Sudan University of Science And Technology
College of Graduate Studies
Designing an WSP Syllabus for Hotel And Tourism Students

تصميم منهج لغة إنجليزية للأغراض الخاصة لطلاب الفندقة والسياحة

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Dedication

To My Mother

Acknowledgment

These efforts are a result of successive struggling. This struggling was so difficult. There were a number of factors assisted the researcher in over-coming these difficulties and barriers. There are people who always spend their time juts for helping people, They are candles that burn themselves to give light for other. Here the researcher in brief sends them his thanks for their great help.

Thank are due to my mother, who always provides me with the ambition, since. I recognize the joy of my success in her eyes. Respectable thank for Dr. Abdulgadir Mohammed . The supervisor who was the idol professor in my life.

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Finally , warm thanks to my all family members , friends and colleagues . wishing them all the best .

Abstract

ESP syllabus for Hotels and Tourism Students at the technological college of Port Sudan is considered as a prerequisite cause in obtaining Diploma in Hotels and Tourismstudies.The present study aims at identifying the language needs, wants, lacks of the students of Hotels and Tourism in Port Sudan technological college. Also it is designed to suggest an ESP course for students suiting on their actual needs and achieving the goals of HT on the other hand. It will explore the meaning of terms such as syllabus, curriculum, course and needs analysis. To explore the ways in which the syllabuses can be specified, categorized and described.. The study adopts the descriptive analytical method. The data for te study were collected by means of a questionnaire and an interview. The data collected were analyzed by the (SPSS) programme. As a result of analysis its found that. The students need to learn the four skills of language and speaking skills is more preferred. The students need a class room environment that support them in pair and group works. They need to learn English by They need to be the centre of the learning process and the role of the teacher is that of facilitator.

Based on these findings its recommend that, there should be extensive practices mainly in speaking skills. Class environment should be motivated to   use pair and group works. Allowing students enough time using the language

المستخلص

الانجليزية للأغراض الخاصة لطلاب الفندقة و السياحة في كلية بورتسودان التقانية يعتبر متطلب في نيل درجة الدبلوم فى دراسات الفندقة و السياحة. والدراسة الحالية تهدف لتحديد الحاجات والمتطلبات و النواقص اللغوية لطلاب الفندقة و السياحة في كلية بورتسودان التقانية. أيضا تم تصميم هذه الدراسة لتقترح منهجا للغة الانجليزية للطلاب يناسب حاجاتهم الفعلية و يحقق أهداف الفندقة و السياحة. على صعيد آخر ستوضح الدراسة معاني المفردات كالمنهج، المقرر و تحليل الاحتياجات. ستوضح الطرق التي من خلالها يتم تحديد، تصنيف و وصف المنهج. الدراسة تبنت المنهج الوصفي التحليلي.تم جمع بيانات هذه الدراسة من خلال الاستبانة و المقابلات الشخصية.ةقد تم تحليل البيانات من خلال برنامج الأحزمة الاحصائية.كنتيجة للتحليل توصلت الدراسة الى أن الطلاب في حاجة الى دراسة مهارات اللغة مع تفضيل مهارة التحدث. الطلاب في حاجة الى بيئه فصلية تساعدهم في الأنشطة الزوجية و الجماعية. يحتاجون لتعلم الانجليزية بطريقة حل المشكلات. يحتاجون أن يكونوا محورا للعملية التعلمية و دور المعلم فيها اشرافي و تسهيلي. و استنادا على هذه المخرجات أوصت الدراسة بتكثيف الأنشطة و خاصة مهارة التحدث. البيئة الفصلية يجب ان تكون محفزة للأنشطة الزوجية و الجماعية. السماح للطلاب بوقت كاف لاستخدام اللغة

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CHAPTER ONE

INTROUCTION

1.1. BACKGROUND

Hotel and Tourism Department (H.T) in Port Sudan technological college is playing an important role by disseminating Hotel, and Tourism knowledge among its students. One role of this department is to develop English language proficiency of the students to enable them to secure appropriate level of academic attainment and also to prepare them for future professional development as English is a key to both. This chapter presents a perspective on the global role of English, its role in Sudan, information regarding education and ELT profile of Sudan, and an introduction to (H.T)

The department in which the research is undertaken is," The hotel and tourism" in Port Sudan Technological College. It is a specialized educational department that is concerned with teaching Hotel and Tourism in general and related sciences in particular. It was founded with the intention of spreading (H.T) knowledge to fulfill the strategic goals of the field. Thus serving all sectors whose objective is (H.T) exploitation in its all disciplines such as hotels and logistics, economy, transports, tourism, etc.

(H.T) was established in 2008 as a department in port Sudan technological college .(H.T) department was founded with the general aim to qualify Students and prepare them to become experienced specialists. To accomplish this aim Students are required to complete the diploma academic programme in its two divisions: the hotel and tourism.

The academic programme comprises a variety of both specialized and general subjects. The English language course is one of these subjects.

Therefore, writing an English course that addresses the needs of both students and the academy is the ultimate goal of this study.

1.2. English as an International Language

Communication is the basic attribute of human life and language is the main tool of human communication. Initially this communication was within societies and communities at local level but it took a new dimension as people from various societies, communities and nations started interacting with each other. The period following the 1950s saw a tremendous increase in the need for communication among the people of the world in various spheres of international contact like politics, academics, economics, technology and culture. The world has started becoming a global village. This gave birth to the need and pressure of adopting a common lingua franca for this global village to facilitate communication and make it more practical for the people of various linguistic backgrounds (Crystal 1997:10). This phenomenon led to the emergence of an international language. English was accorded this privilege and it became the language of international communication or international language. Whatever may be the political or economic reasons and factors responsible for entrenching English in this position, the reality is that these reasons and factors can not diminish the importance of English and its pervasive use in international affairs. Presently, English is the language of international economic system. It is a language which has secured a place for itself alongside local languages in multilingual communities and is also learnt by all classes of the society. Its acquisition can guarantee the availability of opportunities to employment,

travelling, higher education, and even better life. These are some of the characteristics which according to Brutt-Griffler make an international language. Following are some of the evidence which can be presented to support the position of English as a global language and a language of wider communication.

It has been found that over eighty-five per cent of international organizations in the field of international relations make some official use of English. Thus English is playing a vital role in political, social, educational, and economic concerns of the nations. English is the language of popular culture in the form of being the language of English films and music which entertain people all over the globe. The travel and tourism industries also rely on English as a common language of communication. The knowledge of English is also essential to access printed and electronic information and higher education as higher education is dependent on English in many countries. Thus knowledge of English is necessary for accessing many discourses at a global level from international relations to popular culture to academia.

1.3. The situation of English in Sudan

In the 1990s a governmental decree made Arabic the medium of instruction in Higher Education. English language became just a subject not a medium of instruction. The Introduction of Arabic as a language of instruction at tertiary level has its negative impact on the students' achievement in English language. However, since 2002 the whole situation has changed. Oil was discovered in some parts of the country which brought an influx of foreign investment; a peace treaty was signed with the south (after 45 years of civil war) stating that English is no longer a foreign language but a second

language as it was a first language in the southern parts of the country. For these reasons a great need for English language competency arose in Sudan. In spite of this great language need, TEFL situation did not change.

> *We still have classes of over 200 meeting for 2 hours per week with a total of 90 hours. Teachers are left to prepare their own materials. No up-to-date libraries available. No teaching aids available. ... the only positive thing is that 99% of the students know when they graduate they will not find a job or continue their education unless they know English.*

(Salih, 2008)

1.4. Statement of the problem

Research has shown that there is often a lack of awareness of the existence of needs analysis (henceforth NA) as a tool in EFL course design, where the specific needs of students are difficult to determine (Gardener & Winslow, 1983). In fact, there are documented cases of teachers and course planners paying little or no regard to any concept of need (described by Abbott (1981) as TENOR – teaching English for no obvious reason). One area that has a higher regard for NA is ESP (English for specific purposes) (Jasso-Aguilar, 2005; West, 1994) as students' needs are often clearer and of such a nature that a published textbook would not adequately fulfill their needs.

A similar situation occurs in the HT where teaching English is a real dilemma for the fact that no syllabus has so far been designed to satisfy the actual needs of students and the institution alike. Therefore, the exigency of teaching materials and the lack of English course are the main trigger for this study.

1-5 Questions of the study

1- What do the students of HT need English for ?

2- What kind of English do they need ?

3- Which skills of English more preferable for them ?

4- What are language problems that students of HT encounter while learning English ?

1.6. Significance of the study

This study is considered significant for the fact that since its foundation in, 2008, HT department in port Sudan technological College has been and still to be in a desperate need for a suitable English course based on the actual needs of the students. For more than five years a successive flow of teachers has failed to recognize the language needs of the students. Each teacher has been trying on his own collection of materials which were not interwoven in a well-built coherent inventories based on the actual needs of the students. Therefore, this study endeavors to design a syllabus that addresses the avowed aims of the HT and fulfills students' needs and thus fills this gap.

This study attempts to explain how needs analyses can be of vital importance for developing an ESP curriculum. Accordingly, the main research question is "What do HT Students need to study English for?" This study is important because there is no research done on situation analysis of HT students and its application to developing an ESP curriculum before. The study is also important as it will contribute to the limited literature on needs analysis and its application to design of an ESP syllabus.

1.7. Objectives of the study

1/ to identify the language needs, wants and lacks of the students of the hotel and tourism in port Sudan technological College ;

2/ to design an ESP course for Students in conformity with their actual needs and addresses the avowed goals of the HT;

3/ to explore the meaning of terms and concepts such as: curriculum, syllabus, course, needs analysis, etc;

4/ to explore the ways in which syllabuses can be specified, categorized and described;

5/ to explore some of the basic theoretical stances underlying approaches to syllabus design and to identify some common beliefs about it;

6/ to look at the nature of ESP courses and discuss some related issues;

7/ to give an overview of practical factors that affect syllabus design and may precipitate change, e.g. needs analysis, different teaching perspectives and methodologies.

1.8. Hypotheses of the study

1/ HT students need an ESP course that is based on their actual needs and addresses the avowed goals of the field.

2/ Students need English for their current academic purposes and future occupation.

3/ Students need to acquire the four basic language skills with big emphasis on communication for their preparatory nature to further study, i.e. it is the most needed skill for their occupational field.

4/ HT Students have positive attitudes towards taking an ESP course for their field of specialization.

5/ Students need English to perform tasks and activities for both current study and future job

1.9. Methodology of the research

The descriptive method is used for conducting this research, and both qualitative and quantitative data are collected with the purpose of having more convincing and accurate findings and conclusions. The tools used for data collection include classroom observations, students' questionnaire and interviews with the teachers.

The participants of the study are seventy four students and five teachers. The students are a homogenous learning group, and the teachers have been teaching English at different colleges with varying degree of experience.

1.10. English language in HT curriculum

A course of English is mandatory for all Students regardless their needs. It is appointed for the students of the three years. The time allotted to the course is two credit hours, and is intended to provide Students and familiarize them with the common terminologies, structures and expressions related to their field of specialization. Taking the English course is considered a basic requirement to maintain a successful academic attainment, since it helps the students with other content subjects.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. The scope of syllabus design

2.1.1. Curriculum / syllabus distinction

Etymologically syllabus means a "label" or "table of contents." The *American Heritage Dictionary* defines syllabus as outline of a course of study. However, the terms "syllabus", "syllabus design", "curriculum" and "course" have given rise to confusion in terms of their definitions and use. To begin with, it seems of great importance to define the term syllabus in order to have a better understanding of what it actually means and to which aspects and dimensions of ELT it is related. Of course, it should be noted that there are many challenges to properly defining and elaborating on the concept "syllabus". For example, in recent years, the focus of syllabuses has shifted away from structure to situations, functions and notions to topics and tasks. That is why, as Nunan (1988a:52) highlights; with the development of the latter obviously "the traditional distinction between syllabus design and methodology has become blurred".

Accordingly, though it is a little difficult on initial appearance to describe syllabus, it seems possible to make an attempt to define syllabus at least in an understandable way. In Wilkins' (1981) words, syllabuses are defined as "specifications of the content of language teaching which have been submitted to some degree of structuring or ordering with the aim of making teaching and learning a more effective process." A syllabus can also be seen

as "a plan of what is to be achieved through our teaching and our students' learning" (Breen, 1984) while its function is "to specify what is to be taught and in what order" (Prabhu, 1984). Huchinson and Waters (1987:80) define syllabus as at its simplest level "as a statement of what is to be learnt". They further add that it reflects of language and linguistic performance. Yalden (1987: 87) also refers to syllabus as a "summary of the content to which learners will be exposed". According to Stern (1983) the field of curriculum studies is part of the discipline of educational studies. In its broadest sense, it refers to the study of goals, content, implementation and evaluation. In its restricted sense, curriculum refers to a course of study or the content of a particular course or programme. It is in this narrower sense of curriculum that the term "syllabus" is employed. Accordingly, "syllabus design" is just one phase in a system of interrelated curriculum development activities.

The concept of 'curriculum' has been important in second-language programmes throughout the history of EFL/ESL, though 'curriculum theory' as a field of educational studies is fairly new (Stern: 1983: 434). It is not surprising therefore, that as with other generally accepted and widely-used terms (e.g. 'autonomy', 'communicative'); there is little general agreement on actual form and function, though interpretations do fall into two main camps. In the first of these, the term 'curriculum' refers to the substance of a programme of studies of an educational system. (Stenhouse: 1975) describes the curriculum as "an attempt to communicate the essential properties and features of an educational proposal in such a form that it is open to critical scrutiny and capable of effective translation into practice"

In the second (and more recent) meaning, 'curriculum' includes the entire teaching/learning process, including materials, equipment, examinations,

and the training of teachers. In this view, curriculum is concerned with *what* can and should be taught to *whom*, *when*, and *how*. Thus Nunan adds to his curriculum "elements designated by the term syllabus along with considerations of methodology and evaluation" (Nunan 1988: 14), and White *et al.* see curriculum as "concerned with objectives and methods as well as content" (White *et al.* 1988:168). Such a definition involves consideration of the philosophical, social and administrative factors of a Programme. Despite these different perspectives, Stern (1983:436) identifies three major components recognised by curriculum philosophies, which are further amplified by Breen & Candlin (1980) and Stenhouse (1975):

Table (1): Major curriculum components of second language programmes:

Stern (1983)	Breen & Candlin (1980)	Stenhouse (1975)
purposes and content;	language teaching (what is to be learned?);	planning;
instruction;	methodology (how is the learning to be undertaken and achieved?);	empirical study;
evaluation.	evaluation (to what extent is it appropriate and effective?).	justification.

Shaw's (1975) survey of literature on second language syllabus development brings out the following distinction between "curriculum" and "syllabus". He says:

> *... curriculum includes the goals, objectives, content, processes, resources and means of evaluation of all the learning experiences planned for pupils both in and out of the school and community, through classroom instruction and related programs.*

(Shaw, 1975: 18)

He then defines "syllabus" as "*[A] statement of the plan for any part of the curriculum, excluding the element of curriculum evaluation itself* ". (Shaw: 1975: 19)

Curriculum as defined by Allen (1984) is a general concept that involves consideration of philosophical, social, and administrative factors which contribute to the planning of an educational programme. Syllabus is considered as a subpart of curriculum which is concerned with the specification of what units will be taught.

In defining a language syllabus Noss and Rodgers (1976) refer to it as 'a set of justifiable educational objectives specified in terms of linguistic content'. Here the specification of objectives must have something to do with language form or substance, with language- using situations or with language as a means of communication. Strevens (1977) says that syllabus is:

> *partly an administrative instrument, partly a day-to-day guide to the teacher, partly a statement of what is to be taught and*

how, sometimes partly a statement of an approach .... The syllabus embodies that part of the language which to be taught, broken down into items or otherwise processed for teaching purpose.

(Strevens, 1977: 27)

(Mackey: 1980) envisages syllabus as an 'organized syllabus inventory' where syllabus inventory refers to the items to be taught. Crombie (1985) shares the same view. Thus he defines syllabus as a list of inventory or items or units with which learners are to be familiarized. But Corder (1975) points out that it is more than just an inventory of items. In addition to specifying the content of learning, a syllabus provides a rationale of how that content should be selected and ordered.

Candlin (1984) takes a different stand when he says that syllabuses are social constructions, produced interdependently in classrooms by teachers and learners. They are concerned with the specification and planning of what is to be learned, frequently set down in some written forms as prescriptions for actions by teachers and learners. Basically a syllabus can be seen as a plan of what is to be achieved through our teaching and our students' learning.

Any syllabus will express- however indirectly- certain assumptions about language, about the psychological process of learning, and about the pedagogic and social processes within a classroom.

(Breen, 1984: 49)

Investigating the concepts of curriculum and syllabus provides some idea of the domain of syllabus design. The distinction between these terms can be concluded as (Allen: 1984) proposes:

... [a] clear distinction, similar to that which has been prevalent in Europe, the curriculum being concerned with planning, implementation, evaluation, management, and administration of education programmes, and the syllabus focusing more narrowly on" the selection and grading of content.

(Allen, 1984:61, cited in Nunan, 1988: 8).

2.1.2. Syllabuses versus courses

Similar conflicting views have been postulated to distinguish between the concepts of 'syllabuses' and 'courses'. Courses and syllabuses are generally perceived to be two different things, partly it must be admitted simply by customary collocation, given that the two terms are not always used indistinguishably. But a 'course' might be taken to mean a real series of lessons, while a 'syllabus' can be taken to be something rather more abstract, with a fewer details of the blow by blow conduct of individual lessons. Thus any two educational practitioners might quite properly write rather different courses, with different materials, but based on the same syllabus. This happens a lot in publishing. for example, when communication became popular as a basis for course design, each major ELT publisher published a course based on what became known as a "Communicative Syllabus" ;often using the Council of Europe staged language taxonomies as a basis e.g. Van EK,J 1975. Graves takes White's (1988) definition: "*A syllabus will be defined narrowly as the specification and ordering of content of a course or courses*". (Graves: 1996: 3). In simple words, a language teaching syllabus involves the combination of subject matter (what to teach) and linguistic matter (how to teach). It

actually performs as a guide for both teacher and learner by providing some goals to be accomplished. Syllabus, in fact, deals with linguistic theory and theories of language learning and how they are utilized in the classroom. A universal definition for "syllabus" therefore seems impractical, since different educational theories and approaches differ on syllabus goals and functions. What can be said is that syllabi tend to be representations, reflecting the originator's ideas about language learning:

> *......every syllabus is a particular representation of knowledge and capabilities. And this representation will be shaped by the designer's views concerning the nature of language, how the language may be most appropriately taught or presented to learners, and how the language may be productively worked upon during learning*

> *(Breen, 1987a: 83)*

2.1.3. Syllabus types

2.1.3.1. An overview of types of syllabus

The evolution of syllabus design can be seen as a progression of assumptions about language learning, classified by Breen according to two main paradigms or frames of reference, one of these being established and prevailing (termed 'propositional' and the other recently emerging (termed 'process') (Breen: 1987a: 81). In second language learning the established paradigm is typified by *formal* and *functional* syllabi and interprets language through a propositional plan and a formal, system-based statement of the knowledge and capabilities required when studying a new language. The emergent paradigm is concerned with *how* something is done (Breen: 1987b:

160), including how to communicate in the classroom and how to learn how to communicate, and is typified in *task-based* and *process* syllabi:

> *In essence, each of the four types of syllabus offer alternative answers to the question: What does a learner of a new language need to know, and what does a learner need to be able to do with this knowledge?*

(Breen, 1987a: 85)

In examining each syllabus type, Breen further breaks this question down into five sub-questions: i) "what knowledge does it focus on?" ii) "what capabilities does it focus on and prioritise?" iii) "on what basis does it select and subdivide what is to be learned?" iv) "how does it sequence what is to be learned?" and v) "what is its rationale?"

Long & Crookes (1993), paralleling Breen's attention to paradigms, suggest a distinction between "two superordinate categories, analytic and synthetic syllabi" (Wilkins, 1993:11), and White (1988) further distinguishes between "Type A" and "Type B" syllabi (1988:44). The term 'synthetic' refers to structural, lexical, notional, functional, and most situational and topical syllabi, in which acquisition is a process of gradual accumulation of separately taught parts, building up to the whole structure of the language. The learner is exposed to a deliberately limited sample of language at any time, and has to "re-synthesise the language that has been broken down into a large number of small pieces with the aim of making this learning task easier" (Wilkins: 1976: 2). Thus synthetic syllabi:

> *... [R]ely on learner's (assumed) ability to learn a language in parts (e.g. structures and functions) independently of one another, and also to integrate, or synthesise, the pieces*

when the time comes to use them for communicative purposes.

(Long & Crookes, 1993: 12)

In 'analytic' syllabi, prior analysis of the total language system into a set of discrete pieces of language is largely unnecessary:

Analytic approaches ... are organised in terms of the purposes for which people are learning language and the kinds of language performance that are necessary to meet those purposes.

(Wilkins, 1976: 13)

Thus 'analytic' refers not to what the syllabus designer does, but to the operations required of the learner.

Since we are inviting the learner, directly or indirectly, to recognise the linguistic components of the language he is acquiring, we are in effect basing our approach on the learner's analytic capabilities

(Wilkins, 1976:14)

Analytic syllabi present the L2 in chunks, without linguistic interference or control, and rely on the learner's ability to induce and infer language rules, as well as on innate knowledge of linguistic universals. Procedural, process and task syllabi are examples of the analytic syllabus (Long & Crookes, 1993: 11)

White's Type A and Type B syllabi (White: 1988: 59) contrast an interventionist and a non-interventionist approach, being respectively

concerned with the "What?" and the "How" of learning, and are similar to Breens' propositional and process paradigms. Thus Type A syllabi focus on content and the pre-specification of linguistic or skill objectives, and Type B on an experiential, 'natural growth' approach, "which aims to immerse the learners in real-life communication without any artificial pre-selection or arrangement of items" (Allen, 1984: 65).

Table (2): Language syllabus design- Two types

Type A: What is to be learnt?	Type B: How is it to be learnt?
Interventionist	Non-interventionist
External to the learner	Internal to the learner
Other directed	Inner directed or self fulfilling
Determined by authority	Negotiated between learners and teachers
Teacher as decision-maker	Learner and teacher as joint decision makers
Content = what the subject is to the expert	Content = what the subject is to the learner
Content = a gift to the learner from the teacher or knower	Content = what the learner brings and wants
Objectives defined in advance	Objectives described afterwards
Assessment by achievement or by mastery	Assessment in relationship to learners' criteria of success
Doing things to the learner	Doing things for or with the

	learner.

White further classifies language syllabus types into content-based, skills-based and method-based syllabi, the first two being represented by the propositional paradigm (including situational and topic-based syllabi), and the latter by the process paradigm (task-based and process-based syllabi) (figure 1, below):

Figure (1): Bases for language syllabus

Bases for language syllabi

CONTENT   METHOD

SKILL

FORM   TOPIC   LANGUAGE   LEARNING   PROCESS   PROCEDURAL

Structural   Informational   Receptive/   Skill   Learning focus   Cognitive focus
focus   focus   Productive   acquisition   Learner-led   Task-based.
                                          focus

SITUATION   FUNCTIONAL

Contextual   Notional/
focus   Functional focus
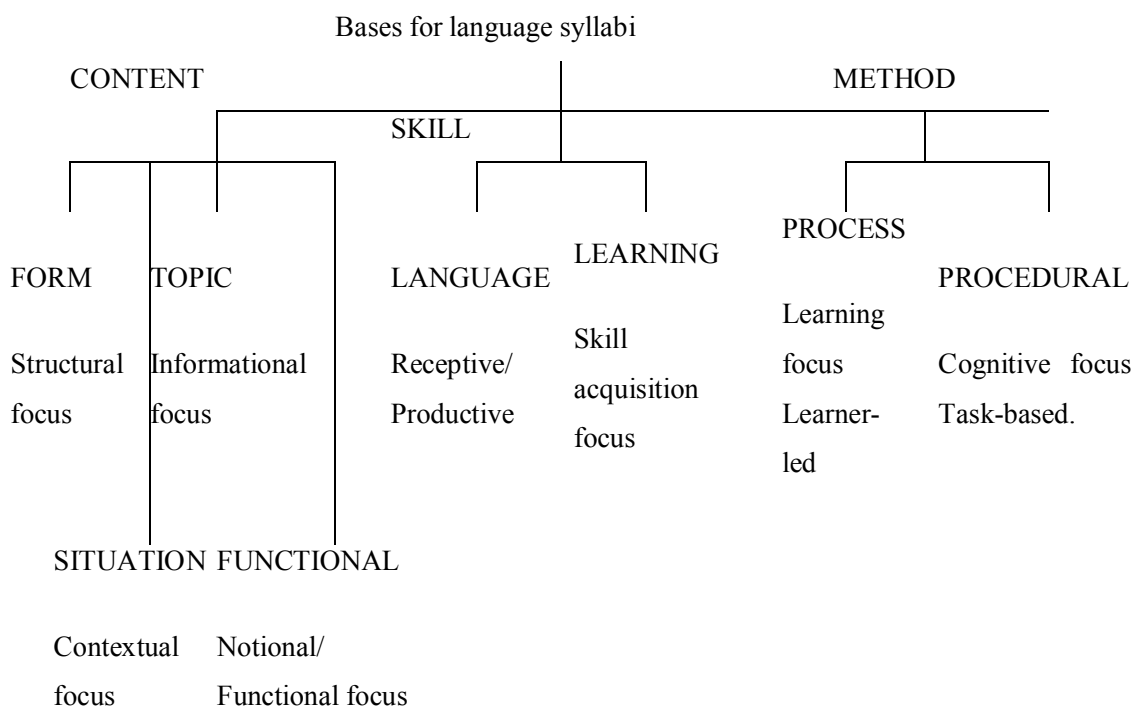
Irrespective of these different perspectives, every syllabus is seen by Breen as subject to six universal requirements, which require the designer to i)

focus upon; ii) select; iii) subdivide; and iv) sequence the appropriate outcomes of language learning (Breen,1987a:83):

- provision of an accessible framework of required knowledge and skills;
- provision of continuity for its users;
- ability to give a retrospective account of what has been achieved;
- evaluation - provision of accountability to colleagues, to learners, and to the wider institution and society;
- precision of purpose, so that it may be assessed for appropriateness through implementation;
- sensitivity to the environment for which the plan is intended. (Breen, 1987a:82)

2.1.4. The propositional paradigm

2.1.4.1. The formal syllabus

The formal (also termed 'structural' or 'grammatical') syllabus can be classified as 'synthetic' (Long & Crookes 1993), 'propositional' (Breen 1987a), and 'Type A' (White 1988), and addresses the main question of what the learner of a new language needs to know, with its five sub-questions as shown in (table 3 , below):

Table (3): The formal syllabus

The formal syllabus	
1. What knowledge does it	- A systematic and rule-based view of the nature of language itself. - A primary concern with a language learner's

focus on?	knowledge of the code of a new language.
	• Subsystems of phonology, grammar, lexis (morphology) and discourse as text are prioritised.
	• Only a supportive role to the meanings or ideas conveyed through language (ideational language) and to the ways in which we behave socially with language (interpersonal knowledge).
2. What capabilities does it focus on and prioritise?	• Language use and skills use, typically proposing that the skills be worked upon in a sequence from the receptive to the productive.
3. On what basis does it select and subdivide what is to be learned?	• Pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary and morphology, and the structural features of discourse are separately identified..
	• Those aspects of each sub-system which are taken to be appropriate to the 'level' of the learners.
	• The criterion of 'level' is derived from the extent to which a learner has mastered - in terms of accurate production - these linguistic sub-systems.
	• The criteria for selection and subdivision of a formal syllabus "approximate very closely to

	the analysis of language undertaken by the linguist."
4. How does it sequence what is to be learned?	• Anticipates that a learner will gradually accumulate and synthesise the various parts of components of the new system. • Sequenced primarily from simplicity to complexity but in ways which may also honour frequency of usage.
5. What is its rationale?	Four main arguments: • It is well established and is informed by a long tradition of linguistic analysis. It captures a view of language which many teachers find familiar. • It presents learners with a subject-matter which is systematic and rule-governed. "The Formal syllabus has the potential to provide the learner with generative knowledge." • Because the linguistic system is analysable in terms of propositions, the new language is more amenable to planning as subject matter • Such a syllabus calls upon the human capacity to be metalinguistic; to reflect upon, talk about, and try to work out just how a language works. It directly addresses our wish to impose order upon the seeming chaos of a new language.

