reinforce the achievement of genre skills, life skills, teamwork, critical thinking and problem solving abilities along with effective communication skills. To develop professional competence the awareness of social and cultural aspects related to health sciences' workplace.
11. If the students are provided facilities and guidance in developing technical English skills with proper orientation and practice, they can develop a broad perspective to face future workplace needs.
12. Exposure to corporate culture, interaction with experts from business workplace needs, can empower health science students to be better communicators in their workplace.

5.5. Suggestions for Further Researches

Based on the findings of the present study, the researcher suggests that further research should be carried out in the following areas. Some of the areas that can still be investigated are:

1. In order to investigate the EFL teachers' attitudes towards using ESP courses in developing students' communicative competence, there is a need for more research to focus on detailed understanding of both teachers and students' attitudes in the same field.
2. More linguistic researches must be done to both ESP teachers and bilingual instruction to attract attention of the national educational administration.

3. It is hoped that this study can pave the way for other research to be carried and in other fields other than health science colleges.
4. The study concentrates on communicative competence, so other skills should be examined separately.
5. The study deals with EFL learners at university level, so other students in other educational level should be examined.
6. Doing some researches of ESP in particular subjects such as engineering, agriculture etc.

5.6. Summary of the Chapter

This chapter is the final chapter of the present study. It presented the main findings. Conclusion, recommendation, suggestions for further studies

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Appendices

Appendix (1)

Teacher's Questionnaire

This questionnaire serves as a data collection tool for research that aims to investigate the impact of EFL teachers' attitudes Towards ESP (English for specific purpose) courses on developing communicative competence in Sudanese universities . I would very much appreciate your contribution if you could take the time and energy to share your experience by responding to the statements below:

Your answers are a surely very important and rich help for the completion of this work.

Please tick (✓) the choice that best represents your response.

Personal Information:

1.0 Sex:

1 Male () Female ()

2.0 Degrees (held):

1- BA Higher Diploma MA PH-D

3.0 Years of experience:

4 From 1 – 5 from 6 – 10 from 11 – 15
More than 15

4.0 Age

- from 25 – 35 from 36 – 40
- More than 50

5.0 Statements:

a) Agree strongly agree Neutral
Disagree strongly disagree

No	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
ESP courses at Sudanese universities do not fulfill the students' needs in communication					
1/ ESP students are unable to produce simple discourses for the adequate basic functions.					
2/ ESP students are unable to express various utterances in communication.					
3/ ESP students are unable to comprehend lectures in English and take notes and dictation in English.					
4/ ESP students are unable to report the exploration activity, in oral or written from individually or in group.					
5/ ESP students are unable to talk and think about a text in new ways.					
6/ ESP students are unable to formulate and articulate ideas more precisely.					
7/ ESP students are unable to think in English and build linguistic competence as well as performance.					
8/ ESP students are unable to apply all grammatical points in both spoken and written English.					
9/ ESP students are unable to communicate effectively using visuals, symbolic, and/or language skills in various models.					
10/ ESP students are unable to know different types of messages and the discourse/ stylistic features and their proper application.					
ESP teachers at Sudanese Universities have negative attitudes towards the ESP courses in developing students' communicative competence.					
11/ As a teacher, I believe that the contents of ESP courses are not covered					

properly to develop students' communicative competence.					
12/As a teacher, I believe that the ESP courses which are taught at university are not revised and developed regularly.					
13/As a teacher, I believe that the ESP activities inside the class do not help the students to improve their communicative competence.					
14/ Most of the ESP courses concentrate on structure and grammar rather than communicative competence.					
15/ As a teacher, I believe, limited use of ESP books as references caused insufficient ESP competence.					
16/ As a teacher I believe, draw backs in Esp. materials are due to the absence of syllabus design.					
17/ ESP materials, which are taught to students in Sudanese higher institutions do not match the students' learning and target needs.					
18/ As a teacher, I believe, the current ESP courses do not develop the students academically and professionally.					
19/ As a teacher I think, ESP courses are not appropriately grades.					
20/ As a teacher, I think, sufficient ESP competence is required for communication tasks.					
ESP courses at Sudanese universities do not enhance the students' communicative competence.					
21/ The aspects and terms in ESP courses have nothing to do with students' communicative competence.					
22/ ESP courses do not include detailed overview of the function structures and					

vocabulary that enhance communicative competence.					
23/ ESP courses are not designed to meet student's specific needs in communicative competence.					
24/ ESP courses do not use context, text, and situation from the students' subject area.					
25/ Learning the functions existed in ESP courses will no preserved in the mind of students after their graduation to serve their communicative competence					
26/ESP courses are not centered on skills, discourses and genres appropriate to these activities.					
27/ ESP courses do not facilitate the interaction among students with teachers, the environment and other learning sources.					
28/ Effectiveness, appropriateness and feasibility of ESP courses are not satisfactory to students' interest in language level.					
29/ Many topics in ESP courses do not reflect the students' needs in communication.					
30/ ESP courses do not help the students to comprehend and write short ESP situation.					

Appendix (2)

ESP Experts' Interview

1. How many Years have you been teaching ESP courses at University?
2. Do you think that ESP courses are important to your students in developing their communicative competence?
3. How many courses have you undertaken in ESP?
4. How satisfied are you with the current ESP course in improving students' communication awareness ?
5. How do you assess the ESP course in your college?
6. What problems do your students in ESP course encounter and why?
7. What suggestion/s would you like to make for improvement of the ESP course more effective and relevant to students' needs?
8. Would you like to comment, or add any further information (If any) ?

You are welcome-----