Compiled from (Breen, 1987a: 85-87)

Given Halliday's three functions of language (textual, ideational, and interpersonal, [Halliday, 1973 ; 1978)]), the formal syllabus takes the first as its focus, basing itself in descriptive linguistics, in the contrastive theories of the 1950s and 1960s, and the works of "traditional, descriptive" grammarians in the 1970s and 1980s, focusing on surface structure differences between languages. It is the most robust and well-tried type of syllabus in language teaching, growing from the description and analysis of the classical languages, and is still by far the most widely used, especially in foreign language settings (perhaps partly due to its "user-friendliness" for new teachers and teacher trainers).

Contents of structural syllabi usually consist of discrete sentences, yes/no and wh-questions, articles, prepositions, conditionals, and relative clauses, plus inductively or deductively presented pedagogic "grammar points", with structures being generally presented one at a time (occasionally in contrasting pairs), using guidelines laid down by Palmer (1917/68) as a basis for selection, rather than empirical evidence. Long & Crookes (1993) make the point that such syllabi no longer reflect current linguistic theory and research, and owe little to modern generative grammar (e.g. Chomsky's universal grammar, Bresnan's Lexical Functional Grammar, Foley's lexical unification grammar, etc.) and functional-typological grammar (Long & Crookes 1993:13). Thus a number of criticisms of structural (and synthetic) syllabi (as epitomised by the formal syllabus) have been made, regarding:

1. the inevitable unnaturalness of structurally and lexically graded dialogues or reading passages (Widdowson, 1968; Crystal 1981);

2. the tendency to model usage, not use (Widdowson ,1971);

3. the misleading mixing of different functions of language which happen to be encoded using the same form;

4. the negative effects on motivation for learners who need to be able to communicate as soon as possible (Wilkins ,1972);

5. the inefficiency in the idea that the whole grammatical system has to be taught when few learners need it all;

6. the limitations of non-psychologically based descriptions of linguistic competence to the psychological process of SLA

7. the inability to recognise that learners do not acquire structures in isolation but as parts of complex mappings of form-function relationships;

8. the use of instructional sequences which do not reflect acquisition sequences

9. for beginners, at least, "the inadequacy of full native-like target structure as a unit of analysis in syllabus design" (Long & Crookes, 1993:15).

2.1.4.2. The functional syllabus

The Functional syllabus (also termed notional, or notional/ functional) has proved the most popular alternative to the formal/ structural/grammatical syllabus (Wilkins, 1972; 1976) and can be seen in works of The Council of Europe (1971), Wilkins (1972, 1976), Abbs *et al*. (1975), Coste *et al*. (1976), Van Ek (1976), Jones (1977), and Van Ek & Trim (1984). Breen's (1987a) analysis of functional syllabi according to his five sub-questions is presented below in table 4:

Table (4): The functional syllabus

Functional syllabus	
1. What knowledge does it focus on?	• The learner's knowledge of Speech Acts. • The purposes a learner may achieve through language, in particular social activities or events. • The different purposes which a language can serve and how these functions are coded through the language are prioritized.
2. What capabilities does it focus on and prioritise?	• The learner's capacity to be correct in the interpretation and production of those linguistic components - or features of code - which realise particular uses of language and which express specific concepts. • A skill-oriented view of learner capabilities (as in the formal syllabus)
3. On what basis does it select and subdivide what is to be learned?	• It is Categorical, in that "it identifies main types of language purposes in sets and sub-sets ... and it further specifies how these functions may be realised in various ways through the language code" • Similar principles of selection and subdivision to those of a comprehensive phrase book.
4. How does it sequence what is to be	• From general sets of functions to more specific functions. • From most common linguistic realisations of

learned?	certain functions to more varied or 'refined' realisations of these functions. • From the general to the particular - cyclic nature.
5. What is its rationale?	• Initially a response to the disillusionment with the seemingly 'mechanistic' methodology associated with grammar-translation and audio-lingualism. • Also an attempt to incorporate the new perspectives on language knowledge offered by linguistics. • Concern for meaningfulness as an important element in the language learning experience. *"...wish to enable learners to use language - virtually from the outset of their learning - in order to achieve things in an interpersonal or social way".* • Language as a means for getting things done is given priority over linguistic knowledge in itself. • Fluency is valued as much as linguistic accuracy, and as the 'carrier' of accuracy.

Compiled from (Breen, 1987a:88-90)

The preoccupation with 'communicative competence' has resulted in the emergence of two important elements to syllabus design: notional and functional aspects. The notional or conceptual aspect includes notions of time, space, movement, cause and effect, whereas; the functional aspect refers to intentional or purposive use of language. The influential concept of *communicative competence* was adopted by proponents of the functional

syllabus such as Sauvignon (1976; 1983) with his communicative knowledge concept and the ideas of the sociolinguist Hymes (1971; 1972) (who developed Chomsky's concept of competence [Chomsky 1965:4] in a sociolinguistic context). They propose that knowledge of language also embraces a knowledge of how to use the language in appropriate ways.

Although the notional/functional syllabus places emphasis on "the meanings expressed or the functions performed through language" (Wilkins, 1981:83), it is (like the formal syllabus) a content-based, propositional, synthetic, Type A plan of language knowledge and capabilities, except that its communicative focus leads to "different applications of the organising principles of syllabus design from those of the formal syllabus" (Breen 1987a:87). Thus the target language is no longer presented as a collection of discrete linguistic items subject to isolated linguistic sub-skills, but as groups of linguistic devices (Long & Crookes 1993:15). Syllabus content for functional syllabi is not tied solely to structural teaching goals, and it is thus possible to present similar language functions, with differing structures. As with the formal syllabus however, designers "lack any empirical evidence upon which to base their selection of structures and exponents when working within a functional framework, and to date there has been an unsatisfactory reliance on intuition" (White 1988:82). Issues of matching functional and formal selection and grading have proved to be problematic, so functionally based syllabi (e.g. *Threshold* (van Ek 1975) have tended to rely on considerations such as the needs of the learners, both in terms of classroom functions and in the 'real world', usefulness, coverage or generalisability, interest or relevance and complexity of form. Beyond an awareness of the 'communicative value' of language (Widdowson ,1978:11) and a concern for

students' current or future language needs, functional/notional syllabi "offer few obvious improvements, and have several flaws" (Long & Crookes, 1993:16):

1. preparation, as in formal syllabi, involves fragmenting the target language, presenting one notion or function at a time, and assuming that learners can eventually synthesise the whole, whereas functions actually co-occur in discourse, and take on communicative value from that discourse content (Widdowson 1978);

2. the set of functions is non-finite, and many individual notions and functions are difficult to define or distinguish, and their linguistic exponents are often difficult to establish (Long & Crookes, 1993:16);

3. a sound psychological basis is lacking: "No consideration was given to the psychological reality of notions until more than a decade after their introduction" (Cook 1985);

4. functional syllabi pay little attention to a theory of language acquisition and are based on reasoning rather than empirical evidence (Paulston, 1981). Brumfit (1981) observes that "until we have some way of saying 'X is a notion and Y is not, and we can test them in the following ways', we are talking about a vacuous concept" (Brumfit, 1981:2.

Uncritical (and unsupported) acceptance of notional-functional syllabi was modified when (perhaps as a reaction to the loss of confidence in pure notional syllabi), hybrid structural/notional-functional syllabi and materials became more common, in which the role of a mastery of the grammatical

system was reaffirmed as "essential to anything more than a rudimentary communicative ability'" (Wilkins. 1981:85), and syllabi were seen as being able to range from being principally grammatical to fully notional, according to learners' needs.

2.1.4.3. Situation and Topic syllabi

Observing that language structure cannot form the complete basis of a fully realised, integrated syllabus, since language use must be contextualised, involving interactive or social use of language, White (1988:73) sees the category of "situation" as an important (but not exclusive) element in syllabus design. Thus two less known and less widely used types of synthetic syllabus use *situation* and *topic* as their unit of analysis.

2.1.4.3.1. The situational syllabus

Situational syllabi have the potential advantage of tapping students' knowledge of the world as an aid to learning, and also of providing realistic, and hence motivating, materials, though as Alexander (1967:xvii) admits: "In the early stages it is possible to use very few [structural] patterns indeed. This means that the 'situations' are often unconvincing and barely possible." This problem can lead to the use of structures as the pre-eminent form of sequencing, resulting in a form of 'structural-situation' syllabus, open to the same criticisms as for structural syllabi (Long & Crookes 1993:20). The audiovisual courses of CREDIF (1961) and *First Things First* (Alexander 1967) are examples of this type. Another example is the Australian government's *Situational English* course (Commonwealth Office of Education, 1967). Another use of the term 'situational' in syllabus design implies courses which are organised around situations and deal with structures as they arise.

2.1.4.3.2. The topic syllabus

Topical syllabi are a common and convenient method of organising ESL/EFL textbooks, and share the motivational potential of situational syllabi, especially if selection is based on needs identification performed in terms of topics or on the findings of research on frequency of topics in the conversations of people of the same age as the learner. However, they also share the difficulties of defining and distinguishing situations and topics, dealing with the broadness of the concepts in materials design, predicting grammatical form, and grading and sequencing of content. As Long & Crookes point out, "there is in principle no way to grade situations in terms of difficulty or as to which ones need to be 'learned' before others." (1993:20). Topic is also a broad semantic construct and like situations, "topics have an unfortunate tendency to merge into one another and subsume other topics" (Long & Crookes, 1993:23). The use of *situation* and *topic* as the unit of analysis in a synthetic syllabus is thus problematic due to the impossibility of distinguishing their boundaries or predicting what they involve. "Where you use language, it also turns out, is less relevant for language learning than what you use it for, i.e. *task"* (Long & Crookes, 1993:23).

2.1.4.4. The lexical syllabus

The lexical syllabus is a form of the propositional paradigm that takes 'word' as the unit of analysis and content for syllabus design. Various vocabulary selection studies can be traced back to the 1920's and 1930's, e.g. (Faucet *et al.* 1936), and recent advances in techniques for the computer analysis of large databases of authentic text have helped to resuscitate this line of work. The modern lexical syllabus is discussed in Sinclair & Renouf (1988), who

state that the main benefit of a lexical syllabus is that it emphasises utility - the student learns that which is most valuable because it is most frequent. Related work on collocation is reported by Sinclair (1987), and the *Collins COBUILD English Course* (Willis & Willis, 1988) is cited as an exemplary pedagogic implementation of the work, though *"in fact, the COBUILD textbooks utilise one of the more complex hybrid syllabi in current ESL texts"* (Long & Crookes, 1993:23).

Sinclair & Renouf (1988) find that (as with other synthetic syllabi), claims made for the lexical syllabus are not supported by evidence, and the assertion that the lexical syllabus is "an independent syllabus, unrelated by any principles to any methodology" (p, 155) is subject to the criticism levelled by Brumfit against notional functional syllabi, i.e. that it (in this case, deliberately) takes no cognisance of how a second language is learned. Since these observations were made, however, Willis (1990) has gone some way to provide such a theoretical justification.

2.1.4.5. Propositional syllabi: summary

Formal (structural), functional, situational, topical and lexical syllabi share a static target language, product orientation, are ultimately based on an analysis of the *language* to be learned, and implicitly rely on "the validity of the equation: what is taught = what is (or ought to be) learnt" (Prabhu, 1984:273). In preserving the traditional roles of syllabus designer, teacher and student, and in adhering to a view of language as a linguistic rather than a psycho/sociolinguistic process involving the acquisition of social and cultural knowledge, they ignore the learner as a significant participant in his/her own language learning, defending the idea that the forms of a language can somehow be learned, prior to communication, despite the

claims of several first and second language acquisition researchers that grammar develops out of conversation or other language use. As Newmark (1966) observes: "if the task of learning to speak English were additive and linear ... it is difficult to see how anyone could learn [it] ... Language is learned a whole act at a time, rather than as an assemblage of constituent skills" (1966:77).

2.1.5. The process paradigm

In contrast to Propositional plans, which pre-suppose a syllabus designer who pre-selects and pre-organises teaching and learning content based on personal (usually formal and synthetic) assumptions and beliefs about SLA and the language-learning syllabus, process plans "more directly address the ways in which learners might achieve objectives and how they navigate the route itself" (Breen: 1987a: 161). They are about *how something* is done, seeking "to represent knowledge of *how* correctness, appropriacy, and meaningfulness can be simultaneously achieved during communication within events and situations" (Breen: 1987b: 160).

The growth of the process approach and the emergence and popularity of the 'language-task' as an important unit of process syllabus design and classroom use can be attributed in part to a dissatisfaction on the part of EFL/ESL teachers with various method-based approaches (e.g. the 'Grammar-translation" method, the "Direct method", the "Reading method", the "Audiolingual method", and the "Audiovisual method" Stern(1983), in addition to the problems associated with propositional syllabi. Thus Type A syllabi were rejected for their interventionist, authoritarian nature, with their view of teaching as the transmission of pre-selected and pre-digested knowledge, in favour of "a social and problem-solving orientation, with

explicit provision for the expression of individual learning styles and preferences" (Long & Crookes, 1993:33).

2.1.5.1. The task-based syllabus (TBS)

foreword

The task-based syllabus reflects an emphasis on 'means' rather than 'product', and has gained considerable popularity since the Bangalore project (1979-84) and Breen's article of 1987, such that the concept of 'language task' has become an important building block within the curriculum (Nunan: 1993: 66) and "a central pedagogical tool for the language teacher as well as a basic unit for language syllabus design and research" (Williams & Burden: 1997: 168). Theoretical bases for task-based learning (TBL) can be traced to further development of Hymes' ideas, built on Widdowson's distinctions between language *use* and *usage* (Widdowson: 1978: 18), and on his identification of the need to be fluent in, and to have knowledge of, communicative conventions derived from experience of language use. This anticipated the extension of Chomsky's *linguistic competence* into a complex of interacting competencies. Canale & Swain's (1980) attention being concentrated on the way in which these are actually applied in language, and on how they allow users to be creative with language and with its conventions (Brumfit1984). As a result, and in similar fashion to the way in which grammar and structure had come to be seen as inadequate descriptions of language *per se*, the four macro-skills which had been so important to the functional syllabus, were in turn recognised as constituent parts of an underlying competence in language, and not as the language itself (Breen & Candlin, 1980).

Task-based syllabi (TBS) justify the use of an analytic Type B syllabus on: i) its compatibility with research findings on language learning; ii) its approach to content selection based on course design principles made explicit in the 1970s; and iii) its attempt to incorporate findings from classroom-centred research when designing materials and methodologies. Long and Crookes thus adopt 'task' as the unit of syllabus analysis in an attempt to provide an "integrated, internally coherent approach to all six phases of programme design" (1993: 9) i) needs identification; ii) syllabus design; iii) methodology design; iv) materials writing; v) testing; and vi) programme evaluation.

definitions

As with the terms "curriculum" and "syllabus", the form and function of the language learning "task" has been interpreted differently by syllabus designers and language teachers in the 1980s and 1990s, to the extent that (as with the "communicative" approach) many would claim to be "task-based", whatever their ideological persuasion, "task" being "anything the learners are given to do (or choose to do) in the language classroom to further the process of language learning" (Williams & Burden: 1997: 167). The concept of 'task' thus has a capacity to be "all things to all people", despite specific philosophical approaches inherent in the process paradigm, of which TBLT is one example. Indeed, the number of definitions of "task" in the literature attest to widely differing views on how to use this particular unit of syllabus design in language learning, from the "strong form" in which everything is subsidiary to the task as a "unit of teaching" (Legutke & Thomas, 1991), to the "weak form" (Willis: 1996), in which tasks are a vital part of language instruction, but ... are embedded in a more complex

pedagogic context. (Skehan, 1996: 39) offers evidence of this divergence of intention (if not confusion) in his collection of "task" definitions which forms the basis of the following list of definitions:

To begin with, Candlin (1987) envisages tasks as activities absorbing both the learners and the teachers. The purpose of these tasks is to explore and cope with all prospective stances that might arouse within the social matrix.

> *... one of a set of differentiated, sequencable, problem-posing activities involving learner and teachers in some joint selection from a range of varied cognitive and communicative procedures applied to existing and new knowledge in the collective exploration and pursuance of foreseen or emergent goals within a social milieu.*

<div align="right">(Candlin, 1987:10)</div>

According to Richards, Patt and Weber (1985), a great emphasis is laid on the role of the teacher in specifying and directing the task to ensure its satisfactory fulfillment.

> *an activity or action which is carried out as the result of processing or understanding language. ... Tasks may or may not involve the production of language. A task usually requires the teacher to specify what will be regarded as successful completion of the task. The use of a variety of different kinds of tasks in language teaching is said to make teaching more communicative ... since it provides a purpose for a classroom activity which goes beyond the practice of language for its own sake.*

<div align="right">(Richards, Patt & Weber, 1985:289)</div>

Swales (1990) raises the point of relatability of tasks to the acquisition of expressive stylistic skills.

... one of a set of differentiated, sequencable goal-directed activities drawing upon a range of cognitive and communicative procedures relatable to the acquisition of pre-genre and genre skills appropriate to a foreseen or emerging socio-rhetorical situation

(Swales, 1990: 76)

The role of the task as a carrier for communicative acts is made straightforward by Nunan. He also emphasises the fact that the knowledge framework is reflected in the classroom through process activities rather than content ones.

... a piece of classroom work which involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is principally focused on meaning rather than form. The task should also have a sense of completeness, being able to stand alone as a communicative act in its own right. ... When tasks are implemented in the classroom an observer of participants' judgement will determine the degree of completeness as much as the characteristics of the task itself.

(Nunan, 1993: 59)

Breen (1987a) distinguishes between two categories of tasks: language learning task and problem solving task. The language learning task concentrates on communication and its different aspects through a content of linguistic data and information about language. Problem-solving tasks, on the other hand, focuses on the actual use of target language by inviting the learners to decipher the communicative code so as to interpret and express meaning.

A language learning task is also about communication and its codes and conventions; its content can offer data on language and information about language. The content of language tasks can, therefore, be meta- communicative because its subject-matter is directly or indirectly about the means of communication and about the workings of language in use.

(Breen: 1987a, 17)

According to Breen (1987b), task covers a wide range of objective- based activities intended to enhancing language learning.

... any structured language learning endeavor which has a particular objective, appropriate content, a specified working procedure, and a range of outcomes for those who undertake the task. 'Task' is therefore assumed to refer to a range of workplans which have the overall purpose of facilitating language learning - from the simple and brief exercise type to more complex and lengthy activities such as group problem- solving or simulations and decision-making.

(Breen, 1987b: 23)

Skehan (1996a) proposes four features for the tasks. They should be meaningful, realistic, exerted and assessable.

... for present purposes a task is taken to be an activity in which: i) meaning is primary; ii) there is some sort of relationship to the real world; iii) task completion has some priority; and iv) the assessment of task performance is in terms of task outcome.

(Skehan, 1996a:38)

Prabhu (1987) sees task as a vehicle to navigate through some activities in order to achieve a goal. The role of teachers is to control and guide the whole process.

> *"An activity which required learners to arrive at an outcome, from given information through some process of thought, and which allowed teachers to control and regulate the process, was regarded as a 'task' ".*

<div align="right">(Parbhu, 1987: 24)</div>

Long (1985a) considers task as an umbrella term covering everything people do in their lives.

> *...a piece of work undertaken for oneself or others, freely or for some reward. ... In other words, by 'task' is meant the hundred and one things people do in everyday life, at work, at play, and in between. Tasks are the things people will tell you to do if you ask them and they are not applied linguists.*

<div align="right">(Long, 1985a: 89)</div>

Crookes (1986) agrees with other scholars in considering a task as an activity with an asserted objective. However, he adds on another aspect of the task.

> *...a piece of work or an activity, usually with a specified objective, undertaken as part of an educational course or at work.*

<div align="right">(Crookes,1986: 1)</div>

Finally, Krahnke (1987) deprives task from any instructional purposes.

The defining characteristic of task-based content is that it uses activities that the learners have to do for non-instructional purposes outside of the classroom as opportunities for language learning. Tasks are distinct from other activities to the degree that they have non-instructional purposes.

(Krahnke, 1987: 67)

The term 'task' has thus become very broad, and can imply almost any activity in any SL classroom. It is necessary therefore to examine the philosophical and psychological bases that differentiate TBSs from other types of syllabus design. Been (1987b:164) identifies the roots of task-based theory in 'situational' approaches to language teaching along with three other influences:

1. Comprehensive analysis of knowledge and capabilities which learners need in order to achieve certain things.
2. Classroom use of thematic, project-based or open-ended materials which are not tied to a syllabus.
3. Use of problem-solving as a means of learning a wide range of knowledge and capabilities, where problem-solving is seen as a holistic account of learning.

From these roots and from theory and research within language teaching, four reasons for employing a task-based syllabus can be derived:

1. the inherent value of problem-solving tasks in generating learner interaction and, thereby, the negotiation of comprehensible input.

2. The need for pedagogy to focus on the processes of learner participation in discourse (Widdowson: 1981) and the procedures which they adopt in order to access new knowledge.

3. The possibility that a syllabus can be sequenced on the basis of addressing learner problems as they arise, thereby overcoming sequencing limitations of conventional syllabus design criteria.

4. The ability of learners to work upon input and information and materials design, thus reducing the pressure on the teacher to continually search for content material (Breen & Candlin, 1980).

2.1.5.2. The procedural syllabus

The procedural syllabus is associated with Prabhu, Ramani and others (then) at the Regional Institute of English in Bangalore, India. Prabhu was dissatisfied with the Structural-Oral-Situational method which had been developed and was generally in use in the 1960s, so he evolved an approach based on the principle that the learning of form is best carried out when attention is given to meaning (Palmer, 1917; 1968). He used a series of opinion-gap, information-gap, and reasoning-gap tasks which were radically meaning-focused. Opinion gaps involved expressing a personal preference, attitude, or feeling when faced with a situation. Information-gap was operationalized as information sharing between or among learners. Reasoning-gap implied inferring and deducing from, and practical reasoning about a given piece of information. In Prahbu's words (1987, 2):

> *Grammar-construction by the learner is an unconscious process which is best facilitated by bringing about in the learner a preoccupation with meaning, saying, and doing.*
>
> (Prahbu, 1987: 2)

In order to design the tasks to be used during instruction, Prahbu and his collaborators chose the content from other classes the students had, and taught that content in English. Prabhu used a very repetitive pre-task, to feed learners the language. He used listening and visual aids. In a very structured manner, during the pre-task phase, he demonstrated the task with two students.

Long's (2005) criticism of Prabhu's procedural syllabus is that he used tasks that students would not use in real life; that is, there was no needs analysis. It was, in fact, a random selection of chunks of the content of other subjects. According to Long, it was a classic example of focus on meaning, with no attention to language as object. Other researchers (Long & Crookes, 1992; White, 1988) criticized the rather undefined concept of task, its lack of an evaluative component, and the fact that task selection was based on the teacher's intuition rather than on principled criteria. It was, however, the first attempt to set up a task-based syllabus. The Bangalore *1Madras Communicational Teaching Project (CTP), (Prabhu 1980; 1984; 1987), was implemented in eight classrooms with 18 teachers and 390 children aged 8 to 15, for periods of one to three years, from 1979 to 1984. The Project was not set up as an experiment, so evaluation was not part of the original plan, and Beretta and Davies, when carrying out an evaluation in 1984 (Beretta & Davies 1985), had to use intact classes, rather than operate in a "stripped down environment" (Beretta 1989) with limitations on the validity of their

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*1 Bangalore Project is an experimental English language teaching project that lasted from 1979 to 1984. The locus of the project was eight classes in primary and secondary schools in southern India.

findings. They saw the results of the evaluation as on the whole positive, though pointing out the difficulty of designing satisfactory *Which* type comparative research procedures to evaluate methodologies. However, Greenwood (1985) suggests that none of the accounts of the project offered sufficient evidence to evaluate the claims made for the procedural syllabus and its associated methodology (White, 1988:108).

At the basis of the CTP are tasks which engage the learner in thinking processes, the focus of which is completion of the task rather than learning the language, agreeing with Krashen (1982) that language form is acquired subconsciously when the learner's attention is focused on meaning.

Table (5): The CTP model (Communicational Teaching Project)

Task	Learners' Cognitive Processes	Task completion
Conscious	Meaning-building	Meanings understood or conveyed
Unconscious	System-building	Grammatical system developed

(Adapted from White, 1988: 103)

Task-based teaching operates with the concept that, while the conscious mind is working out some of the meaning-content, some subconscious part of the mind perceives, abstracts or acquires (or recreates, as a cognitive structure) some of the linguistic structuring embodied in those entities, as a step in the development of an internal system of rules. The intensive

exposure caused by an effort to work out meaning-content is thus a condition which is favourable to the subconscious abstraction - or cognitive formation - of language structure. (Prabhu 1987:69-70). Teaching *through* communication, rather than *for* communication (Prabhu 1980:164) was an important aspect of this programme, though it is interesting to note that the core goal was grammatical, rather than communicative competence, interaction in the target language, or activation and development of learning skills:

> *The radical departure from CLT in the Bangalore Project lay not in the tasks themselves, but in the accompanying pedagogic focus on task completion instead of the language used in the process.*

> (Greenwood, 1985: 64)

Teacher speech was not pre-selected or structurally graded, but "roughly tuned", and errors ("ungrammatical learner utterances") were accepted for their content, although subject to "'incidental' as opposed to 'systematic' correction" (Prabhu ,1987:57-9). The tasks focused upon the learners' use and development of their own cognitive abilities through the solution of logical, mathematical and scientific problems, and the procedural syllabus focused upon what was to be done in the classroom and not upon selected language input for learning. Finally, the syllabus of tasks was not pre-planned but:

> *... was evolved during the teaching and learning by a process of trial and error whereby new tasks could become more sensitive to the achievements and needs of the particular learners in the particular teaching situation.*

> *(Breen, 1987b:165)*

Problems of procedural syllabus

The Bangalore Project has received attention from EFL researchers and theorists, due to its being the first example of the TBS in practice, though containing a number of formal and synthetic Type [A] elements (e.g. the focus on a required outcome, and the role of teachers as controllers and regulators):

> *An activity which required learners to arrive at an outcome, from given information through some process of thought, and which allowed teachers to control and regulate the process, was regarded as a 'task'.*

> *(Prabhu, 1987:24)*

Long and Crookes (1993:31) suggest that local cultural and educational norms could have been responsible for various formal aspects of the Bangalore Project such as an emphasis on receptive language, teacher-centred classes, a lack of student-student communication ("because of the fear that learner-learner interaction will promote fossilisation" Prabhu 1987:82)and the discouragement of group work .

Prabhu's recommended lesson structure falls into three sections: i) presentation and demonstration of "pre-tasks" by the teacher in a whole-class format; ii) the task proper, worked on usually individually; iii) feedback from the teacher - regulated and "presented" by the teacher; and is reminiscent of the "three Ps" approach typical of synthetic syllabi. Though largely discredited by SLA theory (White 1988; Skehan 1996a), this three-tiered structure appears ten years later in Willis (1996), who proposes a three-tiered *framework for task-based learning* in which the teacher still has

the overall control (Willis 1996:41). Thus negotiation of syllabus-content, self-direction, and learner-centredness, factors so important in other examples of the process paradigm, are absent from this type of TBS, in which "the teaching techniques required ... are not very different from those of ordinary mainstream language teaching." (Willis 1996:40).

Amongst other criticisms of the Bangalore Project (Brumfit 1984b), the main one has been its failure to build an evaluation component into the design (a criticism rarely made of programmes using synthetic syllabi). Long and Crookes identify other difficulties:

1. the absence of task-based (or any) needs identification leaves no rationale for the content of the syllabus (Long & Crookes 1993:32);

2. grading of task difficulty and sequencing of tasks appear to be arbitrary and left to the teacher. The "half the class doing half the task" criterion (Prabhu 1984:277) is not a satisfactory solution, since it is norm-referenced, and gives no indication of why any one task is "easier" than another (Long & Crookes 1993:32);

3. there is need for *incomprehensible* input and communication breakdowns if learners are to perceive negative evidence as such in SLA (White 1987);

4. it is important to notice input-output mismatches so that learning can occur.

White (1988) also observes that in terms of "empirical demonstration of the effect of organisation and procedures on learning outcomes", there has been

no "really concerted effort to evaluate any approach in actual operation" (1988:110), despite the growing body of research into the effects of procedure on language learning in tutored settings.

2.1.5.3. The Task-Based Syllabus revisited

The Task-Based Syllabus *per se* is described by White (1988) as

> [a]particular expression of changes in our frames of reference, through i) its representation of communicative competence as the undertaking and achievement of a range of tasks; ii) its direct reliance on the contributions of learners in terms of the mobilisation of the prior communicative competence which learners bring to any task; and iii) its emphasis upon the learning process as appropriate content during language learning.

(White, 1988:102)

Skehan (1996) agrees that TBSs can trigger acquisitional processes, though he also voices concerns (linguistic and psychological) on: i) whether a focus on meaning can be relied to engage such acquisitional processes; ii) problems of the role of explicitness and consciousness; iii) the need for the manipulation of attentional focus; and iv) the need to acknowledge dual modes of processing (structural and exemplar-based):

> This discrepancy places proponents of task-based instruction in a difficult position, since, while it is clear that there are advantages to using such an approach, it is difficult to know how strongly to argue this position, and how exactly to implement such instruction. A necessary step, therefore, is to ... set appropriate goals for task-based approaches.

(Skehan, 1996a:6)

Breen (1987b:161) observes that participation in communication and communicating for learning are equally valuable in the TBS, since learning tasks "call upon and engage the *same* abilities which underlie communication itself." His analysis of the TBS according to his five sub-questions appears in table (6), below:

Table (6): The task- based syllabus

Task-based syllabus	
1. What knowledge does it focus on?	• Communicative knowledge as a unity of text, interpersonal behaviour, and ideation. • The learner's experience and awareness of working upon a new language.
2. What capabilities does it focus on and prioritise?	• Communicative abilities and learning capability. • The ability to negotiate meaning: the ability to interpret meaning; the ability to express meaning
3. On what basis does it select and subdivide what is to be learned?	• Analysis of the actual tasks which a person may undertake when communicating through the target language. • Learning tasks: selected on the basis of meta-communicative criteria. They provide the groundwork for the learner's engagement in communication tasks and deal with learner difficulties which emerge during these tasks, addressing i) how the knowledge systems work, and

	ii) how the learning may be best done. • Subdivision is on the basis of task types (various ways).
4. How does it sequence what is to be learned?	• Sequencing can be characterised as cyclic in relation to how learners move through tasks, and problem-based (or problem-generated) in relation to the on-going difficulties which learners themselves discover. • There is a sequence of refinement as tasks require more and more learner competence. • There is a sequence of diagnosis and remediation in parallel with the refinement. • Sequencing here "depends upon: a) the identification of learning problems or difficulties as they arise; b) the prioritising of particular problems and the order in which they may be dealt with; c) the identification of appropriate learning tasks which address the problem areas".
5. What is its rationale?	• Broader view of what is to be achieved in language learning. • The learner's initial competence can be engaged as the foundation upon which new knowledge and capabilities may be accommodated during the undertaking of tasks, matching the process which occurs when learners mobilise knowledge systems when undertaking actual tasks in the L1.

	• Participation in communication tasks which require the learners to mobilise and orchestrate knowledge and abilities in a direct way will itself be a catalyst for language learning. • A more sensitive methodology: represents the effort to relate content to how that content may be worked upon, and thereby, learned more efficiently. • Means-focused and ends-focused. • Assumes that learning is necessarily both meta-communicative and communicative. • Based on the belief that learners can be analytical in their exploration of communication in the target language and of the knowledge and ability use it entails". "... rests on the principle that meta-communicating is itself a powerful springboard for language learning."

Based on (Breen, 1987: 161-164)

Task Types

Properties of suitable language learning tasks have been examined and categorised a number of ways, with a view to analysing and trying to understand the learning process and the interaction associated with different task types. A summary of research findings in this field appears in table (7), below:

Table (7): Research on task types

Researchers	Findings
Long (2005)	• Two-way tasks prompt more conversational adjustments than one-way tasks.
Brown & Yule (1983)	• The length of the speaking turn is a factor in the difficulty of speaking tasks.
Brown, Anderson, Shilcock & Yule (1984)	Distinction between static, dynamic and abstract tasks: • Static tasks involve simple transmission of information in a linear sequence, often using easily prescribed language; • Dynamic tasks involve the speakers in two-way conversations in which language is not prescribed, and in which relations may vary; • Static tasks (e.g. description) are easier than dynamic tasks (e.g. narration), which are easier then abstract tasks (e.g. opinion-giving); • The number of elements, participants, and relationships in a task makes it more difficult.
Tarone & Yule (1989)	• Attention to form has a clear effect on accuracy of performance.
Brock (1984)	• Use of referential questions prompts significantly longer and more systematically complex responses containing more connectives.
Doughty &	• Required information exchange tasks generate

Pica (1986)	significantly more interactional modifications than optional information exchange tasks.
Duff (1986)	• Convergent (problem-solving) tasks produce more negotiation of meaning than divergent (debating) tasks (this was not born out fully).
Long & Crookes (1986)	• Use of referential questions results in greater mastery of experiential content.
Ellis (1987)	• There is evidence of an interaction between the engagement of planned discourse and different forms of the past tense under different task conditions.
Nunan (1993)	• Use of referential questions prompts more negotiation of meaning and syntactically and discoursally more complex language
Prabhu (1987)	Classification of task types: • Information-gap tasks • Reasoning-gap tasks • opinion-gap tasks
Nunan (1988b)	• There are often dramatic mismatches between the activity preferences of teachers and students.
Willing (1988)	• Learners' activity preferences can vary markedly and are determined by cognitive style and

	personality variables.
Crookes (1989)	• There is greater complexity and lexical variety for tasks done under a planning time condition, but no greater accuracy.
Nation (2001)	Classification of task types: • experience tasks (using the learners' previous experience); • shared tasks (getting learners to help each other bridge the learning gap); • guided tasks (providing support while learners perform the task, by giving exercises and focused guidance); • independent tasks (in which learners work alone without planned help).
Brown (1995)	• Interpretative tasks generate more complexity.
Skehan (1998)	• Structured tasks produce greater fluency (unplanned) and accuracy (planned). • Concrete/immediate tasks are easier, but evidence supporting this proposition is mixed. • There is an interaction between opportunity to plan and task type.

Based on (Nunan, 1993: 6 and Skehan ,1998: 116-117)

Task selection

Using task (in its various classifications) as the unit of analysis, and lacking a sequenced list of grammatical items purporting to present input language in increasing difficulty, selection and grading of tasks is an important issue for the syllabus designer and teacher (cf. table 8, below):

> *The essential problem to be solved, then, is how to achieve a rational articulation in selecting, sequencing and integrating tasks so that the curriculum is more than an untidy 'rag-bag' of tasks which, while theoretically motivated in psycholinguistic terms, are unrelated to each other and disconnected from the learner.*

(Nunan, 1993: 56)

Different syllabus scholars put forward variety of criteria for selecting tasks.

Table (8): Methods of tasks selections

Researcher	Criteria for task selection
Brindley (1984) Factors contributing to difficulty	• Relevance to the learner • Complexity (number of steps involved, complexity of instructions, cognitive demands, quantity of information) • Amount of context provided and knowledge of the world required • Language demands • Assistance given

	• Accuracy required • Time available
Candlin (1987) The nature of the task as a factor of difficulty	• Cognitive complexity • Communicative difficulty • Whether the task follows a general sequence of operations of whether this is unclear • Linguistic complexity • Continuity between tasks
Candlin & Nunan (1987). The cognitive operations required of the learner, as a factor of difficulty	• Attending to or noticing or recognising the input • Making sense of the input, e.g. How the language is organised and structured • Processing information (e.g. Hypothesising, inferring) • Transferring and generalising what is learned
Candlin (1987) Set of criteria by which tasks might be selected and graded	• Cognitive load • Communicative stress • Particularity and generalizability • Code complexity and interpretative density • Process continuity
Prabhu (1987)	• The amount and type of information provided

Five factors contributing to task difficulty	• The amount of reasoning or cognitive operation needed • The precision needed • The learners' knowledge of the world and familiarity with the purposes and constraints of the task • The degree of abstractness of the concept dealt with in the task
Nunan (1988) Analysis of factors contributing to task difficulty	• The grammatical complexity of the text • The length of the text • The propositional density (how much information is contained in the input) • The vocabulary used • The speed of listening texts and the number of speakers involved • The explicitness of the information • The genre, discourse structure and sequencing of items in the text (cf. Brown & Yule, 1983) • The amount of support in the form of pictures, etc. (cf. Bransford & Johnson 1972)
Brown (1995) Different dimensions for the	• Tight-loose • Closed-open; • Procedural-interpretative

analysis of tasks	
Skehan (1996) Three-way distinction for the analysis of tasks	1. <u>Code complexity</u> • Linguistic complexity and variety • Vocabulary load and variety • Redundancy and density 2. <u>Cognitive complexity</u> a) Cognitive familiarity • Familiarity of topic and its predictability • Familiarity of discourse genre • Familiarity of task ·b) Cognitive processing • Information processing • Amount of 'computation' • Clarity and sufficiency of information given • Information type 3. <u>Communicative stress</u> • Time limits and time pressure • Speed of presentation • Number of participants • Length of texts used • Type of response

	• Opportunities to control interaction
Berwick (1989) Underlying dimensions of tasks	• Task goals (educational/social) • Task processes (experiential/expository

Skehan (1996; 1998) draws attention to the problem of processing load, with difficult tasks consuming more attentional resources, leaving less available for attention to form, and thereby reducing the "residual" benefit:

> *It is imperative, therefore, that tasks are sequencable on some principled criterion, since the basis on which tasks are ordered will be a reflection of what attentional resources they require.*

(Skehan, 1996:51)

Then he proposes a criterion for task selection. *"... it is important to classify task types according to difficulty, so that pedagogically motivated task selection can be more effective."* (Skehan, 1998:97)

Though researchers agree on task-difficulty as the main criterion of task selection, along with other criteria (e.g. dimensions of analysis and interactional criteria, there is a difference of opinion between researchers who consider discourse consequences of task features, and those who consider task effects on processing goals. Candlin (1987) bases his task-difficulty categories on an essentially data-free account. Skehan proposed a three-way distinction for the analysis of tasks, which he later developed into a scheme for task sequencing, contrasting formal factors (code complexity)

with content (cognitive complexity) and with pressure to achieve communication (communicative stress).

Brown (1995) investigated various task design features in an attempt to establish task difficulty on an empirical basis, proposing dynamic, and abstract tasks (table 9, below):

Table (9): Tasks of ascending difficulty

Degree of difficulty				
Static task		Dynamic task		Abstract task
e.g. Diagram	e.g. Pegboard	e.g. Story	e.g. Car Crash	e.g. Opinion
	Many elements, relationships, characters, etc. (more difficulty) Few elements, relationships, characters, etc. (less difficulty)			

(Brown, 1995)

2.1.5.4. The process syllabus

The 'Process Syllabus', proposed by Breen as the second main example of the 'process' paradigm, has roots in various influential educational theories (e.g. the humanist approach to teaching and learning, which followed educational and philosophical (not psycholinguistic) rationales, and which were intended for other subject areas (Stenhouse: 1978), though coinciding significantly

with views of applied linguists such as Widdowson(1987) and Brumfit(1984) on the open-endedness and creativity of language. Thus Clarke (1991) details four "important and substantially overlapping streams of applied linguistics and educational thinking" (1991:16), all of which place the learner at the centre of the learning process, derive at least partly from a holistic approach, and focus on the learner's affective, cognitive, and linguistic needs, his/her conscious or subconscious strategies, and his/her own perception of the objectives, aims, and other aspects of the learning situation:

1. the largely North American experimentation with 'humanistic' methodologies in ESL (Stevick: 1976);

2. the British EFL emphasis upon needs analysis as the basis for a Notional or Communicative syllabus, often with specific purposes in mind (Munby: 1978);

3. the general increase in research into issues related to learner individualisation and autonomy;

4. the closely related investigations into the nature of learner strategies in the language learning process.

The process syllabus is defined broadly by Breen as "a context within which any syllabus of subject-matter is made workable" (Breen: 1987a: 169). This appears to imply that "process" can be "all things to all people", but examination of the term "context" as used here shows significant differences between this and other types of syllabus, in the areas of language, teaching methodology, learner contributions, and planning for teaching and learning. An important characteristic of the process syllabus is that it is an infrastructure rather than a learning plan, with the syllabus designer no longer pre-selecting learning content, but providing a framework for teacher

and learners to create their own on-going syllabus in the classroom, thus allowing for changing abilities, learning needs, and perceptions in the learners, without specifying particular content, methodology, lexis, structure, or grammar. The teaching-learning process therefore provides significant lesson content (Breen: 1987a: pp166-169), and it is unnecessary and unrealistic to plan content without consulting the participants, especially in view of "the everyday phenomenon of teacher and learner reinterpretation of every pre-planned syllabus" (Allwright: 1984). Instead Candlin(1984) suggests a 'retrospective syllabus' that can only be described after the course is over, with process-syllabus designers in general aiming to provide a framework for learning which

> :... *deliberately engages reinterpretation; and which explicitly addresses teacher and learner capacities to select, subdivide and sequence subject matter for language learning which they (jointly) perceive as most valuable to them. ... It is this joint creation and implementation of a syllabus which the Process syllabus tries to serve.*

(Breen, 1987a: 166)

Justification

The Process Syllabus addresses Breen's eight syllabus design questions, not by separating syllabus and teaching methodology and establishing a divide between syllabus and classroom, but by acknowledging current views on language, language learning, and classroom dynamics, and by enrolling the learner as an integral part of that debate, since "targets for language learning are all too frequently set up externally to learners with little reference to the value of such targets in the general educational development of the learner" (Candlin: 1987). Divisions of language according to lexis and grammar are

not excluded, since learners can choose to concentrate upon them if wished, especially as the result of appraisal of a particular learning experience, but they are now results of social constructs, produced interdependently in classrooms by teachers and learners, who perform the normal procedures of syllabus design (including evaluation) together in the classroom in an on-going and adaptive way, using a bank of classroom activities which are themselves made up of sets of tasks (Breen: 1987: 166). Thus Breen claims that the process syllabus addresses the comprehensive language-learning question of "Who does what with whom, on what subject-matter, with what resources, when, how, and for what learning purpose(s)?" (1984:56), and he proposes six justifications for use of the process syllabus in language learning:

1. there are at least three syllabus types present in each classroom (that of the teacher, the learners, and the practical one which they work out each day), and the Process Syllabus facilitates a synthesis of the three by all the participants in the classroom;

2. the Process Syllabus provides a means of relating content matter and methodology;

3. it requires reinterpretation of itself during the learning process, and is therefore flexible, allowing for emerging changes in needs;

4. classroom decision-making is of utmost priority;

5. decision-making is seen as an authentic communicative activity in itself;

6. being an extension of the TBS, justifications for the latter also apply to the Process syllabus. Thus there is an aim of

developing underlying communicative competence, and an assumption that meta-communication and shared decision-making are necessary for language-learning (adapted from Breen: 1987a: 169)

Negotiation of meaning

Student-teacher and student-student negotiation of content and direction is an integral part of the process approach, but negotiation of meaning within that process is also a vital characteristic (Stevick: 1976); though Foster(1998) stated an opposing view) which it is claimed produces better quality and more finely tuned input, greater malleability in the interlanguage system, and a greater willingness to explore language and to try out hypotheses. Crookes& Gass(1993) observe that arguments in favour of negotiation of meaning as a learning tool relate to findings on the modification and restructuring of NNS conversations by the participants, through such means as comprehension checks and clarification requests: "negotiation of the sort prevalent in NNS discourse provides the learner with (1) the opportunity to hear language which may be useful for later integration into her language-learner system, and (2) the possibility of expressing concepts which are beyond her capacity" (Crookes& Gass: 1993: 1). Stevick(1976) adds that successful communication is dependent on attentiveness and involvement, and that negotiation of meaning therefore becomes a trigger for acquisition.

Assessment

Assessment is a "key element" (Breen: 1987a: 167) of the co-operative negotiation of syllabus design, being the mechanism though which learning can become consciously experiential. Having agreed on content, activities,

goals, and methods, teacher and learners share outcomes, identifying achievements and difficulties in an ongoing formative evaluation of learning tasks, language input, topic content, the affective climate, methodology and the syllabus itself. "It is from this crucial evaluation phase that adaptations or alternatives in each of these things can be proposed and sought by teacher and learners together" (Breen: 1987a: 167).

Problems

Published criticisms of the process syllabus point to:

1. a lack of formal field evaluation (White: 1988: 101)

2. an assumed unrealistically high level of competence in teachers and learners (White: 1988: 101);

3. an implied redefinition of role relationships and a redistribution of power and authority in the classroom that would be too radical and/or culturally unacceptable in some societies (White: 1988);

4. inadequate provision for relating the syllabus to the context in which it will occur (i.e. cultural barriers) (White: 1988);

5. emphasis on process and procedure rather than on outcome, possibly resulting in an aimless journey (White: 1988);

6. the need for a wide range of materials and learning resources, threatening the traditional reliance on a textbook, which often *is* the syllabus (White: 1988);

7. a lack of substantive evidence that negotiation produces better results, such that a more cautious approach might be more desirable (Clarke: 1991).

Long& Crookes (1993) see many of the above as logistical concerns, rather than flaws in the process syllabus itself, and describe different problems:

1. process syllabi deal in pedagogic tasks, the availability of which (the 'task bank') is not based on any prior needs identification;

2. grading task difficulty and sequencing tasks are discussed by Candlin(1987), but no decisions are made;

3. a focus on language form is not addressed;

4. it is not clear to what theory or research in SLA the process syllabus is to be held accountable, as there is relatively little reference in the *language*-learning literature to process syllabi. Long& Crookes: 1993: 35).

2.1.5.5. The project syllabus

Legutke & Thomas define the project syllabus as:

> *... a theme and task-centred mode of teaching and learning which results from a joint process of negotiation between all participants. It allows for a wide scope of self-determined action for both the individual and the small group of learners within a general framework of a plan which defines goals and procedures. Project learning realises a dynamic balance between a process and a product orientation.*

> (Legutke& Thomas, 1991: 160)

Project-based syllabi can be seen as a special application of the process syllabus, exemplifying process and task-based ideas by being "collaborative, avoiding competition, and lending themselves to analysis of global goals into sub-components which are then delegated to sub-groups, who take

responsibility for completing them" (Skehan: 1998: 273). Project learning became a central issue in the 1960s and 1970s in the wake of a radical critique of institutionalised schooling and became linked with the idea of a more "convivial society" (Illich: 1973) and the democratisation of learning through the introduction of the comprehensive school. Since then project activities in various fields of education have abounded and the term 'project' has become blurred, often being used to mean an activity which "is in some kind of opposition to whatever is considered mainstream educational practice", with "overgeneralised connotations of freedom as opposed to constraint, and, unfortunately, fun as opposed to serious and responsible work"Legutke& Thomas, 1991: 158).

Project-based syllabi have a strong process dimension, but they are also notable for the product which emerges from the process (e.g. oral presentation, drama, written report). This product is seen as part of the process continuum (a means rather than an end), useful for the feedback (and therefore opportunities for assessment) which it gives to the learners concerning their progress, as well as functioning as a "sort of public record of the project, of which the participants have ownership, and which will give the project some durability" (Skehan: 1998: 273). Haines sees the possibility of specialisation within a project and a clearer structure for individual contributions, with the 'public performance' aspect of the product stage encouraging a greater focus on form as well as being a source of evaluative information.

 Fried-Booth (1986) suggests a sequence for involving students in project work, in which learners take progressively greater responsibility (cf. "The Way Ahead"). The teacher decides on introductory and bridging topics, but

once the introductory stages are over, learners are ready for full-scale projects in which they take wider responsibility for topic choice as well as topic execution. This approach can provide a useful introduction (for teachers and students) to process syllabus ideas, as the teacher gradually hands over control of the learning situation to the students, though Legutke& Thomas (1991: 204)emphasise that this should not be viewed as a simple linear process. In the full-scale project, Fried-Booth(1986) suggests three stages that can be matched with Legutke& Thomas'(1991) common structure for projects, following stages of development. (Table 10, below):

Table (10): Structures for projects

Fried-Booth (1986) (project stages)	Legutke & Thomas (1991) (project structure)
1. Classroom based • Provision of stimulus material • Definition of project objectives • Analysis and practice of language skills • Design of written materials	1. opening 2. topic orientation
2. Carrying out of project • Group activities • Collation of information	3. research and data collection 4. preparing data presentation
3. Review/monitoring	4. Presentation

• Organisation of material • Final presentation	5. Evaluation

Adapted from [(Fried-Booth,1986: 85); (Legutke& Thomas, 1991]

Legutke & Thomas (1991) draw attention to a number of issues which still need to be addressed regarding project work:

1. *process*: the claim that communication *about* language learning makes for the authenticity of the communicative classroom (Breen& Candlin:1980; Breen: 1985b) "needs to be complemented by documented classroom experiences which explicate a negotiated curriculum in action" (Legutke& Thomas: 1991: 230). The cyclical nature of expansion of learner skills and interdependence with the teacher also needs to be investigated;

2. *product:* classroom texts become necessary parts of the process continuum and have more value for the students;

3. *experience*: the claim that the main benefit of project work comes from the extent to which learners are able to learn experientially (Legutke& Thomas: 1991:219) is difficult to substantiate, given the lack of evaluative studies of projects themselves or compared with more conventional forms of teaching;

4. *the co-operative classroom:* "Unless the question of how the co-operative teams go about organising their learning *linguistically* is addressed, It will not be possible to take the

discussion past the level of conceptual debate into the area of classroom practice" (Legutke& Thomas: 1991: 292);

5. *the individual and the group:* the co-operative group has been identified as "the nourishing ground for self-empowerment of the individual" (Legutke& Thomas: 1991: 235), but there has been a lack of awareness of and research on the specific needs of the individual learner who has difficulties in coping with the demands of the co-operative classroom and the project process. (Legutke& Thomas: 1991: 235; Skehan: 1998);

6. *aspects of implementation:* Research is needed on the use of the L1 in the process setting: "In monolingual groups, especially at elementary level, it is viewed that the role of the mother tongue as an important bridge language in procedural discourse needs to receive a fresh and undogmatic reassessment in view of project learning" (Legutke& Thomas: 1991: 230);

7. *the institution:* location, time factors, rooms, equipment.

2.1.6. The multi syllabus or eclectic syllabus:

The choice of a syllabus is a major decision in language teaching, and it should be made as consciously and with as much information as possible. There has been much confusion over the years as to what different types of content are possible in language teaching syllabi and as to whether the differences are in syllabus or method. Several distinct types of language teaching syllabi exist, and these different types may be implemented in various teaching situations. Although many different types of language teaching syllabi have so far been discussed, as though each occurred "purely," in practice, these types rarely occur independently of each other.

Almost all actual language teaching syllabi are combinations of two or more of these types. For a given course, one type of syllabus usually dominates, while other types of content may be combined with it. Furthermore, these types of syllabi are not entirely distinct from each other. Approaching language syllabus in this respect has been known as the multi syllabus and given the catchword in the field of syllabus design 'eclectic' syllabus.

The multi syllabus or eclectic syllabus is based on more than one method. Most modern courses combine elements from several types of syllabus in order to maximize their usefulness, both for the teacher and the learner.

> *Most language teaching programmes operate from a basis of informed eclecticism rather than by attempting to rigidly implement a specific method. A policy of uniformed eclecticism (which is how the term 'eclectic' or 'eclectic method' is often used), on the other hand, would be where techniques, activities, and features from different methods are selected without explicit reference to programme objectives.*

(Richards and Rodgers, 1986, 159)

2.1.7. Syllabus design: Summary

The researcher began the discussion with the description of a number of options for syllabus design which are dependent on different approaches to language teaching. It has been mentioned that synthetic syllabi are organized around grammatical units, lexical units, notions and functions, or skills. Moreover, some of its problems among which their lack of coherence with SLA findings were also, highlighted. Analytic syllabi with an exclusive focus on meaning were then described, and the lack of focus of form in their implementation was emphasized as their major drawback. Finally, three other types of analytic syllabi were outlined. Process syllabi were defined as

syllabi in which each task as well as most other aspects of the programme are negotiated with learners. The procedural syllabus was presented as one of the first approximations to a syllabus composed in its entirety by tasks. Finally, the task-based proposals advanced by Long (1985) and Skehan (1998) were outlined. It can also be concluded that there are at least eight major questions confronting syllabus designers, and which are therefore particularly appropriate to this study:

1. how to represent language knowledge as a 'complex' of competencies (linguistic, sociolinguistic, discoursal, pragmatic, etc.);

2. how to represent language knowledge as the underlying capacity to apply, adapt, and refine rules and conventions during language learning and use;

3. how to represent language capability as the ability to interpret and express meaning and to negotiate with and through spoken and written texts;

4. how to represent such knowledge and capabilities in ways which are amenable to the profession's development of the practice of teaching;

5. how can syllabus planning interact with methodology in a mutually beneficial way during a period of innovation?;

6. how can the syllabus harmonise in an unconstraining but facilitative way with the internal process of language acquisition, the strategic behaviour of learners, and with the personal-syllabus creation of different learners?;

7. how can the syllabus harmonise in an unconstraining but facilitative way with relatively unpredictable and necessarily diverse teaching-learning processes which will transform the syllabus into action?;

8. if the designer's plan of content is consistently subordinated within the more salient teaching-learning experience of the classroom, how might the designer nevertheless exploit the organising principles of a syllabus so that the accessibility of new knowledge and alternative ways of developing language capabilities is maximised for both the teacher and the learners? In other words, how might the focusing, selection, subdivision, and sequencing of content become explicit elements within the classroom experience? (Breen: 1987a: 160).

Having identified the questions, it is suggested that there are three possible reactions to these challenges: i) the planning energy given to syllabi could be redirected elsewhere; ii) it could be asserted that as a planning document, a syllabus of content is independent of its implementation through teaching; and iii) the challenges could be met head-on in the development of alternative kinds of syllabus (e.g. process syllabi).

 (Breen, 1987a:160) further anticipates six areas of innovation in syllabus design "in the coming decades":

1. changing views on the nature of language;

2. multiplication of TBSs;

3. particular teachers in particular teaching situations will initiate and develop process syllabi, thus refining what is meant by such a syllabus;

4. a growing emphasis on the implementation of changes in viewpoint;

5. the development of classroom-oriented research and evaluation procedures will provide insights into learner views on the nature and values of a syllabus;

6. process plans may be developed that capture the proven beneficial aspects of earlier plans (Breen: 1987a: 171).

(Legutke & Thomas, writing only four years after Breen's article, see some evidence of Breen's 'emerging' process paradigm gaining acceptance. However, they make the important observation that "insights of applied linguists are still rather limited as to whether changes mentioned in academic works are matched by respective modifications of classroom practice" (1991:6). Evidence of this shift in language teaching and learning ideas (*up to* 1991, rather than *since* 1987) is seen by Legutke & Thomas in:

1. a shift from language as form to language in context and as communication (Widdowson: 1987);

2. increased attention on the construct of task as the pivotal component of classroom design and implementation (Parbhu: 1984);

3. the shift from the learner as passive recipient of language form to an active and creative language user;

4. a clear shift from the learner as individual to the learner as member of the social group actively involved in co-managing the learning process (Allwright: 1984);

5. a rediscovery of literary texts for L2 classroom use as an important means of authenticating communication;

6. changing views on the curriculum (no longer exclusively understood as a list of items to be completed, but as something which also requires a process of negotiation in which both the teacher and the learner participate);

7. expanding and redefined roles of teachers and learners;

8. a view of assessment as an aid to learning in addition to its traditional role of measuring outcomes (Brindley: 1984);

9. a rediscovery of the *educational* values of language learning; the shift from language instruction to a holistic, critical and explanatory pedagogy is immensely political.

Views on the nature of language have continued to develop since Breen's article along with research into autonomy and affective influences on learning ,the 'task' as a unit of syllabus design has been widely accepted (with differing interpretations) and the field of classroom-oriented research is growing. However, as with Canale& Swain's (1980) largely unanswered call for a rigorous research programme into the communicative approach (cf Legutke& Thomas: 1991: 1), Breen's predictions (above) remain mostly unfulfilled twelve years after his 1987 article (though it is not easy to find information on efforts of individual teachers), and rigorous research into philosophical, theoretical, psycholinguistic, sociolinguistic and evaluative aspects of syllabus design remains to be carried out. There is also evidence of traditional methods continuing to be practised in 'communicative' teaching situations, and published textbooks are still "either explicitly Formal in their organisation or incorporate a Formal 'spine' within them". A number of communicative teachers' resource books have appeared which can provide the sort of materials (and the inspiration for creation) that Breen

talks about as necessary for the learning bank in a TBS, however, they mostly leave the reasoning for the task and its method of implementation to the teachers, and can imply unselected/unstructured "one-off" activities to be inserted at random in the traditional "three- phases" lesson.

Research has cast "considerable doubt on traditional justifications for Type A syllabi" (White: 1988: 109), but with the exception of the Bangalore experiment there has been no really concerted effort to evaluate any task-based or process approach in actual operation (Seedhouse: 1999) so that criticism levelled at process syllabi remain to this day, concerning: i) the difficulty of differentiating tasks (especially tasks with 'sub-tasks' nested within them); ii) the finiteness of tasks or task types (or their 'generative capacity'); and iii) task difficulty (grading and sequencing criteria) (Long& Crookes: 1993: 43). It should be noted, however, that these problems were never resolved for synthetic syllabi either, that selection and sequencing methods for propositional syllabi have not been supported by research, and that "there is always a disparity between intention and reality" in a means-end approach to syllabus design (White: 1988: 97). Finally, Breen's propositional/process paradigm shift in language syllabus design can be summarized as follows:

Table (11): Breen's propositional/process paradigm shift in language syllabus design http://www.finchpark.com/afe/tbs11.htm

THE PARADIGM SHIFT IN LANGUAGE SYLLABUS DESIGN		
	PROPOSITIONAL PLANS	PROCESS PLANS
	Formal and Functional	Task-Based and Process

	Syllabus Types	Syllabus Types
Represent:	Knowledge of language Use of skills Repertoire of uses	Procedures for communicating, learning, and classroom work
Criteria for design:	Language system and categories	Learner capacity to develop established communicative competence
		Learner capacity to impose order on new knowledge and required capabilities
		Social potential of classroom to provide opportunities for the above
Purpose and Focus:	Development of accurate and fluent performance	Development of underlying competence in accuracy, appropriateness, and meaningfulness within activities and events.
		Process (means) focused
Elements:	Discrete/analysed rules and conventions of language system and its use	Integration of communicative knowledge systems and use of abilities
	Coherence intrinsic to the language system and its use	Coherence provided by communicative needs of learners and by learning

		and teaching process
Implied Use:	Established plan to be followed through transmission to learners	Established plan as basis for learning work (Tasks)/A framework for classroom planning (Process)
	Content assumed separable from methodology	Implementation assumes content and methodology in continual relationship.

2.2 NEEDS ANALYSIS

2.2.1. An introduction to needs analysis

According to Nunan (1988a), a curriculum differs from a syllabus in that the former is "concerned with making general statements" whereas the latter is "more localized and based on accounts and records of what actually happens at the classroom level as teachers and learners apply a given curriculum to their own situation." In creating a syllabus, however, the problems remain of (1) defining the local situation, (2) collecting the accounts and records and (3) analyzing the records with respect to the learning situation.

One recently oft-used technique which can aid in solving these problems is needs analysis. Needs analysis is *"concerned with identifying general and specific language needs that can be addressed in developing goals, objectives and content in a language program"* (Richards & Rodgers 1986, 156). Although it was originally designed for areas other than English education, the so-called "communicative needs analysis" found a happy niche for application in ESL. This is due to trends towards teaching non-traditional English such as English for Special Purposes (ESP).

Long (1996) cites four reasons for performing needs analyses: (i) relevance -to determine the relevance of the material to the learners" situations; (ii) accountability -to justify the material in terms of relevance for all parties concerned (teacher, learner, administration, parents); (iii) diversity of learners -to account for differences in learner needs and styles; and finally, (iv) efficiency -to create a syllabus which will meet the needs of the learners as fully as possible within the context of the situation.

Nunan (1988a) states that for a needs analysis,

> *Information will need to be collected, not only on why learners want to learn the target language, but also about such things as societal expectations and constraints and the resources available for implementing the syllabus.*

(Nunan, 1988a: 14)

Nunan defines two types of needs analyses: a learner analysis ("what background factors are the learners bringing to the classroom?") and task analysis ("for what purposes is the learner learning the target language?") In addition, a "means analysis", or analysis of learner styles based on subjective inquiry into HOW students like to learn best can aid in finding out how to approach the material which needs to be learned (Nunan 1988a, p. 78).

This distinction between needs analysis and means analysis is roughly parallel to Widdowson's (1987) distinction between goal-oriented (= how the language will eventually need to be used) and process-oriented (= how the language is best acquired) definitions of needs. Although Widdowson argues that the latter may in the long run be more appropriate for ESP in his words, "the means imply the ends" (1987: 102).

Exactly how should a needs analysis be undertaken? Three important factors in performing needs analyses are identified here by Long (2005) as follows:

- Sources:

Major sources for needs analyses are a) previous needs analyses, which can provide working examples as well as valuable insight into needs of students in similiar programs and with similiar experiences, b) students themselves (with the caveat that students are usually "preexperienced"; that is, they do not know what they will need to know), c) applied linguists (good sources for language requirements) and d) domain experts, often referred to as "insiders" This may include business people as well as "returnees", or students who have previous experience in dealing with the target situation.

- Triangulation:

Cross-checking of data provided by at least three of the above sources is important, and adds to the validity of the needs analysis.

- Multiple methods:

A single method of gathering information may not provide a complete picture: unstructured interviews used to supplement questionnaires, for example, may add essential insights.

2.2.2. Definitions and historical background

Why needs analysis (NA) should be conducted can best be answered by simply stating what needs analysis is. Berwick (1989:52) suggests a basic definition of need: "gap or measurable discrepancy between a current state of affairs and a desired future state." Needs analysis procedure in the field of language teaching was first used by Michael West in a survey report published in 1926 (White, 1988). In the following decades, however, little if

any attention was given to needs analysis. This can be explained by the influence that the traditional structural view of the language continued to exert on the field of English language teaching (ELT), which resulted in the belief that the goal of second and foreign language learning was the mastery of these structurally related elements of language, i.e. phonological units, grammatical units, grammatical operations and lexical items (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 17).

The term "need analysis" re-emerged during the 1970s as a result of intensive studies conducted by the Council of Europe team. The team was responsible for developing a new approach towards teaching the major European languages to European adults. Research and studies conducted by the Council of Europe team resulted in the emergence of the communicative approach to language learning which replaced the situational approach dominant in language teaching and learning at that time. The Council of Europe team felt that successful language learning resulted not from mastering linguistic elements, but from determining exactly what the learner needed to do with the target language. One of the terms, which the team came up with, was the "Common Core". The common core suggests that language learners share certain interests despite their different goals in learning foreign languages. *"The team recognized that there will be areas of interest common to all students, whatever their particular situation and specialization". (*Johnson: 1982: 42)

 The 'common core' provides a basis people can rely on in conducting needs analysis in the general English classroom. It is argued that it is not possible to specify the needs of general English learners specially at the school level.

So, needs analysis has been neglected in the general English classroom and emphasized in ESP as Hutchinson and Waters (1987) suggested.

2.2.3. Needs and objectives

Nunan (1988a) classified needs analysis under two headings: "objective" needs and "subjective" needs. He assigned objective needs to be diagnosed by the teacher on the basis of the personal data of the learners. In the light of this data, the teacher can select or plan a suitable syllabus. Subjective needs are derived from the learners themselves and influence the teaching methodology of the syllabus. "Objective data is that factual information which does not require the attitudes and views of the learners to be taken into account. Thus, biographical information on age, nationality, home language, etc. is said to be 'objective'. Subjective information, on the other hand, reflects the perceptions, goals, and priorities of the learner. It will include, among other things, information on why the learner has undertaken to learn a second language, and the classroom tasks and activities which the learner prefers." (Nunan: 1988a: 18)

> *While objective needs analysis and content are commonly linked, as are subjective needs and methodology… it is, in fact, also possible to have a content/subject needs dimension (learners deciding what they want to learn) and a methodology/ objective needs dimension (teachers deciding how content might best be learnt). The dimensions themselves are represented as a series of graduations rather than discrete categories.*

(Nunan: 1988b: 44)

2.2.3.1 Objective needs analysis

Initial "*objective*" needs analyses focused on identifying learners' real world

communicative requirements so that courses could be designed reflecting these and preparing users for their intended use of the target language (TL). Munby's model (1978) is the most well-known of this type, and became "An unavoidable reference point" (Tudor 1996:66), though West (1994) mentions that its rigour and complexity "tended to halt rather than advance development", and Tudor notes that it deals only with target situation analysis (TSA), ignoring deficiency analysis ("present situation analysis" - PSA, strategy analysis and means analysis (West 1994; Tudor 1996). Munby's model contained nine components, relating to the learners' communicative requirements (participant, purposive domain, setting, interaction, instrumentality, dialect, target level, communicative event, and communicative key), and Tarone & Yule (1989) later covered much the same ground with a four-level framework: i) global level (situations, participants, communicative purpose, target activities); ii) rhetorical level (organisational structure of the communicative activities); iii) grammatical-rhetorical level (linguistic forms required to realise the forms in level ii); and iv) grammatical level (the frequency of grammatical and lexical constructions in the target situation). Both models imply that a needs analysis should progress from an identification of learners' target language needs, to an analysis of the communicative activities they will need to perform in order to achieve those goals, and the linguistic forms by which these activities will be realised (Tudor: 1996:72).

2.2.3.2 Subjective needs analysis

As recognition grew in the 1980's and 1990's of the existence and importance of psychological, cognitive, cultural and affective learning needs, a "*subjective*" interpretation arose in which needs are seen in terms of

the learner as an individual in the learning situation (Brindley: 1984:63), and attention was given to "factors of a psychological or cognitive nature which influence the manner in which learners will perceive and interact with the process of language study" (Tudor: 1996:126), categorised in terms of: i) *individual differences* (introversion-extroversion, tolerance of ambiguity, risk-taking, cognitive style); and ii) *learning style* (psychological, cognitive, sensory differences). However, the call for accessing the "knowledge and conceptual networks" was impractical in the majority of cases, especially at the beginning of a course. Therefore, learners needed training in identifying their learning needs (including specialist terms and concepts) and formulating them into goal-setting:

> *If subjective psychological needs felt by the learner are to be taken into account as well as objective communication needs, then some kinds of mechanisms have to be built into the learning process which allow for systematic consultation and negotiation between the two parties. Information has to be exchanged about roles and expectations.*

> *(Brindley: 1984: 73)*

Such a "mechanism" implies not only ongoing learner training in identifying learning needs, setting learning goals, planning a course of study, and reflection (self-assessment and reappraisal of goals), but also a change of roles and power structure (Stevick: 1976) as negotiation of course content and direction leads to modification of teacher/learner expectations, and teachers gradually transfer control of learning. This process of "learning how to learn" and of negotiating classroom learning parameters takes time (Brindley: 1984:76) and is not always comfortable for teachers or students,

as established "truths" are challenged and perhaps found inadequate. However, problems associated with objective needs analysis (e.g. the impracticality of obtaining sufficient pre-course data, the need for the teacher to be an expert in the students' special fields, and the responsibility for producing a course to meet students needs in those fields) tend to originate from a view of the teacher as all-knowing expert and transmitter of required knowledge, which is rarely the case in specialised ESP courses such as English for nurses, international trade, accounting, or particle physics. Widdowson (1987) calls for English to be used in teaching other subjects at high school level. Moreover, a joint "exploration of the learners' needs, both by the teachers, and by the learners themselves" (Tudor 1996:76), is more appropriate.

2. 2.3.3. A combination of approaches

Both objective and subjective approaches have their advantages and disadvantages. Widdowson (1987) argues that specifying precise product-oriented needs results in restricted competence and Tudor (1996:94) points out that objective needs analysis does not make sufficient use of the learners' own knowledge of their learning goals, and that data collection is difficult to realise. On the other hand, Dubin & Olshtain (1986:102) warn that "assessment of individual needs could result in multiple course objectives", while Tudor (1996) observes that most teaching methods and teaching styles favour one set of learning style preferences over another. He also envisages that a subjective needs analysis has to take this into account. This can be accomplished either;

- by matching the teaching style to students' preferences (similarity), or

- by exposing learners to various styles to enrich their awareness of learning options (complementarity).

Thus a simple analysis of "objective needs" will not produce a teaching syllabus, but it can be a useful beginning in a two stage objective/subjective approach (Tudor: 1996:94), in which information on learners and their intended use of the TL is collected before or at the start of the course, and is developed through *collaborative* exploration of their communicative agendas and the process of language learning.

Brindley (1984:76) points out that negotiation "is a complex and subtle process", and that flexibility, understanding, co-operation and collaboration are important aspects. He proposes a model of a learner-centred system, including negotiation, information exchange, awareness activities, evaluation and feedback, learning activities, and objective-setting in consultation, all of which help the learner to become aware of and reflect on learning needs, and to set future goals based on those needs. Brindley's model can be seen as a continuous needs analysis, initiating a process of learning. Notable is its cyclic nature, and its lack of an obvious start- or end-point. Information exchange is the traditional place at which to begin needs analysis, but students have usually spent time in some sort of self-evaluation and discussion of their learning needs prior to arriving on a course (especially if they are participating by choice), and are typically conscious of these concepts to some extent. Even the statement "I am not good at English" implies a level of awareness, evaluation, feedback, negotiation, and objective-setting on the part of the speaker, whether this is well-informed or based on prejudice and popular learning-myths, and whether it is used to enhance future learning or to justify its discontinuation ("I cannot learn, so I

will stop trying"). Thus Brindley's model describes a cyclic process of investigation of objective/subjective needs, which can be entered at any point, and which can continue during (and after) the course.

Figure (2): Elements of a learner- centred system

```
                    ┌──────────────────────┐
                    │ Information exchange  │
                    └──────────────────────┘
          ↗                                      ↖
   ┌──────────────────┐              ┌──────────────────┐
   │ Evaluation   and │              │ Discussion       │
   │ feedback         │              │                  │
   └──────────────────┘              └──────────────────┘
          ↕                                    ↕
   ┌──────────────────┐              ┌──────────────────┐
   │ Awareness activities │          │ Negotiation      │
   └──────────────────┘              └──────────────────┘
          ↕                                    ↕
   ┌──────────────────┐              ┌──────────────────┐
   │ Learning activities │           │ Negotiation      │
   └──────────────────┘              └──────────────────┘
          ↖              ┌──────────────────────┐       ↗
                         │ Objective-setting  in │
                         │ consultation          │
                         └──────────────────────┘
```
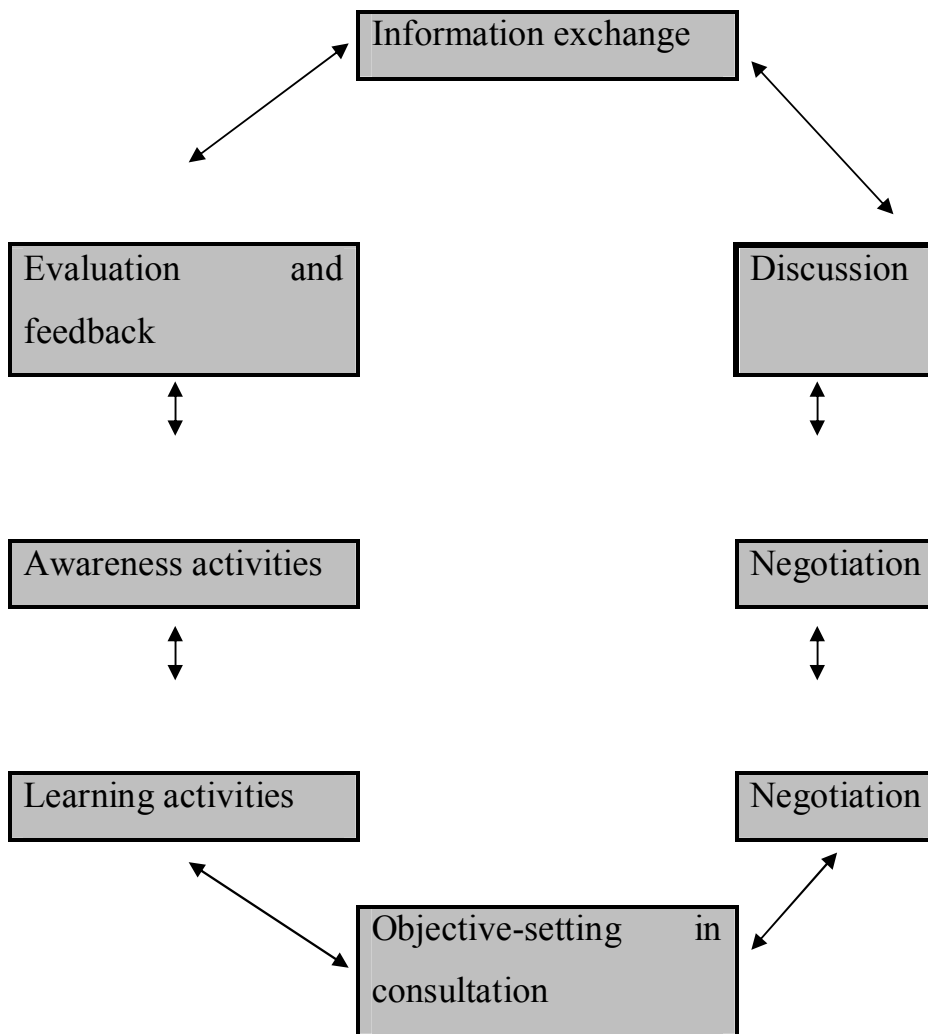
(Bindley: 1984:77)

2.2.4. Needs analysis in ESL curriculum development

Teaching English as a Second Language (TESL) literature has widely discussed the value and importance of needs analysis in language program/curriculum development. The necessity and impact of needs analysis in language teaching and learning has been advocated not only for ESP (English for Special Purpose) students but also for second/foreign language students in general. The following summarizes the importance of needs analysis for general language courses from various perspectives such as learner-centered curriculum, task-based curriculum, performance assessment, proficiency-oriented curriculum, and motivation:

1. In a learner-centered curriculum, teachers' reconciliation in content selection through extensive consultation with students about their learning needs and interests is critical; needs analysis helps teachers create in-class activities in which the students can utilize learned skills and knowledge as tools to meet their real-life needs in meaningful ways (Nunan, 1988)

2. Needs analysis helps teachers understand "local needs" of students or the needs of a particular group of students and make practical decisions in pedagogy and assessment for improvement (Tarone & Yule, 1989).

3. Needs analysis should be a central component of performance assessments, whose purposes are to test students' ability to perform tasks in real-world situations (Norris, Brown, Hudson, & Yoshioka, 1998).

4. Needs analysis is an integral component of task-based syllabi; real-life target tasks should be identified by a needs analysis (Long & Crookes, 1992, 1993).

5. In proficiency-oriented instruction/curricula, needs analysis helps teachers understand the potential differences in learning expectations between themselves and their students.

6. Obtaining input from the students about a planned or existing program through a needs analysis is fundamental to the design, implementation, evaluation, and revision of the programme. (Richards, 2001).

7. A program that attempts to meet students' perceived needs will be more motivating and successful (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991).

2.2.5. Needs analysis and curriculum development

As it has been defined, needs analysis (NA) is a procedure to collect information about learners' needs (Richards: 2001). The importance of NA is emphasized in English for Specific Purpose (Hutchinson & Waters: 1987) and English for Academic Purposes and also in general language courses espousing learner-centered curricula (Tudor:1996), task-based curricula (Long & Crookes: 1992), as well as performance-assessment (Norris, Brown, Hudson, & Yoshioka:1988). NA is considered a crucial component of systematic curriculum development. In Brown's (1995: 21) systematic curriculum development model it is the first phase of quality control process. Brown (1995: 21) defines NA as the systematic collection and analysis of all relevant information necessary to satisfy the language learning requirements of the students within the context of the particular institutions involved in the learning situation. In the initial NA phase, administrators collect and analyze information about students' needs in order to design sound, defensible objectives-which is the second phase of Brown's five phase model. That is, based on this model, the purpose of conducting NA is to systematically gather information in order to design objectives. While goals

are "general statements about what must be accomplished in order to attain and satisfy students' needs," objectives refer to "precise statements about what content or skills the students must master in order to attain a particular goal" (Brown: 1995: 21). Thus, objectives have to be derived from corresponding goals. Therefore, it is essential for a language programme to have well-defined goals so that the subsequent evaluation instruments can accurately measure the extent to which students have mastered the goals. Administrators can select the goals that students feel the need to learn and extrapolate these in terms of specific objectives which represent a concrete manifestation of those goals. NA is generally administered to a particular target group of students at a programme-level. For the administration to a large number of students, a questionnaire is the most frequently used and efficient method to elicit responses.

Figure (3): The systematic curriculum development model
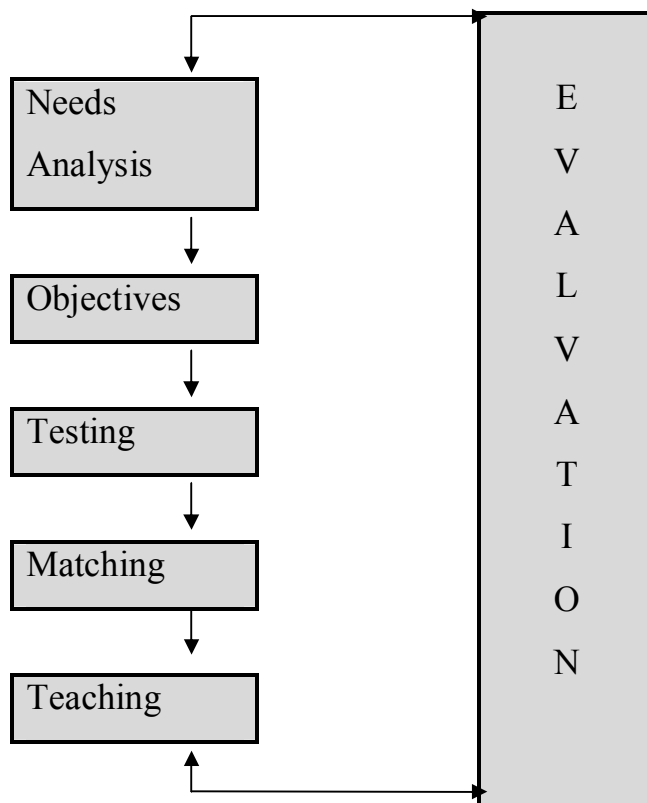
2.2.6. Necessities, needs and lacks

In recent years, there has been a healthy trend in course design with the focus shifting from teacher-centered to learner-centered activities and in this connection, a lot of credibility is being given to need based courses in ESL programme. Needs analysis is a device to know the learners' necessities, needs, and lacks in order to develop courses that have a reasonable content for exploitation in the classroom. Needs Analysis is therefore a process for identifying and defining valid curriculum and instructional and management objectives in order to facilitate learning in an environment that is closely related to the real life situations of the student. It brings into sharp focus the settings and roles that the learner is likely to face after he finishes his formal education. Actually, the switch of attention towards communication highlighted the role of the learner and his needs in modern educational systems. Language plays a role in a broader theory of communication. In fact, the contributions of Hymes, Labov, Halliday and Hasan, and Widdowson are considered the basis of enhancing the "Communicative Syllabus Design". Hymes (1971) in *"Competence and performance in linguistic theory"* speaks of 'rules of use without which the rules of grammar would be useless'. Labov (1972) said the same as 'the rules we need will show how things are done with words and how one interprets these utterances as actions' Halliday and Hasan (1976), define cohesion by saying "where the interpretation of any item in the discourse requires making reference to some other item in the discourse, there is cohesion". Cohesion is

one dimension of the general Hallidayan aim of devising principal methods of relating elements of grammatical structure to their use in discourse'. Widdowson (1987) proposed a different type of teaching syllabus built around a graded selection of rhetorical (or communicational) acts which the learner would have to perform in using English for his particular purpose. The scientist, for example, would necessarily make extensive use of such acts as definition, classification, deduction, and so on. Other learners would need to communicate in more ordinary everyday situation where greetings, making social arrangement, and exchanging information would be more important. Any teaching curriculum is designed in response to three questions: What is to be learned? How is the learning to be undertaken and achieved? To what extent are the former appropriate and the latter effective? A communicative curriculum will place language teaching within the framework of this relationship between some specified purposes, the methodology which will be the means towards the achievement of those purposes, and the evaluation of the methodology. Breen and Candlin (2001:9) proposed some purpose in language teaching such as:

- communication as a general purpose;
- the underlying demands on the learner that such a purpose may imply;
- the initial contributions which learners may bring to the curriculum;
- the process of teaching and learning;
- the roles of teacher and learners;
- the role of content within the teaching and learning , and Finally;
- the place of evaluation of learner progress and evaluation of the curriculum itself from communicative point of view.

2.2.7. Needs analysis and language use

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

2.2.8. Needs analysis in modern language teaching

"Needs Analysis" in modern language teaching was first proposed by the Council of Europe Modern Language Projects group. This group intends to promote language learning in Europe and offer guidance and support to the many 'partners for learning' whose cooperation is necessary to the creation of a coherent and transparent structure of provision for effective learning, relevant to the needs of the learners as well as of society (van Ek and Trim 2001). In 1971 the Council recognized the importance of dividing the task of learning a language into smaller units, each of which could be credited separately, and also the necessity of basing curricula on learners needs rather than on language structures, as had previously been common practice. One of the major outcomes of this educational policy is the "Threshold Level", specification (van Ek, 1975) which proposed a model for the description of

language ability based on the principle that language teaching should provide learners with the means of meeting their personal communicative needs. A lower specification was also produced, under the name "Waystage Level". In1991 revised and updated versions of both documents appeared as Threshold level 1990 and Waystage level 1990 (by J.A. van Ek and J,L.M. Trim) published by Council of Europe Press. Recently, a somewhat higher "Vantage" level (Trim 1996) has been proposed for learners who wish to continue to improve their language proficiency beyond the "Threshold Level". J.L.M. Trim (1998) wrote that the 'Council of Europe approach' to language teaching has been based on the central importance of specifying in appropriate detail the objectives to be aimed at in accordance with the best assessment of the needs, characteristics and resources of the learners concerned. The "Threshold Level" specifies in considerable detail what a language learner should be able to do in a particular language in order to deal with the business of daily living in another country and also to exchange information and opinion on everyday matters with other speakers of the language. It then suggests the language needed for the defined purposes. This has resulted in the emergence of the concepts language functions and language notions which have been adopted and applied to design courses. The meaning of functional syllabus is to arrange the syllabus in terms of functions and the language items needed for them.

Table (12): An example of language function and notion

Types of discourse	Skill	Function	Exponents	
			Vocabulary	Structure
Spoken	Speaking	Asking for	Bank	Can you

	Listening	directions	Harbour Museum	tell me where X is?/ Where isX?

(Adapted from Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics 1985)

In turn, the meaning of Notional syllabus, as Wilkins (1976) defines, is to begin with meanings and concepts a learner needs in order to communicate and the language needed to express them. These concepts and meaning are known as *notion* such as: time, space, argument, judgments and evaluation etc. The ideas of the Council, incorporated in these courses, meant for adults learning a second language, soon filtered down to the school level. The courses were revised and redefined, and course books using the notional-functional syllabus soon became an accepted part of the English syllabus in schools.

2.2.9. Approaches to needs analysis

Different approaches to language needs analysis are employed to investigate different focuses and issues in language planning, development, teaching and learning. Many ESP scholars suggest that TSA (Target Situation Analysis) and PSA (Present Situation Analysis) are the fundamental components for assessing language needs of learners. The theoretical aspect of the needs analysis is based on PSA and TSA components.

2.2.9.1. Target Situation Analysis (TSA):

The term,' Target Situation Analysis' (TSA) was introduced by Chambers (1980). Target Situation Analysis (TSA) is a form of needs analysis, which focuses on identifying the learners' language requirements in the occupational or academic situation they are being prepared for (West, 1994). Robinson (1991: 8) argues that a needs analysis, which focuses on students' needs at the end of a language course, can be called a TSA (Target Situation Analysis). Munby (1978) formulates the best-known framework of TSA type of needs analysis. He presents a communicative needs processor, comprising a set of parameters within which information on the students' target situation can be plotted. The model formulated by Munby has, widely, been studied and discussed. Comprehensive data banks are among its useful features. For example, micro-skills and attitudes can be used as checklists for the resultant syllabus. A helpful insight, codified by Munby, relates to target-level performance: for certain jobs students may require only a low level of accuracy. The TSA may thus pinpoint the stage at which 'good enough' competence for the job is reached.

TSA refers to tasks and activities learners are using or will be using for target situation. TSA generally uses questionnaire as the instrument (Dudley-Evans and St. John 1998:125). According to Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998: 124), TSA includes objective, perceived and product-oriented needs. They explain that the objective and perceived needs are derived by outsiders from facts, from what is known and can be verified. Therefore, "to be able to spell English words correctly" is an objective/perceived need. Product-oriented needs are derived from the goal or target situation.

2.2.9.2. Present Situation Analysis (PSA):

PSA is viewed differently by linguists. According to Robinson (1991: 8), "PSA (Present Situation analysis) seeks to establish what the students are like at the start of their language course, investigating their strengths and weaknesses". Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998: 124) state that PSA estimates strengths and weaknesses in language, skills and learning experiences. Richterich and Chancerel (1980) formulate the most extensive range of devices for establishing the PSA. They suggest that there are three basic sources of information: the students themselves, the language-teaching establishment, and the 'user-institution', for example the students' place of work. For each of these, an ESP practitioner seeks information regarding their respective levels of ability; their resources; and their views on language teaching and learning. ESP practitioners might also study the surrounding society and culture: the attitude held towards English language and towards the learning and use of a foreign language. Munby (1978) argues that PSA represents constraints on the TSA. According to McDonough (1984), PSA involves 'fundamental variables', which must be clearly considered before the TSA. In practice, one is likely to seek and find information relating to both TSA and PSA simultaneously. Thus, needs analysis may be seen as a combination of TSA and PSA.

2.2.9.3. Richterich's 'Objective' and 'Subjective' Needs:

As a member in Council of Europe Modern Language Projects group, Richterich pointed out that the learning process, by being responsive to learner's expressed needs, becomes a source of its own change. If feedback and consultation are built into the learning cycle, a learning activity can in itself become a kind of needs analysis, which allows the

teachers to perceive and provide for needs as they arise. These Objectives can be modified in the light of feedback from learners. Reichterich (as cited in R. West, 1994) comments that implementation of any sort of needs analysis has to deal first with some fundamental questions the answer to which may lead to the methodology. The questions are concerned with "what"," why", "when", "who", "for whom", and "how" of the procedure. Richterich (1983) noted that initial phase of "objective needs" analysis is considered as only a first step. It will establish broad parameters for program design but once learning begins, it is likely that, first, these language – related needs will change and that second, particular learning needs will come to light which were not identified pre-course. It is of course not an easy job as Richterich comments: *"The very concept of language needs has never been clearly defined and remains at best ambiguous."* (Richterich 1983:2). On the other hand, he declares that "objective needs" analysis forms the broad parameters of the programme, but when learning starts, this language related needs would be altered, and some sort of learning needs which were not specified precourse will appear. Therefore, at this step "subjective needs" analysis is essential to collect information from learners so as to guide the learning process. Richterich and Chancerel (1980) point out that due to the fact that needs vary too much from person to person, the system should have to be continually adapted. Richterich and Chancerel (1980:3) hold the idea that 'experience shows that in general the learner is little aware of his needs and, in particular, he is unable to express them in very clear terms'.

2.2.9.4. Munby's Communicative Needs Processor (CNP):

The central idea of Munby's formation of his framework is the concept of the language user's competence and its relation to knowledge and communication (Munby 1978:6).NA is at the heart of his approach. In an attempt to specify validly in the target communicative competence, Munby designed what is known as Communicative Needs Processor (CNP). He mentioned in the preface of his book "Communicative Syllabus Design" the influence of Dell Hymes and Michael Halliday on him, concerning the discussion on communicative approach to language teaching:

> *I was influenced at the macro-level by the Sociolin-*
> *guistic writing of Dell Hymes and Michael Halliday, and*
> *at more micro-level by the work of, in particular, Henry*
> *Widdowson, David Wilkins and Christopher Candlin.*

(Munby 1978:26)

Munby's Communicative Needs Processor (CNP) is considered the most popular procedure for the analysis of needs. Teachers of English, especially those concerned with the teaching of English for Specific Purpose, highly utilize his approach to the analysis of needs and they follow his model for specifying communicative competence. Munby's approach for building up participant or group of participants' profile works at two levels- priori and posteriori. At the priori level Munby's approach includes some parameters such as participant, purposive domain, settings, interactions and instrumentality. The information about the participant should concern the identity and language needs:

> *The data relating to identity provides information about*
> *the participant's age, sex, nationally, and place of*
> *residence …….The data concerning language need*

identifies the participant's target language need and the extent, if any, of his command of it …….

```
┌─────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│                            Participant       │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────┘
                    │
                    ▼
┌─────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│  Communicative Needs Processor              │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────┘


        ┌──────────────────────────┐
        │         Profile of Needs │
        └──────────────────────────┘

┌────────────────────┐          ┌──────────────────────┐
│  Language Skills    │          │  Meaning Processor   │
└────────────────────┘          └──────────────────────┘
        │                                  │
        ▼                                  ▼
                              ┌──────────────────────┐
                              │           Linguistic │
                              └──────────────────────┘
┌─────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│  Communicative Needs Processor              │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────┘
```
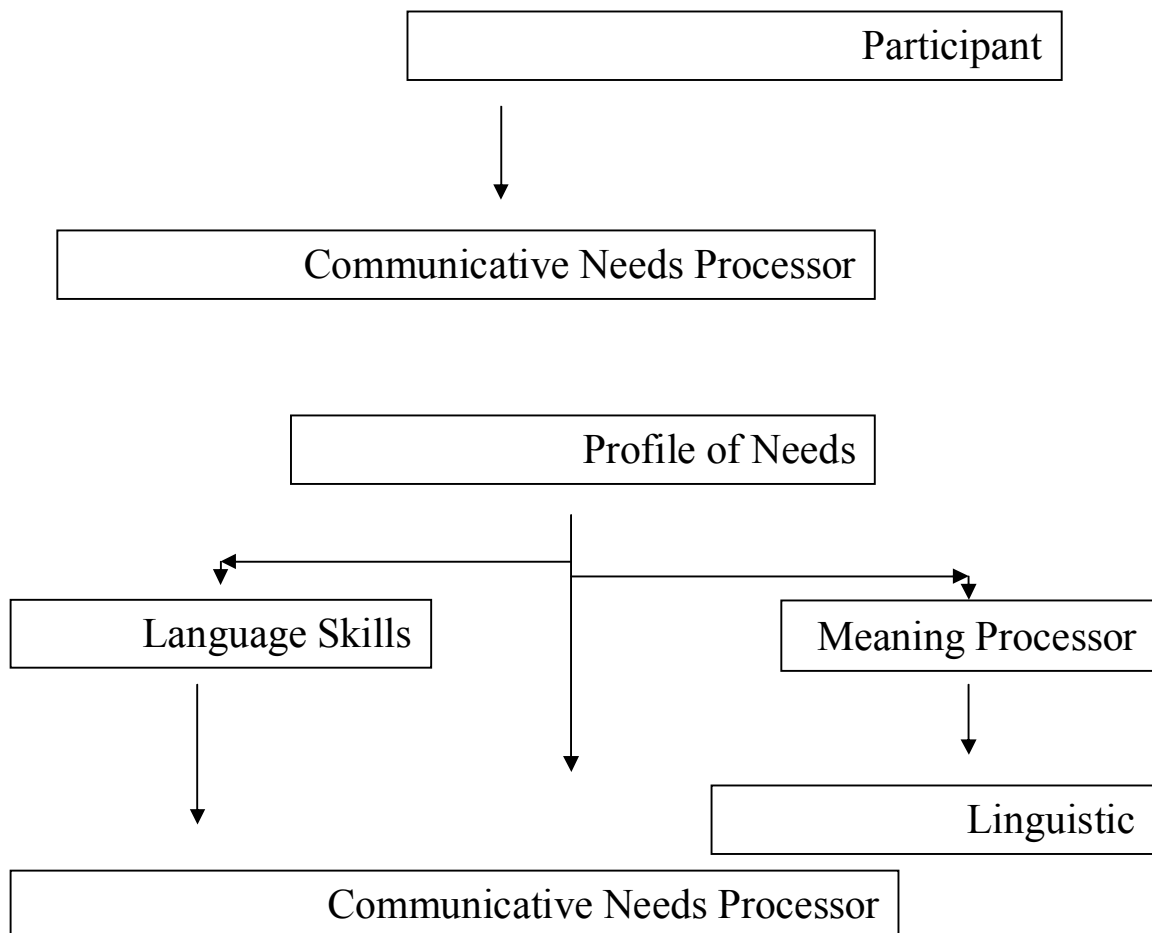
Figure (4): Model for specifying communicative competence.

The purposive domain parameter for Munby specifies the occupational or educational purpose for which the target language is required, where as the setting parameter specifies both physical and psychosocial setting in which the target language is required. Interaction parameter identifies those with whom the participant has to communicate in the target language and predicts

the relationship that may be expected to obtain between him and his interlocutors. By instrumentality Munby is concerned with identifying constraints on the input in terms of medium, mode, and channel of communication. At the posteriori level Munby presented Parameter such as dialect, target level, communicative event, and communicative key. The main dimension of dialect here is the regional/non regional e.g.to specify whether it is British or American, or regional variety of either. The participant target level of command should be stated in terms that will guide the further processing through the model. The parameter of communicative event is concerned with what the participant has to do, either productively of receptively and the parameter of communicative key is concerned with how one does the activities comprising an event. Munby model is considered the most sophisticated application of needs analysis. It has received much criticism for being too mechanistic, and for paying too little attention to the perception of the learner. It has led, in some instances, to syllabuses with a narrow focus such as "English of Motor Mechanics' and 'English for Biological Science'. The assumption behind the development of such syllabuses is that there are certain aspects of language which are peculiar to the contexts in which it is used and the purposes for which it is used. For example, it is assumed that there are certain structures, functions, topics, vocabulary items, conceptual meanings, and so on that are peculiar to the world of the motor mechanic and which are not found in 'General English' It is also assumed that different areas of use will require different communication skills from the learner, and that these needs to be specifically taught for the area of use in question (Nunan 1988b).

2.2.9.5. Nunan's Learner- Centered Approach:

Nunan takes a 'bottom-up view of curriculum development. Curriculum seen by him in terms of 'what teachers and learners actually do' (learner-centered curriculum) rather than 'what should be' (traditional curriculum).The focus of learner-centered curriculum is on ESP and it is also useful for *those working in EFL and also to those working with children'* (Nunan 1988a). The key difference between learner-centered and traditional curriculum development is that, in the former the curriculum is a collaborative effort between teachers and learners, since learners are closely involved in the decision making process regarding the content of the curriculum and how it is taught.

Table (13) Traditional versus communicative approach

Traditional approaches	Communicative approaches
1. Focus on learning:	

Focus is on the language as a structured system of grammatical patterns.	Focus is on communication.

| *2. How language items are selected:* | |

On linguistic criteria alone.	On the basis of what language items the learner needs to know in order to get things done.

| *3. How language items are sequenced:* | |

This is determined on linguistic ground.	This is determined on other ground with the emphasis on content,

	meaning and interest.

4. Degree of coverage:

The aim is to cover the 'whole picture' of language structure by systematic linear.	The aim is to cover, in any particular phase, only what the learner needs progression.

5. View of language:

A language is seen as a unified entity with fixed grammatical patterns and a core of basic words.	The variety of language is accepted and seen as determined by the character of particular communicative contexts.

3. Type of language used:

Tends to be formal and bookish.	Genuine everyday language is emphasized.

7. What is regarded as a criterion of success?

Aim is to have students produce formally correct sentences.	Aim is to have students communicate effectively and in a manner appropriate to the context they are working in.

8. Which language skills are emphasized?

Reading and writing.	Spoken interactions are regarded at least as important as reading and writing.

9. Teacher/ Student role:

Tends to be teacher-centered.	It is student centered.

10. Attitude to errors:

Incorrect utterances are seen as deviation.	Partially correct and incomplete utterances are seen as such rather than just "wrong"

11. *Similarity/ Dissimilarity to natural language learning:*

Reverses the natural language learning process by concentrating on the form of utterances rather than on the content.	Resembles the natural language learning process in that the content of the utterances is emphasized rather than the form.

(Adapted from: Jack, 2006: 31-37)

Nunan like Brindley and Richterich talked about "subjective" and "objective" needs analysis. He pointed out that the techniques for "subjective needs" analysis will therefore figure as prominently as a technique for "objective needs" analysis. However, in learner-centered system, course designers will engage in extensive consultation with learners themselves in deriving parameters and such system is considered as a utilitarian rational: skills are taught because the learner wishes to utilize them for some purpose beyond the learning environment itself, not simply because they happen to be part of a subject or academic discipline (Nunan 1988a:42). 'Objective' data is that factual information which does not require the attitude and view of the learners to be taken into account. Thus, biographical information on age, nationally, home language, etc. is said to be 'objective'. 'Subjective' information, on other hand, reflects the perceptions, goals, and priorities of the learner. It will include, among other things, information on why the learner has undertaken to learn a second language, and the classroom tasks and activities which the learner prefers. (Nunan 1988a:18)

2.2.9.6. Berwick's needs assessment in language programme:

Berwick (1989) defines needs as *"a gap or measurable discrepancy between a current state of affairs and a desired future state"* He also distinguishes two types of needs as 'felt' needs and 'perceived' needs. Berwick outlines some essential concepts in educational planning and how they are influencing the ways in which language program planners undertake language needs assessment as follows:

- **Designs based on an organized body of knowledge:**

This has been the predominant design until relatively recent past. It emphasizes the direct link between an academic discipline and content and procedures used during instruction. The focus in this design is generally on the intellectual development of the learner, although, as in the case of structural or functional syllabuses, the primary point is transfer of a systematic body of knowledge. The main academic sources for designs in language programming include literature and linguistics.

-

- **Designs based on specific competence:**

These emphasize performance objectives and learning of skills for particular purpose, although 'skills' can mean almost any level of specificity the ('four skills'- reading, writing, speaking, and listening- versus using the target language to confirm order for a meal in a restaurant). Specification of objectives is a major component of this design, especially in programs designed to each language for specific purpose.

- **Designs based on social activities and problems:**

This approach to planning has been most influential in second

(as opposed to foreign) language teaching, i.e., for immigrants or new residents of a culture in which the target language is viewed as a tool for coping with the social and economic demands of daily life. Heavy emphasis is placed on language as a tool of survival and on exposure to experiences in the community which will assist survival.

- **Design based on cognitive or learning processes:**

This orientation has always been a peripheral rather than mainstream way of approaching instructional design. It stresses the ways learners think and aims at strengthening the learner's ability to examine and solve problems on their own, perhaps the best developed application of this approach, in applied linguistics, can be seen in the organization of composition courses and materials although a theoretical basis for process approaches in instructional syllabuses has been development in Widdowson (1987).

-

- **Designs based on feelings and attitudes:**

These approaches represent the humanistic, affective end of the planning spectrum, an appealing region to those who believe that learning must bring people together and that the capacity to learn increases with one's openness to others. Rogers (1969) offers exemplary rationales for this design in educational planning. Those who apply humanistic values in language programming would emphasize development of the person through language and thus would view language more as a tool than an object.

- **Designs based on needs and interest of the learner.**

This approach to planning has generally supported rather than supplanted other approaches, although needs based curricula have been in vogue for the

past twenty years, particularly in public education systems. It constitutes a strong justification for the decisions planners make about instruction, for example, to say that their way of organizing it will meet learners' needs. The central characteristics of the approach include systematic assessment of learners 'language needs' along with consultation of learners of this orientation in applied linguistics would include Munby (1978), and the Council of Europe (Richterich and Chancerel: 1980). Furthermore, various analyses and approaches to needs assessment were put forward: analytic view of needs analysis which examines expert opinion, and a diagnostic approach which examines the learner's needs to be used in social services (Berwick: 1989); discrepancy analysis which attempts to examine what people know and what they ought to know, and a democratic approach which is based on learners' points of view (Stufflebeam et al, 1985, quoted in Berwick, 1989).

2.2.9.7. Brindley and the role of needs analysis:

Brindley, unlike others, called for a 'broad' or 'process-oriented' interpretation of needs. He sees needs primarily in terms of the needs of the learner as an individual in the learning situation. Needs analysis means, for him, trying to identify and take into account a multiplicity of affective or cognitive variables which affect learning, such as learner's attitudes, motivation, awareness, personality, want, expectations, and learning styles. Brindley adopted Richterich distinction between what is called 'objective' and 'subjective' needs analysis. Objective needs analysis aimed at collecting factual information for the purposes of setting broad goals related to language content, whereas subjective needs analysis aimed at gathering

information about learners which can be used to guide the learning process once it is under way. In a research project to investigate the feasibility of implementing a learner-centered system in Australian Adult Migrant Education Project, Bridley (1984) made a survey on teachers' understanding of 'student needs'. The result of the survey can be categorized under three headings: the 'language proficiency' view of needs, the 'psychological-humanistic' view and the 'specific purpose' view.

Table (14) Comparison of Approaches to Needs Analysis

	'Language proficiency' orientation	'Psychological/ humanistic' orientation	'Specific purposes' orientation
View of the learner	Learner as a language learner	Learner as a 'sentient human being' in society with the capacity to become self - directing	Learner as a language user.
View of needs	Objective needs stressed. Needs seen as gap between present and desired	Subjective needs stressed. Needs seen as gap between current	Objective needs stressed. Needs seen as gap between present language performance in a

	general language proficiency	state of awareness and state of awareness necessary for learner to become self-directing.	specific area and language performance required in a particular communication situation.
Emphasizes	Ease of administration where the learner is at in terms of language. Proficiency in one or more skills. Relevance of language content to learner's proficiency level	Sensitively to adults' subjective needs where learners is at terms of awareness. Relevance of learning content and methods to individual learning styles.	Collection of detailed data on objective needs. Whereas the learner is going in terms of language performance relevance of language content to learner's personal goals and social roles.
Educational rational	Language learners learn more effectively	Adult learn more effectively if	Language users learn more effectively if

	in a group containing learners of a similar proficiency level.Language learners learn more effectively if programmed content is geared to their proficiency level.	they are involved in the learning proceed through consultation and negotiation. Their past experience and present capacities should be valued and taken into account.	programmed content is relevant to their specific area of need or interest. General language proficiency is not as important as the ability to operate effectively in specific areas relevant to the learners' needs and interests.
Type of information	Biographical information Information on learners language proficiency information on learners language difficulties	Biographical information Information on learners' attitudes, motivation and awareness information on learners' personality and learning style. Information on	Biographical information on native speakers use of language in learners' target communication situation information, where relevant, on the needs of other parties in the relevant

		learners' desires and expectations about learning English.	communication situation e.g. factory foremen.
Method of information collection	Standardized forms Language proficiency test Observation	Standard forms Observation Counseling/ interview Oral survey Group discussions	Standardized forms Intensive language analysis in target communication situation language proficiency test Survey of learners' pattern of language use Survey of needs of particular bodies of individuals outsides A.M.E.S.
Time of information collection	Mainly precourse some incourse diagnostic assessment and feedback, depending on teacher.	Pre-course constant in course consultation and feedback.	Mainly pre-course Some ongoing in course consultation and feedback depending on teacher
How	Decision made	Decision	Decisions made on

analysis of information is used	concerning learners' current ability to use English Decision made concerning language learning priorities in light of present proficiency and diagnosed difficulties.	provisionally made about types of learning environment, methods, and content which might be appropriate for learner' subjective needs, taking into account their attitudes, motivation and awareness Decisions constantly revised and objectives modified in the light of ongoing negotiation.	appropriate language content to meet communication needs of learners Reconciliation of language needs of learners with those of other parties (e.g. management)
Purposes For collecting information	So that learners can be placed in groups of	So that adults individual characteristic as	So that learners will be presented with language data relevant

	homogeneous language proficiency so that teachers can plan language content relevant to learners' proficiency level	learners can be given due consideration in providing learn-ing pportunities so that adult can be helped to become self directing by being involved in decision making about their own learning.	to their own personal goals and social goals and social roles so that motivation will be enhanced by the relevance of this language content and learning will thus be facilitated.

Brindley (1989:70) stated that in theory it would be possible for a teacher to subscribe to all three of the approaches to needs analysis outlined above, their response showed a tendency for some kinds of needs to be emphasized at the expense of others, In general, it appeared that while most teachers were attempting to diagnose learners' objective needs through collecting combination of personal data, information about their language proficiency and interaction patterns, they had much more difficulty in systematically identifying and catering for subjective needs. Brindly (1989) and Robinson (1991) consider all factual information about the learner-language proficiency, language difficulties, use of language in real life- to form objective needs, whereas cognitive and affective needs of the learner in

language learning- confidence, attitudes, expectations are considered to form subjective needs.

2.2.10. Needs analysis in ESP Setting:

The key stage in ESP (English for Specific Purposes) is needs analysis. Needs analysis is the corner stone of ESP and leads to a very focused course. According to Robinson (1991: 7), "needs analysis is generally regarded as critical to ESP, although ESP is by no means the only educational enterprise which makes use of it". Strevens (1977) suggests that needs analysis is a necessary first step for specific purposes language teaching; it is more concerned with the nature of scientific discourse. Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 53) argue that any language course should be based on needs analysis. Needs analysis is fundamental to an ESP/EAP approach to course design. Dudley-Evans and St John (1998: 121) state that "needs analysis is the process of establishing the *what* and *how* of a course". They argue that "needs analysis is neither unique to language teaching-needs assessment, for example, is the basis of training programmes and aid development programmes- nor, within language training, is it unique to LSP and thus to ESP".Dudley-Evans and St John (1998: 126) stress three aspects of needs analysis:

> *First, needs analysis aims to know learners as people, as language users and as language learners. Second, needs analysis study also aims to know how language learning and skills learning can be maximized for a given learner group. Third, needs analysis study aims to know the target situations and learning environment so that data can appropriately be interpreted.*
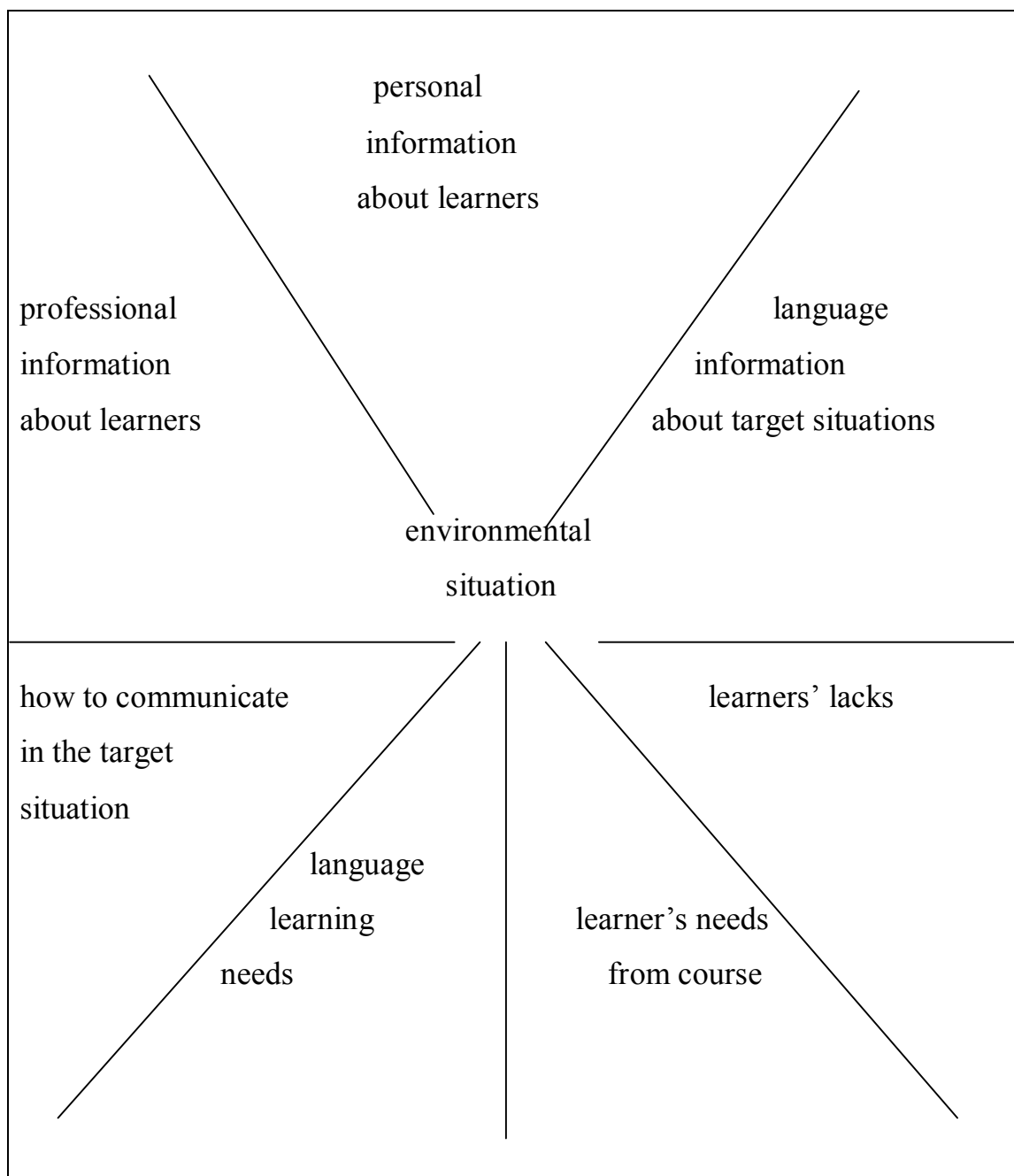>
> (Dudley-Evans & St John :1998: 126)

It is obvious that needs analysis is a very crucial first step prior to designing and developing a language course, producing materials for teaching and learning, and developing language test. West (1994) states that language needs analysis is essentially a pragmatic activity focused on specific situations, although grounded in general theories, such as the nature of language and curriculum. Therefore, in the ESP/EAP context, needs analysis is crucial in determining the aspects of language that are crucial for a particular area of teaching. As Robinson (1991: 8) suggests, needs analysis is not only just for determining the "*what and how of a language of teaching*". Robinson (1991) also suggests that needs analysis study should be repeated so that it can be built into the formative process. This would lead to a very informative database of learners, sponsors, subject-specialists and above all ESP practitioners' view and opinions of English language. The main sources for needs analysis are the learners, people working or studying in the field, ex-students and documents relevant to the field, clients, employers, colleagues and ESP research in the field (Dudley-Evans and St John, 1998: 132).

One of the most recent needs analysis theoretical frameworks was introduced by Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998: 125). The theoretical framework of the study is based on this model. The model is illustrated below:

Figure (5): What needs analysis establishes

personal
information
about learners

professional
information
about learners

language
information
about target situations

environmental
situation

how to communicate
in the target
situation

learners' lacks

language
learning
needs

learner's needs
from course

Figure (6) illustrates the theoretical framework suggested by Dudley-Evans and St John (1998). This model can be viewed as the most comprehensive model for ESP needs analysis. This model of ESP needs analysis formulated by Dudley-Evans and St John (1998: 125) focuses on (1) learners' professional information, (2) learners' personal information, (3) learners' language information about the target situations, (4) learners' lacks, (5) learners' needs from course (6) language learning needs, (7) communication information in the target situation, and (8) environmental information. These aspects of language needs analysis are defined by Dudley-Evans and St John (1998: 125) are as follows:

A. professional information about the students: the tasks and activities students are/will be using English for-*target situation analysis (TSA)* and *objectives needs.*

B. personal information about the students: factors which may affect the way they learn such as previous learning experiences, reasons for attending the course and expectations of it, attitude to English-*wants, means subjective need*s.

C. English language information about the students: what their current skills and language use are- *present situation analysis* (*PSA*)-this could allow us to assess (D). PSA determines strengths and weakness in language skills.

D. the students' lacks: the gap between (C) and (A)-*lacks.*

E. language learning information: effective ways of learning skills and language in (D)-*learning needs-Learning Situation Analysis (LSA)*

F. knowledge of how language and skills are used in target situation-*linguistic analysis, discourse analysis and genre analysis.*

G. students' needs from the course: what is wanted from the course?

H. environmental situation: information about the environment in which the course will be run-*means analysis.*

2.3. English for Specific Purposes (ESP):

2.3.1. The Origins of ESP:

Certainly, a great deal about the origins of ESP could be written. Notably, there are three reasons common to the emergence of ESP: the demands of a Brave New World, a revolution in linguistics, and focus on the learner (Hutchinson & Waters: 1987).

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) note that two key historical periods breathed life into ESP. First, the end of the Second World War brought with it an " ... age of enormous and unprecedented expansion in scientific, technical and economic activity on an international scale · for various reasons, most notably the economic power of the United States in the post-war world, the role [of international language] fell to English" (p. 6). Second, the Oil Crisis of the early 1970s resulted in Western money and knowledge flowing into the oil-rich countries. The language of this knowledge became English. The general effect of all this development was to exert pressure on the language teaching profession to deliver the required goods. Whereas English had previously decided its own destiny, it now became subject to the wishes, needs and demands of people other than language teachers (Hutchinson & Waters: 1987: 7).

The second key reason cited as having a tremendous impact on the emergence of ESP was a revolution in linguistics. Whereas traditional linguists set out to describe the features of language, revolutionary pioneers

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

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

2.3.2. An Overview of ESP:
The demand for learning English as a means of international communication varied throughout different disciplines and businesses in past years. The

emergence of ESP programmes worldwide to fit the needs of business, education, and industry brought five developmental stages (Chanloner: 2006). Categorizing the concept of special language, the five stages are recognized as follows: register analysis, rhetorical or discourse analysis, target situation analysis, skills and strategies and learning- approach (Hutchinson and Waters: 1996).

Emerging from the late 1960s, special language was recognized when clear distinctions were analyzed between English of Electrical Engineering, English of Biology, and General English (Hutchinson and Waters: 1996).

A first stage enacted a register analysis that was conducted by examining grammatical and lexical differences. Specifics were prioritized according to what students' language needs would be based upon the field of study (Berwick: 1998).The study of linguistics introduced a second stage of development termed rhetorical or discourse analysis. By dissecting sentences and deciphering how combined discourse produces meaning, patterns in texts and how they were organized were the main concerns. The third stage, target situation analysis looked at reasons language learners chose to learn. Specialized language forms related to targeted themes were examined and procedural steps to address the needs emphasized (Song, 2006, 43). The fourth stage, skills and strategies, considers not the language itself but the thinking processes that underlie language use (Hutchinson and Waters: 1993:13). The skill-centred approached explored areas that enable applied linguists to retrieve meaning from discourse, including common reasoning and interpreting processes based on contextual information or visuals. A fifth stage, unlike the other focuses on upstanding the processes or language

learning rather than the analysis of language use (Hutchinson and Waters: 1993:13).

2.3.3. Key notions about ESP:

In this discussion, four key notions will be discussed. They are as follows: a) the distinctions between the absolute and variable characteristics of ESP, b) types of ESP, c) characteristics of ESP courses, and d) the meaning of the word 'special' in ESP.

- Absolute and Variable Characteristics of ESP

Ten years later, theorists Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) modified Strevens' original definition of ESP to form their own. Let us begin with Strevens. He defined ESP by identifying its absolute and variable characteristics. Strevens' definition makes a distinction between four absolute and two variable characteristics:

. Absolute characteristics:

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

- Variable characteristics:

ESP may be, but is not necessarily:
- restricted as to the language skills to be learned (e.g. reading only);
- not taught according to any pre-ordained methodology.

Anthony (1997) notes that there has been considerable recent debate about what ESP means despite the fact that it is an approach which has been widely used over the last three decades. At a 1997 Japan Conference on ESP, Dudley-Evans offered a modified definition. The revised definition he and St. John postulate is as follows:

- *Absolute Characteristics*
  - ESP is defined to meet specific needs of the learner;
  - ESP makes use of the underlying methodology and activities of the discipline it serves;
  - ESP is centred on the language (grammar, lexis, register), skills, discourse and genres appropriate to these activities.
- *Variable Characteristics*
  - ESP may be related to or designed for specific disciplines;
  - ESP may use, in specific teaching situations, a different methodology from that of general English;
  - ESP is likely to be designed for adult learners, either at a tertiary level institution or in a professional work situation. It could, however, be for learners at secondary school level;
  - ESP is generally designed for intermediate or advanced students;
  - Most ESP courses assume some basic knowledge of the language system, but it can be used with beginners (1998, pp. 4-5).

Dudley-Evans and St. John have removed the absolute characteristic that 'ESP is in contrast with General English' and added more variable characteristics. They assert that ESP is not necessarily related to a specific discipline. Furthermore, ESP is likely to be used with adult learners although it could be used with young adults in a secondary school setting.

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

2.3.4. Characteristics of ESP Courses:

Carter (1983) states that there are three features common to ESP courses: a) authentic material, b) purpose-related orientation, and c) self-direction. Since Dudley-Evans' (1998) claims that ESP should be offered at an intermediate or advanced level, use of authentic learning materials is entirely feasible. Closer examination of ESP materials will follow; suffice it to say at this juncture that use of authentic content materials, modified or unmodified in form, are indeed a feature of ESP, particularly in self-directed study and research tasks.

Purpose-related orientation refers to the simulation of communicative tasks required of the target setting. Carver (1983) cites student simulation of a conference, involving the preparation of papers, reading, note taking, and writing.

Finally, self-direction is characteristic of ESP courses in that the "... point of including self-direction ... is that ESP is concerned with turning learners into users" (Carter, 1983: 134). In order for self-direction to occur, the learners must have a certain degree of freedom to decide when, what, and how they will study. Carter (1983) also adds that there must be a systematic attempt

by teachers to teach the learners how to learn by teaching them about learning strategies.

Robinson (1991) emphasizes the primacy of needs analysis in defining ESP. Her definition is based on two key defining criteria and a number of characteristics that are important aspects for ESP. Her key criteria are that "ESP is normally goal-directed' and that ESP courses develop from a needs analysis, which aims to specify as closely as possible what exactly it is that students have to do through the medium of English" (Robinson: 1991: 3). Her characteristics are that ESP courses are generally constrained by a limited time period in which their objectives have to be achieved, and are taught to adults in 'homogeneous classes' in terms of the work or specialist studies that the students are involved in.(Robinson 1991: 1) delineates ESP as an enterprise, which involves education, training and practice, and drawing upon three major realms of knowledge: language, pedagogy and the students' specialist areas of interest.

2.3.5. Types of ESP

ESP has traditionally been divided into two classified main branches such as English for Academic Purposes or EAP and English for Occupational Purposes or EOP (Dudley-Evans & St John: 1998; Hutchinson and Waters: 1987; Munby: 1978; Robinson: 1991). Dudley-Evans & St John (1998: 6) devise a tree diagram for ESP, which divides EAP and EOP according to discipline or professional area, is illustrated in Figure (7) below.

English for specific purposes

English for Occupational Purposes	
English for Professional purpose	English for Vocational purpose
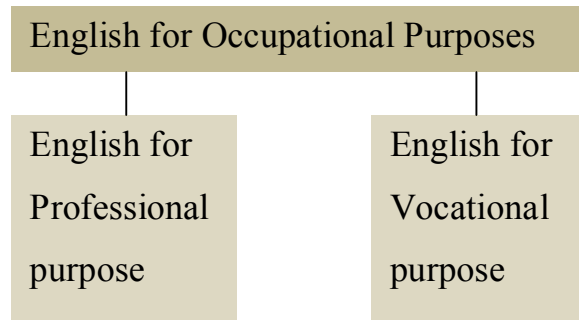
English for Academic Purposes

English for (Academic) Science and Technology	English for (Academic) Medical Purposes	English for (Academic) Legal purposes	English for Management Finance and Economics	English for Medical Purposes	English for Business purposes	Pre-vocational English	Vocational English

Figure (7): ESP classification by professional area by Dudley-Evans & St John (1998:37)

EAP (English for Academic Purposes) refers to any English teaching that relates to academic study needs (Dudley-Evans & St. John: 1998; Robinson: 1991; Hutchinson & Waters: 1987: 2).Dudley-Evans & St John (1998: 7) argue that in EAP, English for Science and Technology (EST) has been the

main area, but English for Medical Purposes (EMP) and English for Legal Purposes (ELP) have always had their place. More recently, English for Management, Finance, and Economics (EMFE) has increasingly been important to Master of Business Administration (MBA) courses. According to Robinson (1991: 21), EOP (English for Occupational Purposes) involves work-related needs and training. EOP includes professional purposes in administration, medicine, law and business, and vocational purposes for non-professionals in work or pre-work situations (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998: 7).

David Carter (1983) identifies three types of ESP:

- English as a restricted language
- English for Academic and Occupational Purposes
- English with specific topics.

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

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

(Mackay and Mountford, 1978: *4-5)*

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

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

The third and final type of ESP identified by Carter (1983) is English with specific topics. Carter notes that it is only here where emphasis shifts from purpose to topic. This type of ESP is uniquely concerned with anticipated future English needs of, for example, scientists requiring English for

postgraduate reading studies, attending conferences or working in foreign institutions. However, it is plausible to argue that this is not a separate type of ESP. Rather it is an integral component of ESP courses or programs which focus on situational language. This situational language has been determined based on the interpretation of results from needs analysis of authentic language used in target workplace settings.

In this concern, a similar survey on ESP different categories can be discussed. Courses in EOP train individuals to perform on the job, using English to communicate. Examples include courses designed for airline pilots, or hotel staff that need English to perform their professional duties.

EAP is built on a study skills focus such as academic writing, listening to lectures, note taking, making oral presentations, which enable one to succeed in English- language academic settings. English for Academic Purposes, on the other hand, is separated further into sub-categories entitled English for Science and Technology(EST), English for Business and Economics (EBE) and English for Social Studies(ESS) (Strevens:1988).

(Johns and Dudley-Evans: 1991, 73) give the following model on categories of English for Specific Purposes:

Figure (7): Categories of ESP
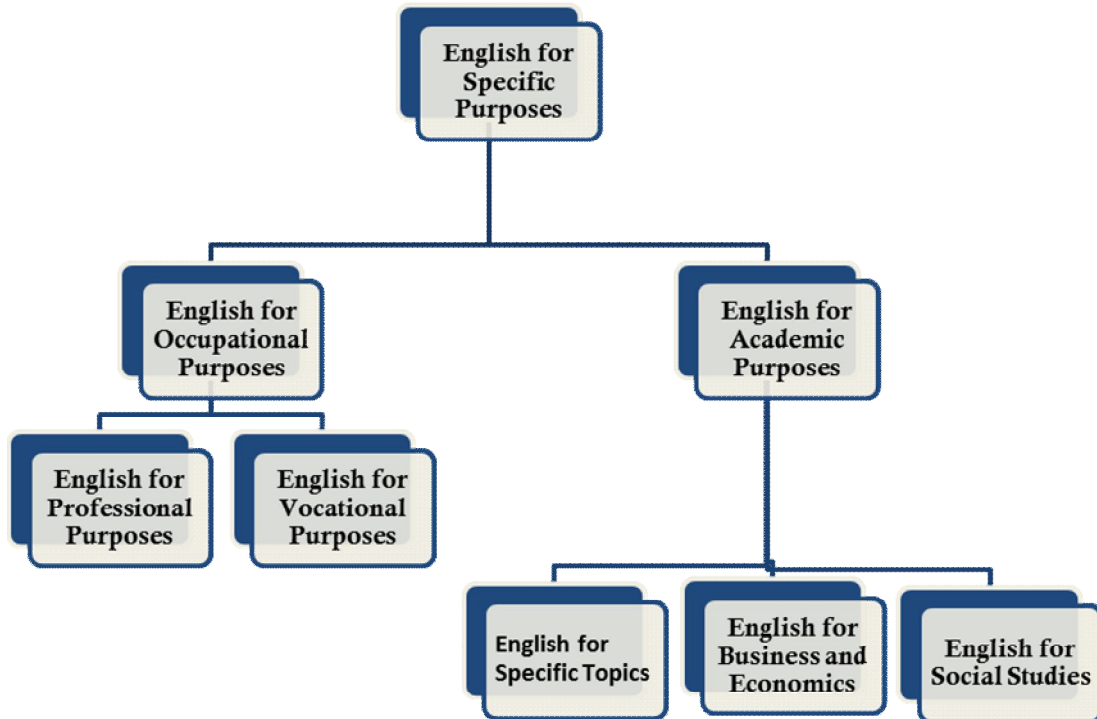
(Johns and Dudley-Evans: 1991, 73)

EOP branches off into English for Professional Purposes (EPP) and Vocational Purposes (EVP); now there is English for the Workplace (E4WP). The last three years have witnessed an unprecedented level of

interest in the developments in which seems to be a topical issue impacting on the employment scene where English is used as a medium of professional communication. Recent examples of the importance of E4WP include, inter alia, British immediate plans to require all non-British football players to take a special occupational English test in order to work in the UK, the Chinese initiative to ensure that all Beijing taxi drivers speak some work-related English for the 2008 Olympic Games, and the Omani tourist industry doing its best to provide English-speaking services to visitors throughout the country. E4WP is also very important for the higher education sector, and at present there is an 'explosion' of professional university courses related to English for Engineering, English for Law and English for Architecture.

The interest in E4WP has resurfaced, and is now at the top of the agenda for educators, academics, ELT professionals, ministry decision makers, course providers and publishers. English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP), which branches off into English for Academic Purposes, is separated further into sub-categories entitled English for Science and Technology(EST), English for Business and Economics (EBE) and English for Social Studies(ESS) (Strevens:1988).

2.3.6. Survey of some related previous studies

Mahmoud (1999) conducted a study to examine and evaluate the textbook "Earth Science" which is taught to the students of second year 'Geology', Faculty of Science at Khartoum University. Having examined the content of the syllabus and interviewed university professors, the study has come out with the following findings:

1. The textbook 'Earth Science' is a skill- centred textbook that based on the communicative approach.

2. The material contained in this textbook seem to partially meet the needs of the students in the following ways:

   a. The text book has been designed to meet the needs of intermediate and upper- intermediate students while the second year 'Geology' students are at the elementary level.

   b. The material is designed to be taught to small groups of around ten students whereas the total class taught now has 47 students.

   c. The book is based on the goal orientation approach. It assumes that the completion of the course should be realized.

   d. The total number of units supposed to be covered through the year is (6 units out of 17). The book does not provide enough bases to achieve the desired aim.

   e. There is a great difficulty in finding the textbook and every three or more share the same book.

   f. The textbook focuses on reading and listening whereas methodologically teachers are focusing on reading and writing.

A similar study scrutinizes an ESP course for science students. Al- Amin (1999) evaluates the preliminary year English textbook for science students. He presents the following findings:

1. The preliminary year English textbook for science students of the University of Khartoum is not based on the a systematicinvestigations of the students' needs, therefore, it does not meet the students' general academic and future needs perfectly.

2. It seems that the textbook, to a large extent, concentrates on what would be regarded as academic needs and pays little or no attention to general and future needs of the students.

3. The textbook does not cover all the language skills required by the students and subject teachers. For example, listening is absolutely neglected.

4. Among the language skills covered, the textbook does not offer an equal and adequate practice for each language skill.

Taking these findings of the studies into consideration, it can be stated that language needs analysis of the students, regardless their field of specialization, is extremely crucial in developing ESP syllabi.

CHAPTER THREE
RESEARCH METHODOLOGU

3.1. Introduction

This chapter introduces the procedure, research parameters within which this study is conducted, research method adopted, information regarding research participants and the instruments used for data collection. The validity and reliability of the questionnaire are also verified.

3.2. Procedure

The study has been conducted in several stages. First, the researcher obtained permission from Dean of the College D/ Mahjoub Babikir, to survey HT Students' opinion concerning developing a HT English course. Second, questionnaires were developed targeting students' present and future language needs which might affect the type and content of an English course appropriate for their particular profiles. Third, questionnaires were distributed with the assistance of the head of the department, to the students in two large rooms. Having read the questions and explained them, the researcher then asked the students to go through the questionnaire sections and state their choices. The returned questionnaires were seventy four out of seventy seven-a (96%) of the total number of questionnaires. The researcher then analyzed the data using the computer programme SPSS. The data collected for the present descriptive study involved tabulation, presentation of frequency and percentages. All these calculations and results of data analysis are incorporated in chapter four.

3.3. Parameters of the study

The present study has an instrumental purpose that is to identify learners' needs in order to develop appropriate teaching materials, teaching method, and to match the available resources of the department with the learners' expectations and needs. The study embraces the democratic philosophy of needs analysis. Thus the study aims to gather information from HT Students and consequently recommend the kind of learning most desired by the majority of this group.

3.4. Research method

This study has employed quantitative data collection techniques supported by background information in terms of personal observation, experience of five years teaching in (HT), and feedback from other colleagues and students in the department. The main data collection instrument is questionnaires for the students and interviews with the teachers. The students' questionnaire used in this study is adapted from different ones with some modifications in order to suit the study and the situation.

3.4.1. Students' questionnaire

The students' questionnaire consists of five A4 pages and is arranged in two formats; the first is a rubric with four options and the second for the assessment of attitude and beliefs where a limited number of scaled questions are included. The questionnaire identified needs categories that were deemed relevant for the HT students. The situations were classified into the following categories: (a) academic situations, (b) occupational situations and (c) social/domestic situations. Within these categories, there were numerous smaller subcategories (themes) that describe the kind of activity to be carried out. Then, these theme subcategories were further divided into individual tasks. The actual questions for the questionnaires were made by using

descriptions of the themes and adding tasks as examples. A group of teachers from the Academy were encouraged to give feedback on the content of the students' questionnaire. Subsequent revisions were made to the draft of the student questionnaire on the basis of the comments and suggestions of the Academy teaching staff who cared to comment.

The students' questionnaire aimed at gathering information related to the following points:

- Manifestation of the students' current language proficiency.
- The present and future domains of language use and thus reasons for studying English.
- The students' attitude towards the place and role of English in the HT curriculum.
- Learning preferences in terms of language skills.
- The importance of particular language skills.
- Preferred learning styles and strategies.
- Patterns of learner to learner interaction.
- Role of the teachers.
- Preference for teaching techniques and activities.
- Students' attitudes and beliefs regarding the adoption of modern teaching approaches.
- Role of English as a tool for the study of science subjects.
- Role of English proficiency in good performance in science subjects.
- Relevant material input

3.4.2. Teachers' interview protocol

The questions of semi-structured interviews were developed for the English teachers. Mackay (1978) advocates the interview when investigating learners' needs. Dudley- Evans and St John (1998) also emphasize the interview, as one of the main data collection method of language needs analysis. The interview questions were individual type with open-ended form based on the theoretical framework of needs analysis of the study. The questions in the interviews were formulated on the basis of PSA (Present Situation Analysis) component of the needs analysis of the study. The questions in the interviews sought information regarding the following themes/aspects:

1. Students' motivation, belief and attitude toward learning English.

2. Linguistic difficulties facing the students;

3. Students' preferences concerning the type of syllabus content.

Those teachers were interviewed to determine what kinds of language problems and linguistic difficulties their students encounter. They were also asked about their roles and experiences related to curriculum development. Semi-structured interviews were administered only once. For interviews, time was limited to about forty five minutes. To maintain confidentiality, participants were interviewed individually. When conducting the interviews, a specific location and time appropriate for teachers were chosen.

3.5. Research participants

The participants in this research are the students of (HT) and English teachers in different fuculties

- Sample (I): the students

The students involved in this study are seventy- four whose future job would, to a large extent, depend on (further) English language learning and acquisition (always according to the participants' claims). Aged between

eighteen and twenty, this is a homogeneous group- in terms of work and specialist studies-class. There is a concern for self-image and occupational advancement via education and training- in Widdowson's (1987:11) terms- within a period of professional stability, less introspection and less self-doubt. In search of further job-related qualifications as for setting external objective to be achieved, the particular students are defined by their goals and become instrumentally-motivated, with a specific purpose to fulfill. This purpose may vaguely derive from learners' personal interest in the subject matter of the course (extensive learning, memorization and usage of Hotel and Tourism terminology), while it seems to be "firmly rooted on the needs of the market forces concerned.

As mentioned, the total number of students is seventy seven who represent the three years students. Therefore, all students were invited to participate in the survey to get a truly representative sample of the students. However, the total number of responses received by the deadline was seventy four. This number of participating population is (96%) of the total number of the population and (100%) of the number of the distributed questionnaires.

- **Sample (II) the teachers**

The number of teachers invited to participate in the survey was four teachers representing the English teachers of universities. All these teachers are well qualified in The ESP terms. They possess postgraduate degrees in English and have teaching experience- in their field of specialization- ranging from three to nine years.

3.6. The validity of the questionnaire

Content validity, in contrast with other types of validation, is usually based on human judgments. Therefore, the validity of the questionnaire used in this study has been verified and proved by a number of specialized scholars such as:

- Dr. Onour Osham- Red Sea University- Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences- Department of Statistics
- Dr. Amin Mohamed Ahmed- Head of the English Language Department- Faculty of Education- Red Sea University
- Dr. Ali Mohamed Abdallah- Dean of the Faculty of Arts and Humanities- Red Sea University

3.7. The reliability of the questionnaire

The most common scenario for testing reliability involves administering one questionnaire to all students at one time point. Methods used to estimate reliability under this circumstance are referred to as measures of *internal consistency*. In this case, a single score is used to indicate a student's level of understanding and/or response on a particular topic. However, the purpose of the questionnaire is not simply to determine how many items students answered appropriately, but to measure how well they know the content area. To achieve this goal, the particular items on the questionnaire must be sampled in a way as to be representative of the entire domain of interest. Furthermore, because all items on the questionnaire tap some aspect of a common domain of interest, it is expected that students will perform similarly across different items within the questionnaire.

- Reliability coefficient for internal consistency

There are several statistical indexes that may be used to measure the amount of internal consistency for a questionnaire. The most popular index is referred to as Cronbach's alpha. Cronbach's alpha provides a measure of the extent to which the items on a test, each of which could be thought of as a mini-test, provide consistent information with regard to students' mastery of the domain. SPSS programme was used to calculate the correlation coefficient between the sets of items in this questionnaire. The procedures were as follows:

* Method 2 (covariance matrix) will be used for this analysis *

R E L I A B I L I T Y   A N A L Y S I S   -   S C A L E   (A L P H A)

Correlation Matrix

	PREE	POST
PREE	1.0000	
POST	.6938	1.0000

N of Cases =   20.0

Reliability Coefficients   2 items

Alpha = .6979   Standardized item alpha =   .8192

- **Correlations**

Correlations

		PREE	POST
PREE	Pearson Correlation	1.000	.694**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.001
	N	20	20
POST	Pearson Correlation	.694**	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.
	N	20	20

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level

According to the above calculations, the questionnaire is proved to be reliable.

CHAPTER FOUR
DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

4.1. Introduction

The analysis of responses is organised according to current students' proficiency in specific language areas and skills, present and future domains of language use, students' attitude towards the place and role of English in the HT curriculum. In addition, preferred learning styles and strategies, classroom interaction and learning activities, and role relationship are also analyzed. Moreover, students' beliefs and attitudes towards the adoption of modern techniques, the role of English in the general academic performance, and the role of English as a tool for the study of other subjects are revealed in the analysis. Furthermore, where necessary personal experience of teaching, classroom observations, and feedback from teachers and students of HT received through informal conversations, are also included.

The questionnaire contains multiple-choice questions to help in determining the present and future domains of language use. The present use of language was also a consideration, as being students they not only need to continue further language learning in the remaining years of study but at the same time are required to use the language learnt so far according to academic, social and other demands of day to day life.

4.2. Data analysis of students' needs
Question one:

How do you assess your present proficiency in the following language areas? Tick √ the appropriate option. Listening, speaking, reading, writing, grammar and vocabulary.

Table (4.1) students' present proficiency in speaking skills

Option	Frequency	Percent
Excellent	1	1.4
V. Good	8	10.8
Good	16	21.6
Satisfactory	20	27
Weak	29	39.2
Total	74	100

Speaking skills

Students who assess their speaking standard as being satisfactory are (27.0%). This shows that the general speaking standard is below the average i.e. good.

Figure (1- 4)

Table (4.2) students' present proficiency in reading skills

Option	Frequency	Percent
Excellent	9	12.2
V. Good	15	20.3
Good	24	32.4
Satisfactory	22	29.7
Weak	4	5.4
Total	74	100

Reading skills

The standard of students in reading skills is much better than in speaking skills, for (32.4%) of the students have a "Good" command of it. The total percentage of the students whose standard is above the average [good/very good/ excellent] is (64.9%).

Figure (2-4)

Table (4.3) students' present proficiency in listening skills

Option	Frequency	Percent
Excellent	5	6.8
V. Good	10	13.5
Good	25	33.8
Satisfactory	24	32.4
Weak	10	13.5
Total	74	100

Listening skills

Similarly, the majority of students (33.8%) have a "good" standard in listening skills; though the only listening practices they are exposed to is the language spoken during classes. There are no recorded materials intended to develop listening skills.

Figure (3- 4)

Table (4.4) students' present proficiency in writing skills

Option	Frequency	Percent
Excellent	4	5.4
V. Good	8	10.8
Good	32	43.2
Satisfactory	21	28.4
Weak	9	12.2
Total	74	100

Writing skills

Pertaining to the writing skills, most students have "Good" level of proficiency (43.2%). The rest of the students (56.8%) do ont.

Figure (4 -4)

Table (4.5) students' present proficiency in vocabulary

Option	Frequency	Percent
Excellent	2	2.7
V. Good	5	6.8
Good	21	28.4
Satisfactory	26	35.1
Weak	20	27
Total	74	100

Vocabulary

Concerning the present level of their vocabulary proficiency, the majority of the students (35.1%) have a "Satisfactory" level. This reveals that most of the students have insufficient vocabulary.

Figure (5-4)

Table (4.6) students' present proficiency in grammar

Option	Frequency	Percent
Excellent	3	4.1
V. Good	9	12.2
Good	25	33.8
Satisfactory	28	37.8
Weak	9	12.2
Total	74	100

Grammar

The last language area to be assessed by the students is grammar. The majority (37.8%) shows a "Satisfactory" level of proficiency. Again, most of the students lack the average knowledge of grammar and only (33.8%) have a good knowledge of it.
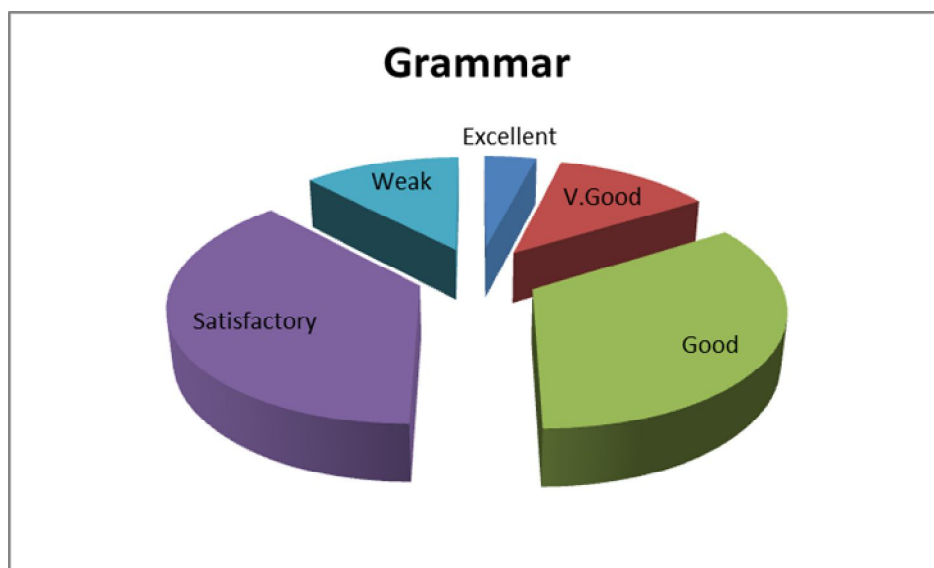

Figure (6-4)

Question two:

(In future I shall be using English for?):

The aim of this question is to establish the future need of English language use.

Table (4.7) Use of English for higher studies

Option	Frequency	Percent
Agree	54	73
Disagree	3	4.1
No opinion	17	23
Total	74	100

Higher studies

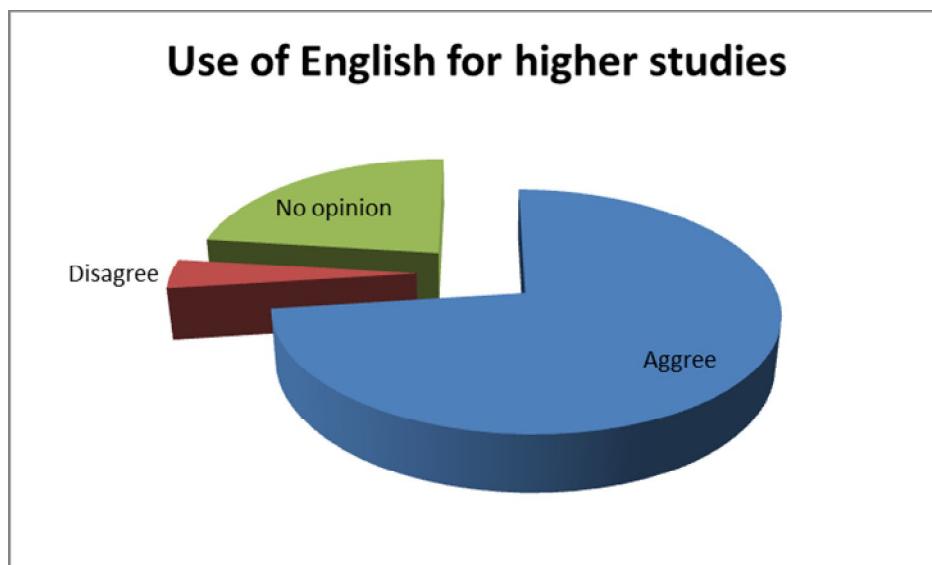The majority of the students (73.0%) thought that they will be using English for their higher studies.

Figure (7-4)

Table (4.8) Use of English for socializing

Option	Frequency	Percent
Agree	68	91.8
Disagree	3	4.1
No opinion	3	4.1
Total	74	100

Socializing

(91.8%) chose the option of using English as a means for socializing. To get a deeper interpretation, the students were asked to justify their replies. They thought of socializing as being related to the first and fourth options of the question, i.e. higher studies and future career. They will be using English for social interaction mainly in countries where it is a second or official language. HT graduates are usually sent to such countries either to follow their higher studies or to attend advanced training courses.
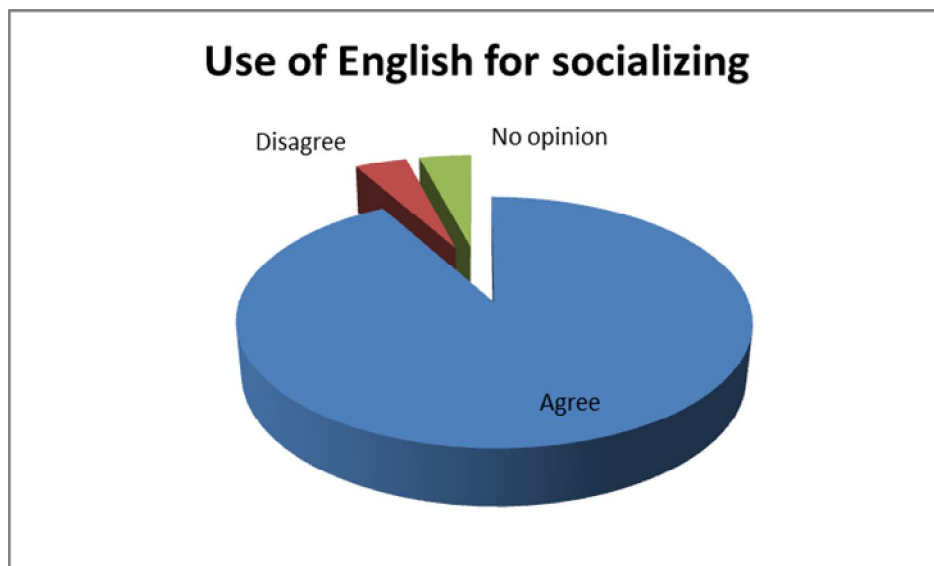

Figure (8- 4)

Table (4.9) Use of English at home

Option	Frequency	Percent
Agree	19	25.7
Disagree	36	48.6
No opinion	19	25.7
Total	74	100

At home

English will not be used at home by most of the students (48.6%). This is due to the position and status of English language in the Sudan. It is a foreign language that not used as a means for communication.
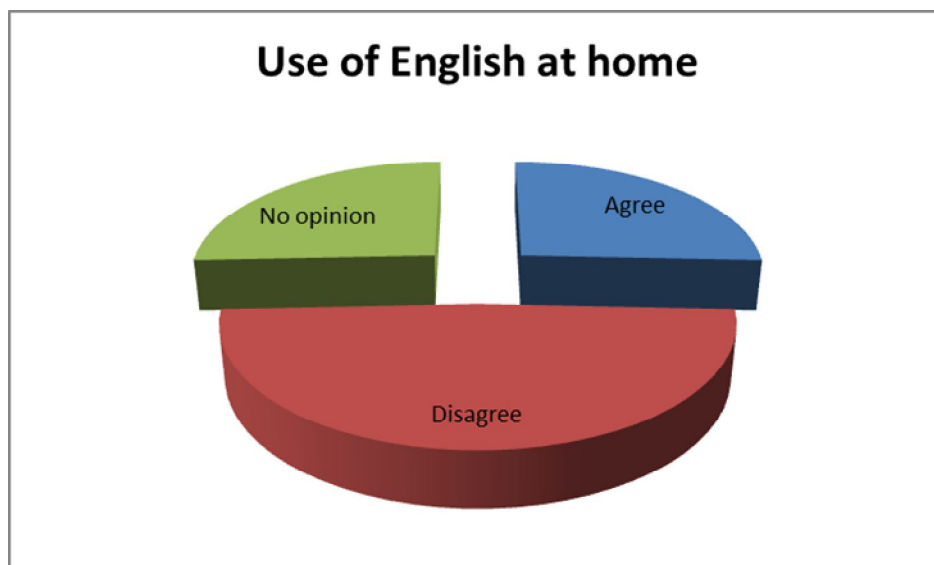

Figure (9- 4)

Table (4.10) Use of English for future career

Option	Frequency	Percent
Agree	70	94.5
Disagree	1	1.4
No opinion	3	4.1
Total	74	100

Future career

The majority of the students (94.5%) said that they will be using English to help them in their future career as Hotel and Tourism Workers.
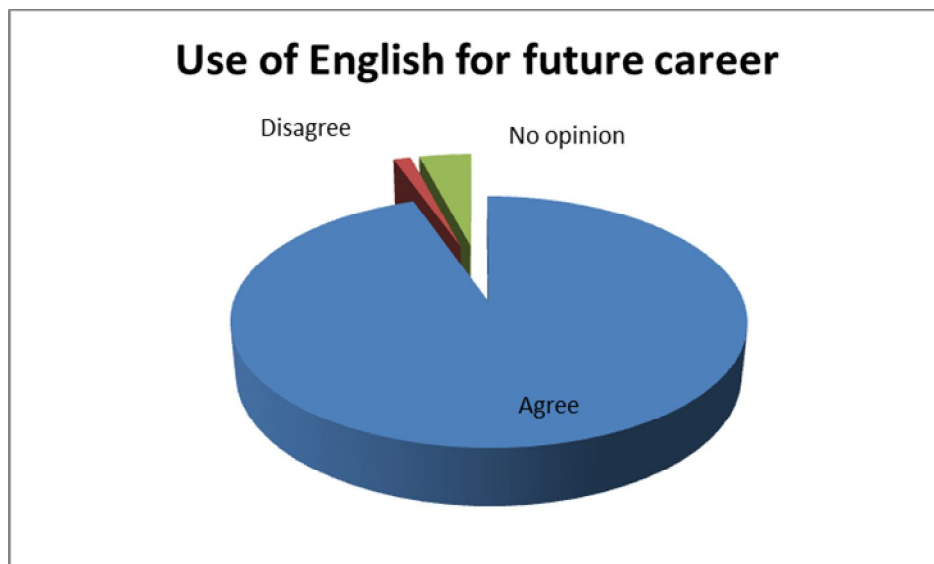

Figure (10- 4)

Question three:

What do you need English for?

Table (4.11): Need of English to follow lectures

Option	Frequency	Percent
Agree	70	94.6
Disagree	2	2.7
No opinion	2	2.7
Total	74	100

Follow lectures

The majority of the students (94.6%) said that they need to study English to follow lectures. Learning English, therefore, is considered as a vehicle for academic success.
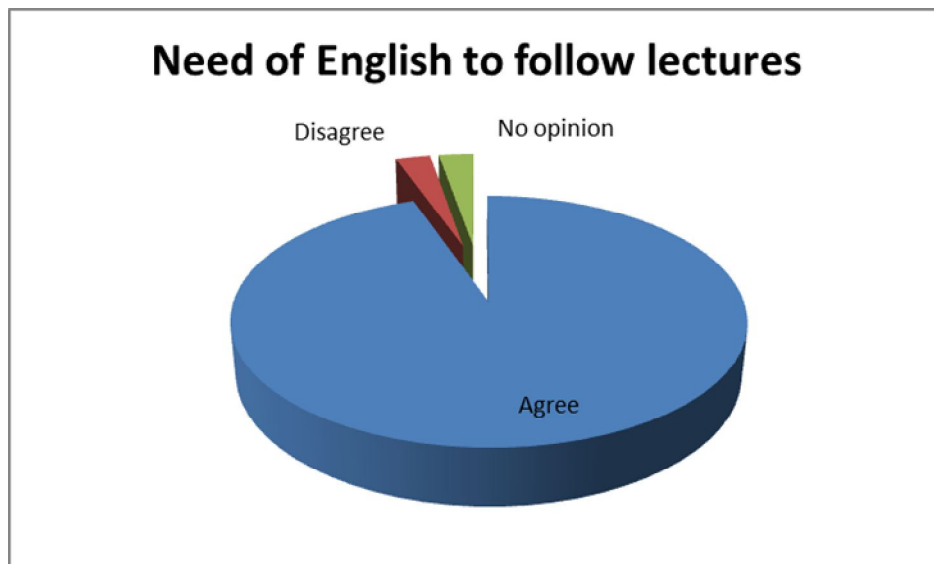

Figure (11-4)

Table (4.12): Need of English to perform language activities

Option	Frequency	Percent
Agee	66	89.2
Disagree	3	4.1
No opinion	5	6.7
Total	74	100

Perform language activities

The second reason for their need to study English is that it is used to perform language activities such as asking and answering questions, discussing, etc. the majority (89.2%) thought so, whereas (4.1%) did not and (6.7%) were undecided.
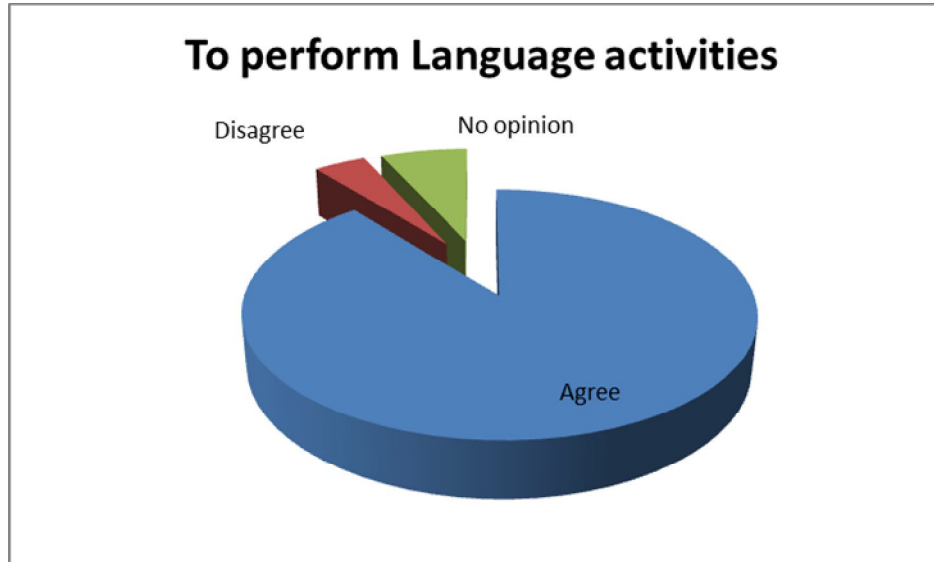

Figure (12- 4)

Table (4.13): Need of English to read handouts

Option	Frequency	Percent
Agee	69	93.2
Disagree	3	4.1
No opinion	2	2.7
Total	74	100

Read handouts

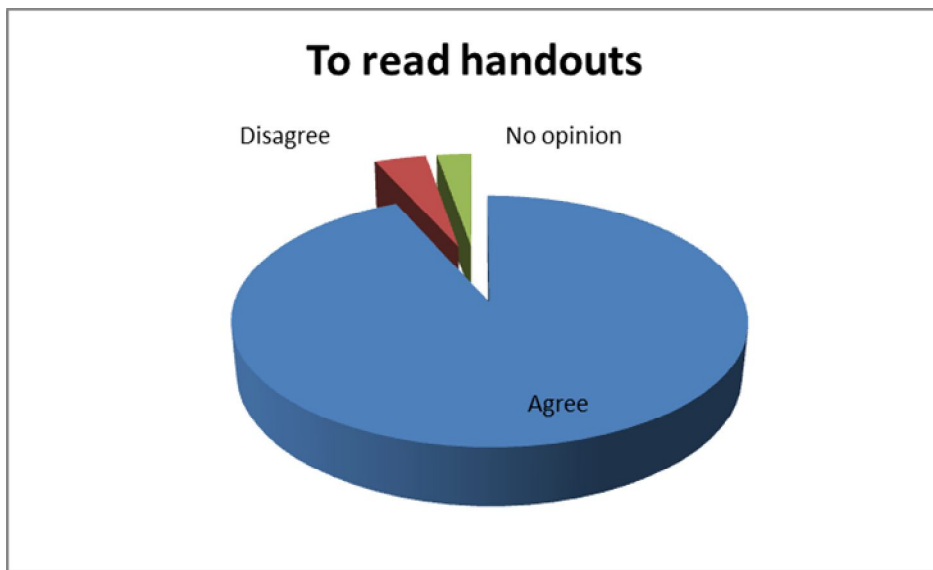Reading handouts given by the teacher was chosen by the majority of the students (93.2%).

Figure (13- 4)

Table (4.14): English to conduct face to face conversation

Option	Frequency	Percent
Agee	68	91.8
Disagree	3	4.1
No opinion	3	4.1
Total	74	100

Conduct face to face conversation

(91.8%) of the students need to study English to enable themselves conduct face to face conversation or work in group. This reveals the use of English in pair work and group work.

Figure (14- 4)

Table (4.15): Need of English to write essays

Option	Frequency	Percent
Agee	63	85.1
Disagree	5	6.8
No opinion	6	8.1
Total	74	100

Write essays

English is also needed by the majority of the students (85.1%) to practice writing skills such as writing essays, exams, reports, etc.
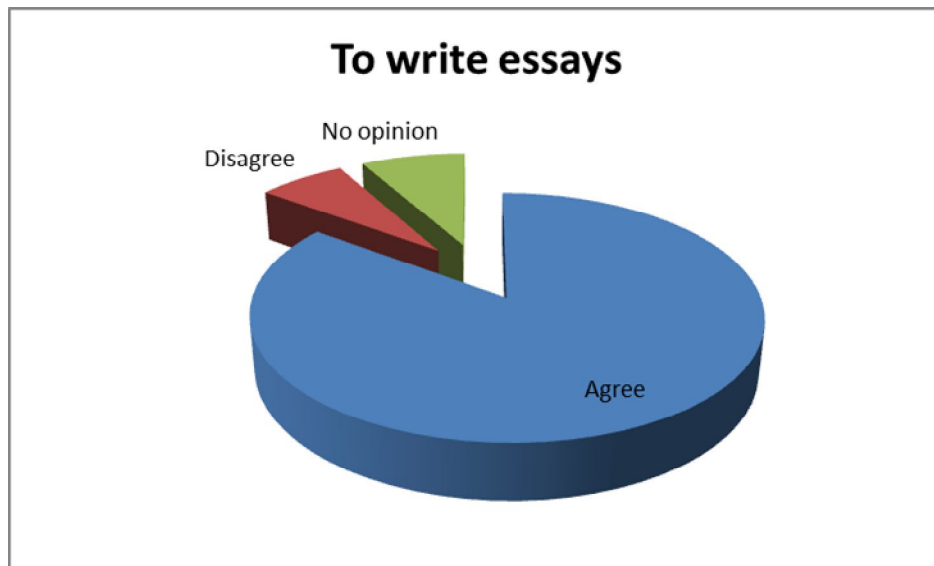

Figure (15- 4)

Translation

English is needed by the majority of the students (97.3%) to enable them to translate to and from the target language.

Table (4.16): Need of English to translate to and from the target language

Option	Frequency	Percent
Agee	72	97.3
Disagree	2	2.7
Total	74	100

Figure (16- 4)

Table (4.17): No difficulty in understanding and using technical terms

Option	Frequency	Percent
Agee	19	25.7
Disagree	53	71.6
No opinion	2	2.7
Total	74	100

No understanding problems

Those who find no problem in using and understanding specialized HT terms are only (25.7%).The greatest percent of the students (71.6%) finds it difficult to understand and use technical terms related to their study. No opinion represent small number of (2.7%) .
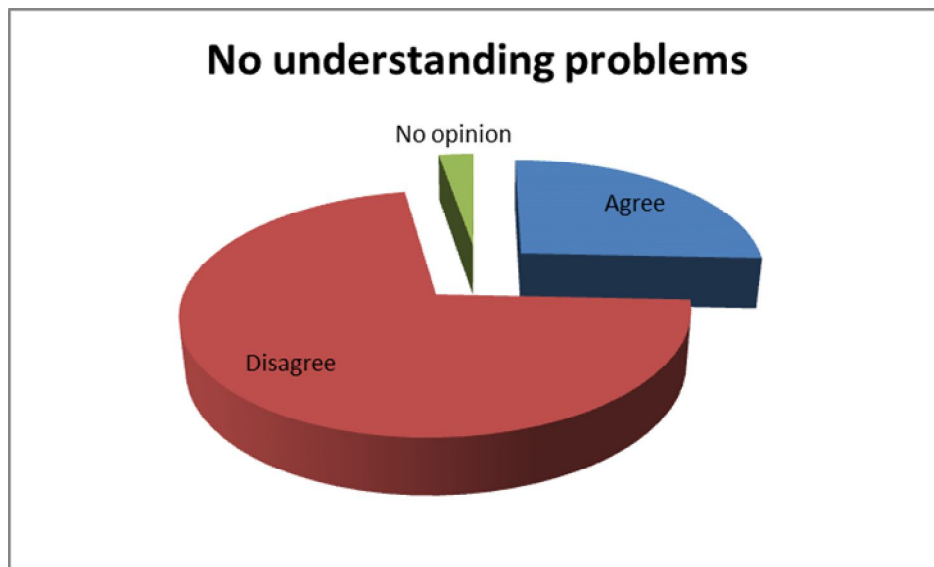
(Figure 17.4)

Table (4.18): Need of English to read references

Option	Frequency	Percent
Agee	68	91.9
Disagree	4	5.4
No opinion	2	2.7
Total	74	100

Read references

Reading reference material in the library is a need for studying English for the majority of the students (91.9%). Those who did not think they need to read library materials were (5.4%). Those who have no opinion represent (2.7%) .

To read references

Disagree   No opinion
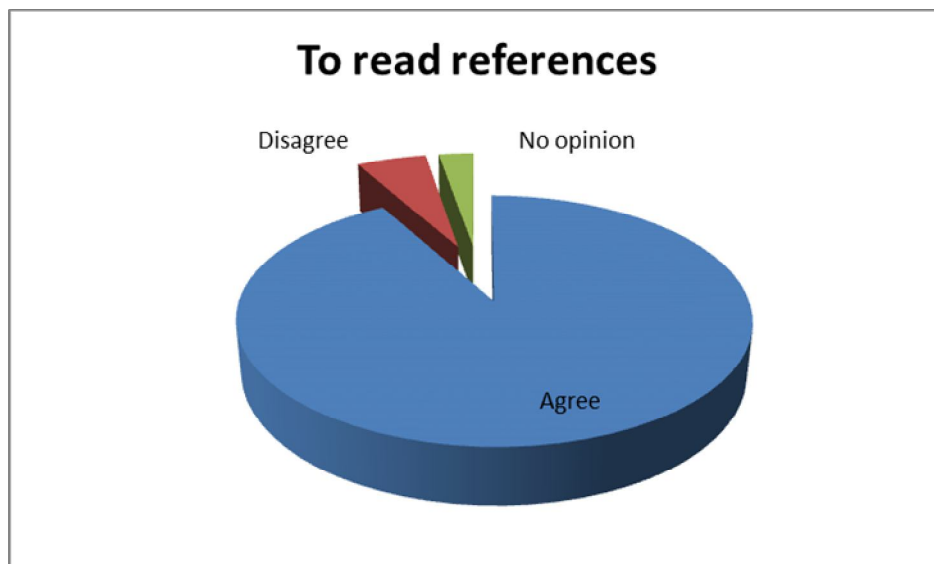
Agree

(Figure 18.4)

Table (4.19): Need of English to read related material

Option	Frequency	Percent
Agee	69	93.2
Disagree	2	2.7
No opinion	3	4.1
Total	74	100

Reading materials

(93.2%) of the students need English to practice reading and understand written material related to their field of study, namely HT studies.(2.7%) have no need and (4.1%) don't know .
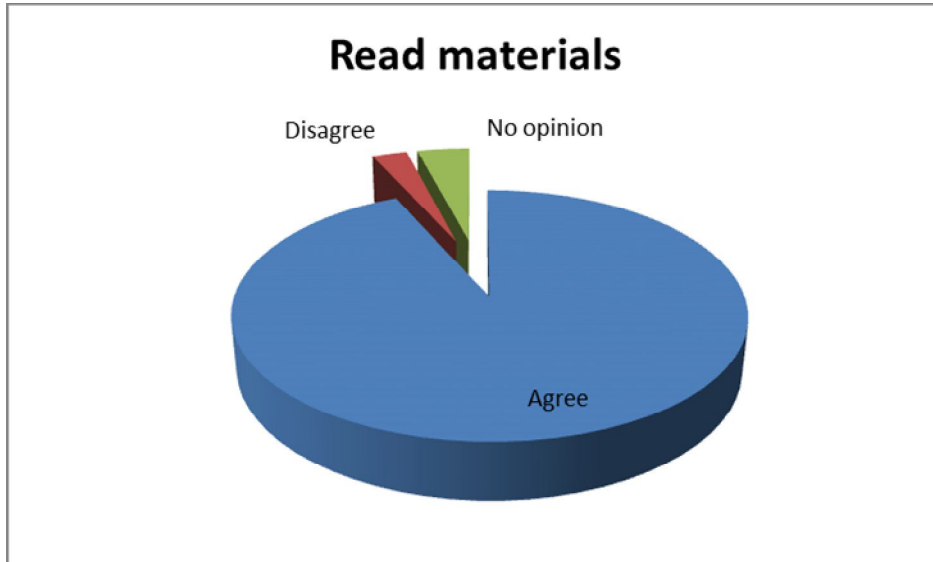
(Figure 19.4)

Table (4.20): Need of English to give spoken presentations

Option	Frequency	Percent
Agee	71	95.9
Disagree	2	2.7
No opinion	1	1.4
Total	74	100

Spoken presentation

The majority of the students (95.9%) need English to give oral presentations.
On the other hand (2.7%) don't need and (1.4%) don't know .

(Figure 20.4)

Table (4.21): Need of English to read related articles

Option	Frequency	Percent
Agee	68	91.8
Disagree	3	4.1
No opinion	3	4.1
Total	74	100

Read related articles

English is needed by (91.8%) of the students to read articles and materials related to the field of HT studies. Similar number of (4.1%) for each disagreed and no opinion .
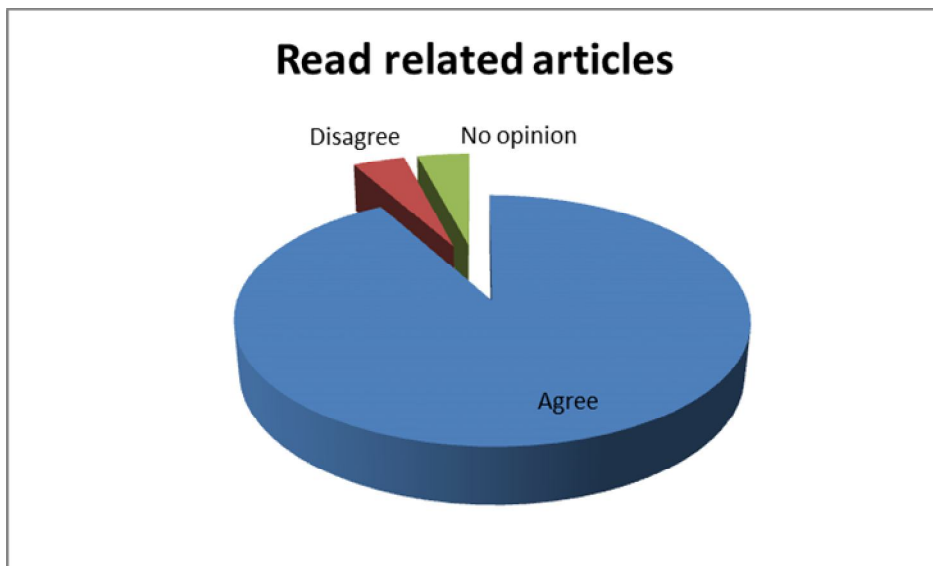
(Figure 21.4)

Table (4.22): Need of English to succeed in study

Option	Frequency	Percent
Agee	69	93.2
Disagree	2	2.7
No opinion	3	4.1
Total	74	100

Succeed in study

The majority of the students (93.2%) thought that they need English to succeed in their study. (2.7%) have the negative opinion where as (4.1%) have no idea .
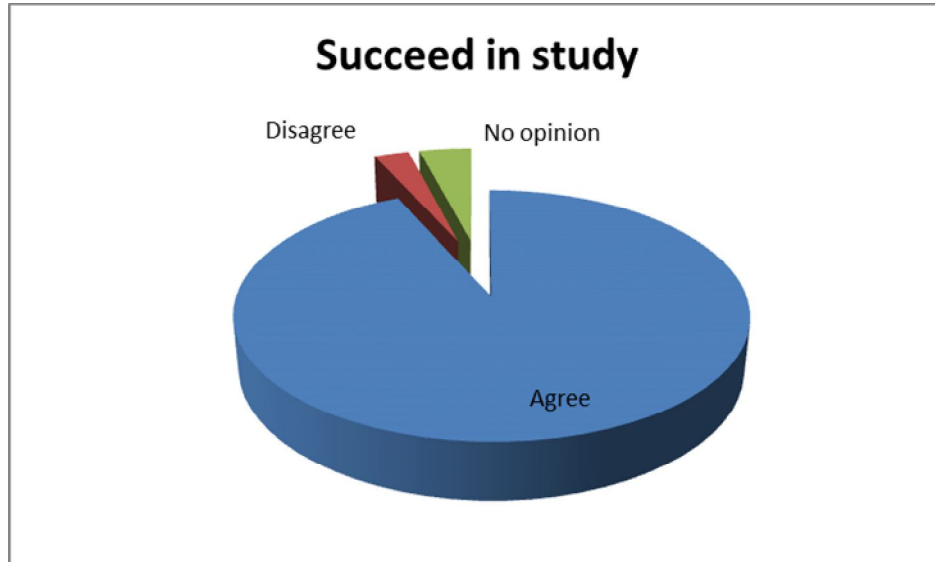
(Figure 22.4)

Table (4.23): Need of English to follow HT training courses

Option	Frequency	Percent
Agee	73	98.6
Disagree	1	1.4
Total	74	100

Follow HT training

English is vitally important for HT Students to pursue training courses held in countries where it is second or official language. Therefore, (98.6%) of the students thought that they need English to follow HT training courses abroad.(1.4%) don't think of that .
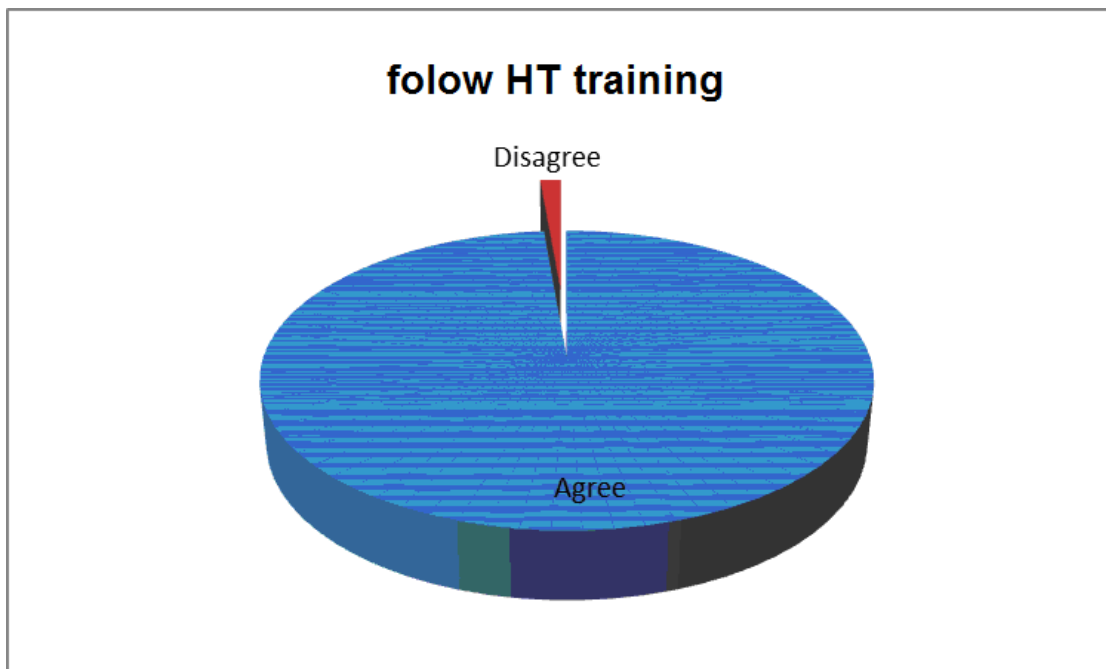
(Figure 23.4)

Table (4.24): Need of English to know common specialized terms

Option	Frequency	Percent
Agee	72	97.3
Disagree	2	2.7
Total	74	100

Common specialized terms

The majority of the students (97.3%) need to know the common terms used in the field of HT studies. (2.7%) don't need .
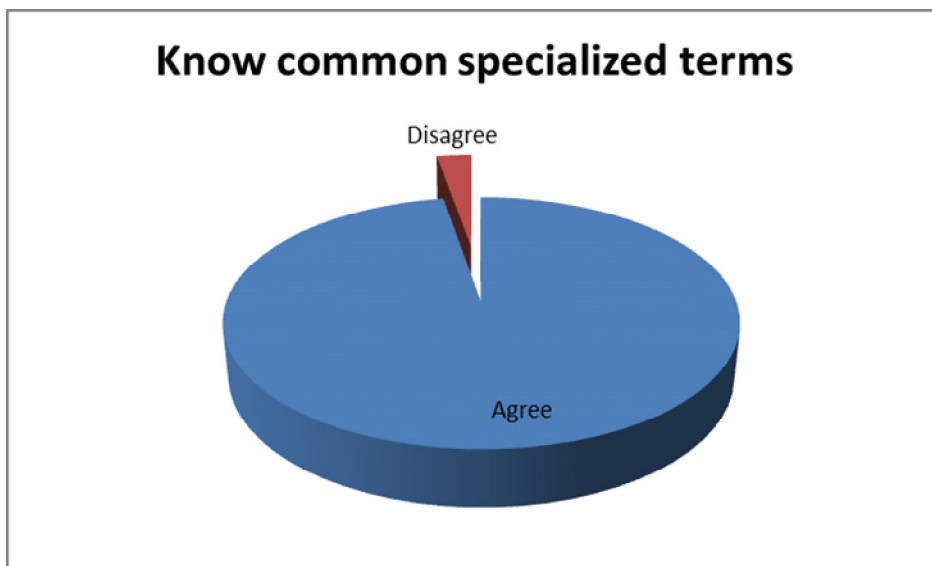
(Figure 24.4)

Question four:

('You use English more for?'):

This question aims at eliciting response from the students about their present domain of English language use. The present domain of language use is opted according to the following figures.

Table (4.25): Use of English for studying

Option	Frequency	Percent
Agree	71	95.9
Disagree	3	4.1
Total	74	100

Studying

The majority of the students (95.9%) use English for studying. Minority of them (4.1%) don't use for such purpose .
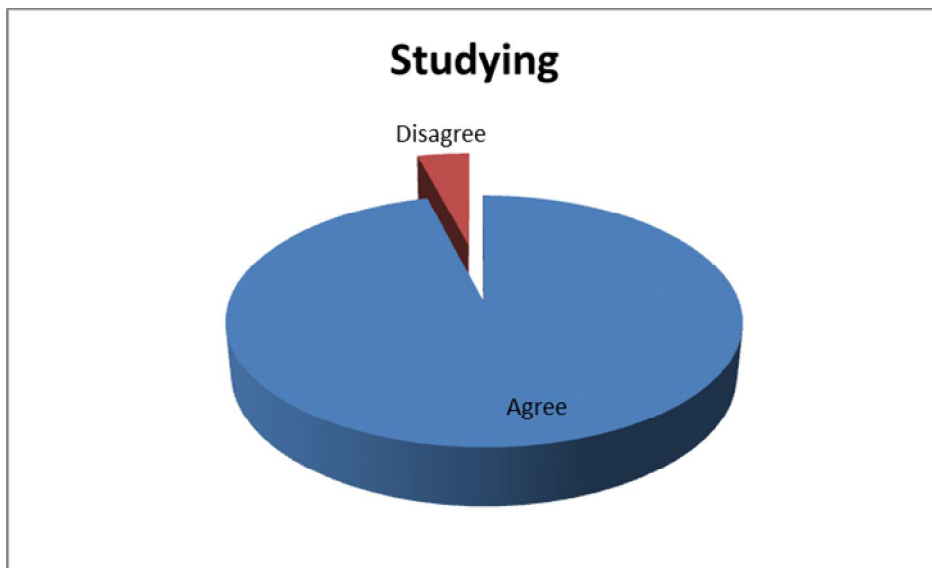
(Figure 25.4)

Table (4.26): Use of English for socializing

Option	Frequency	Percent
Agree	23	31.1
Disagree	51	68.9
Total	74	100

Socializing

The majority of the students (86.9%) do not use English to communicate with other people. This is due to the fact that English language is not used by the Sudanese as a means of communication. May be (31.1%) of them use it as they stated .
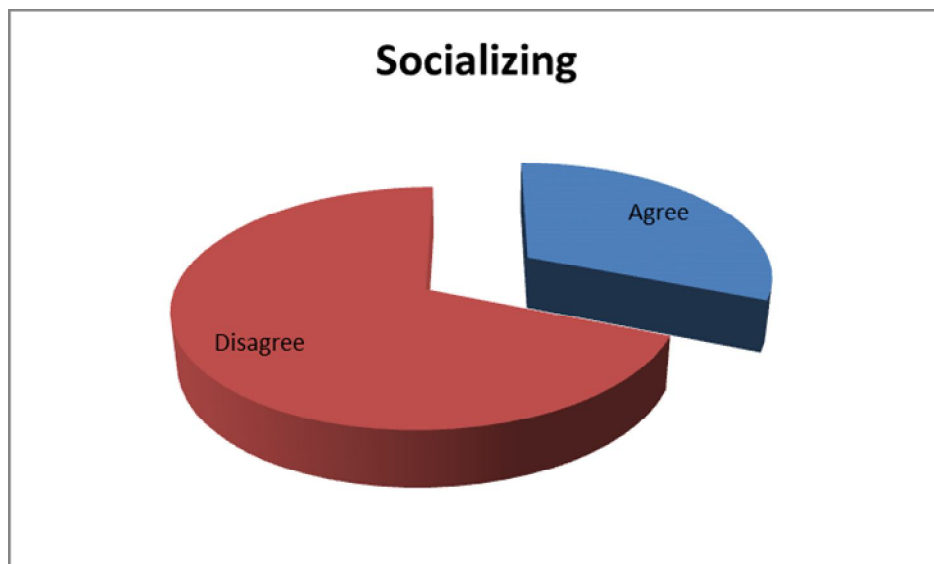
(Figure 26.4)

Table (4.27): Use of English at home

Option	Frequency	Percent
Agree	2	2.7
Disagree	72	97.3
Total	74	100

At home

Again the position of English language in the Sudan affects the students' response for using it at home. The majority of the students (97.3%) state that they don't use English at home. Small number represent (2.7%) claim that they use it at home .

(Figure 27.4)

Table (4.28): Other uses of English

Option	Frequency	Percent
Agree	10	13.5
Disagree	64	86.5
Total	74	100

Others

(86.5%) of the students propose no other reasons for using English. (13.5%) propose against them .
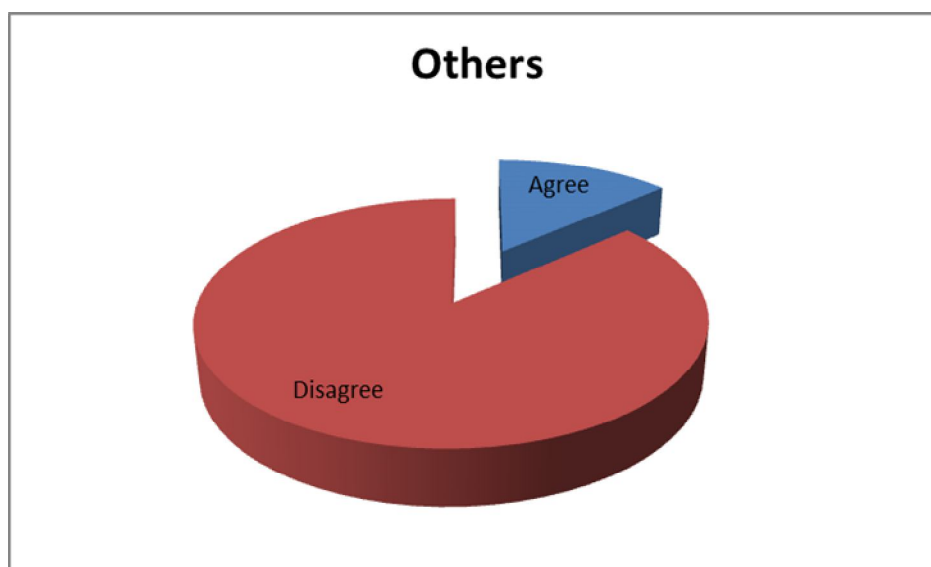
(Figure 28.4)

Question five:

Do you think if your level of English is not good it can have…?

Question 5 tries to determine the effect of English language proficiency on the academic performance of the students.

Table (4.29) Effect of English on academic performance (i)

Option	Frequency	Percent
Agree	74	100
Disagree	0	0
Total	74	100

A good effect

All respondents agreed that if their proficiency of English is not good, it cannot have a good effect on their academic performance.

(Figure 29.4)

Table (4.30) Effect of English on academic performance (ii)

Option	Frequency	Percent
Agree	68	91.9
Disagree	6	8.1
Total	74	100

A bad effect

The majority of students (91.9 %) think that English can have a detrimental effect on students' academic performance if their language proficiency is not good.(8.1%) think that cant have .
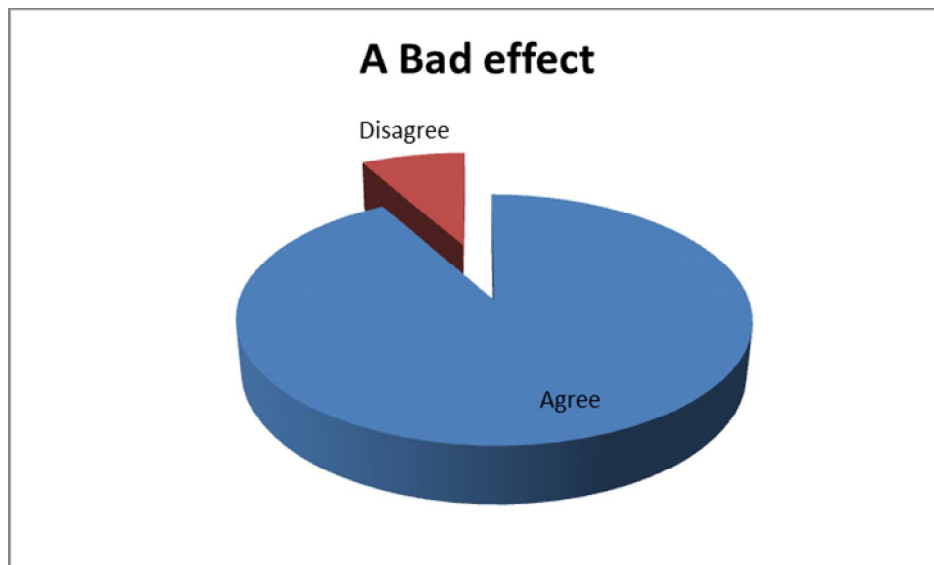
(Figure 30.4)

Table (4.31) Effect of English on academic performance (iii)

Option	Frequency	Percent
Agree	6	8.1
Disagree	68	91.9
Total	74	100

No effect

Those who think that their English proficiency has no effect on academic performance are (8.1%). While most of them with (91%) thought that it has a clear effect
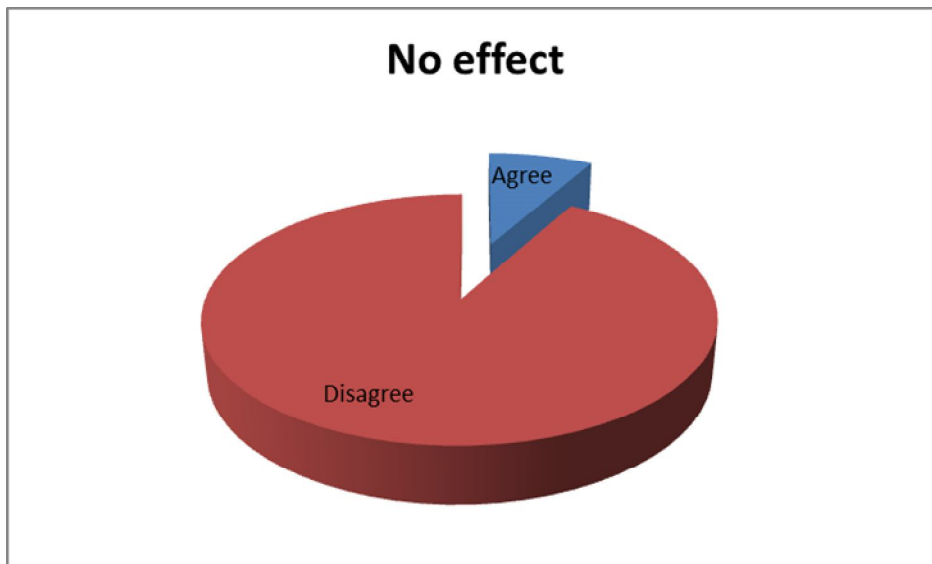
(Figure 31.4)

Question six:

My knowledge of English…..

This question investigates the students' opinion about the future role of English in the field of higher education.

Table (4.32): Knowledge of English (i)

Option	Frequency	Percent
Agree	74	100
Disagree	0	0
Total	74	100

Knowledge will help

(100%) of the students are for the opinion that proficiency in English will play a vital role in the successful completion of and course of higher education.
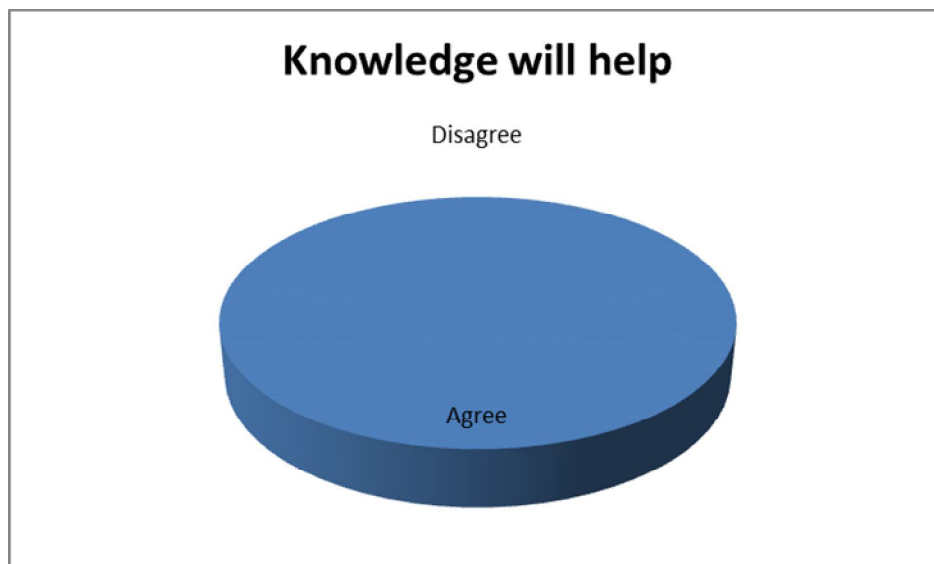
(Figure 32.4)

Table (4.33): Knowledge of English (ii)

Option	Frequency	Percent
Agree	0	0
Disagree	74	100
Total	74	100

Knowledge will not help

On the contrary, none of the students (0%) thought that knowledge of English will not help in successful completion of higher education.
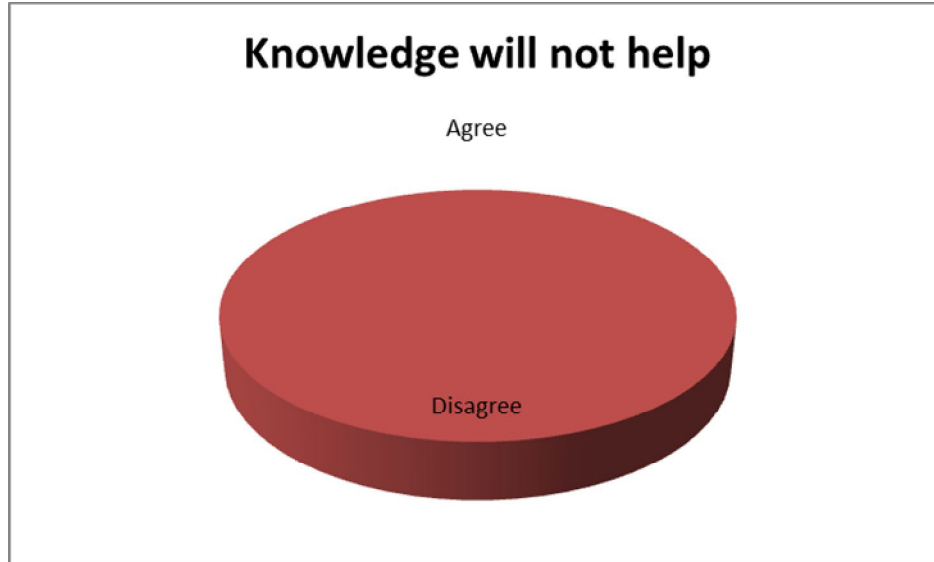
(Figure 33.4)

Table (4.34): Knowledge of English (iii)

Option	Frequency	Percent
Agree	0	0
Disagree	74	100
Total	74	100

Will play no role

All the students (100%) perceive the great role of English in helping them complete their higher education.
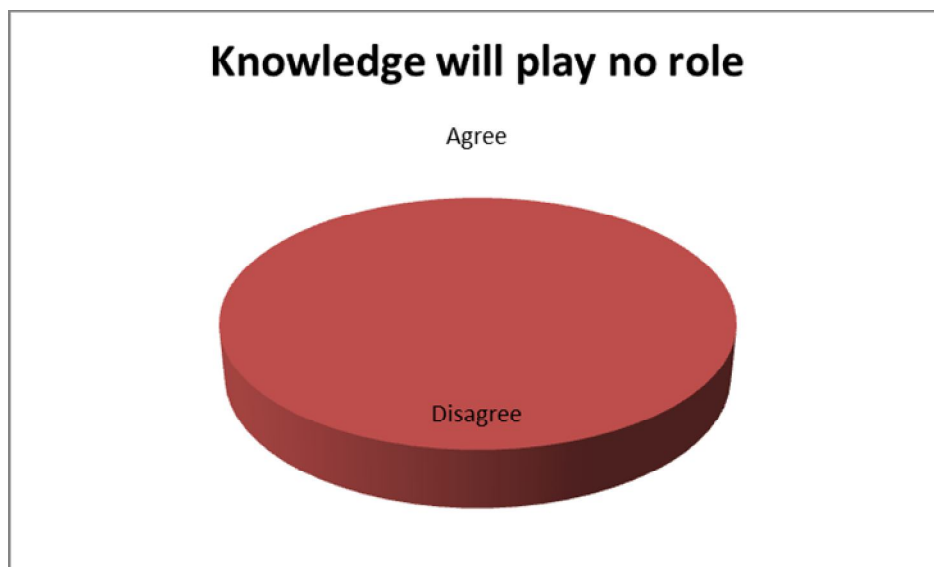
(Figure 34.4)

Question seven:

My knowledge of English…..

This question investigates the students' opinion about the role of English in future career progress.

Table (4.35): English in future career (i)

Option	Frequency	Percent
Agree	74	100
Disagree	0	0
Total	74	100

Help in future career

All students (100%) are for the opinion that proficiency in English will play a fundamental role in making a good progress in their future career.
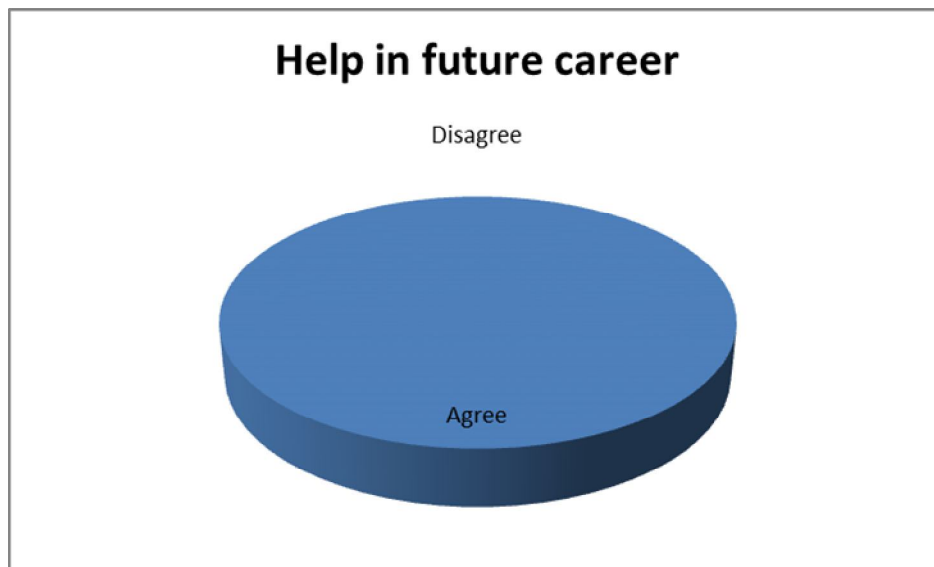
(Figure 35.4)

Table (4.36): English in future career (ii)

Option	Frequency	Percent
Agree	0	0
Disagree	74	100
Total	74	100

No help

Students who think that their knowledge of English will not help in making progress in future career are (0%).
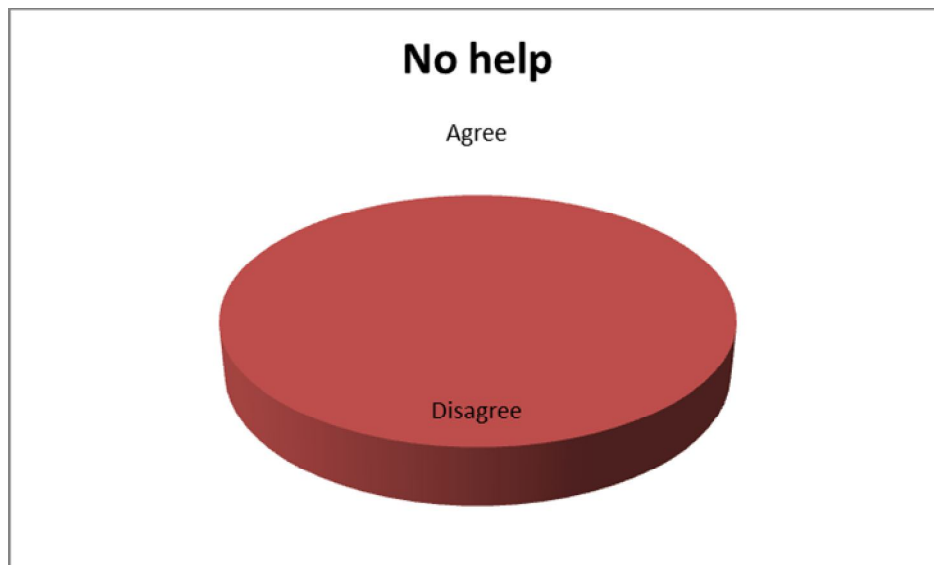
(Figure 36.4)

Table (4.37): English in future career (iii)

Option	Frequency	Percent
Agree	0	0
Disagree	74	100
Total	74	100

Play no role

All students disagree that proficiency of English will play no role in their future career progress.
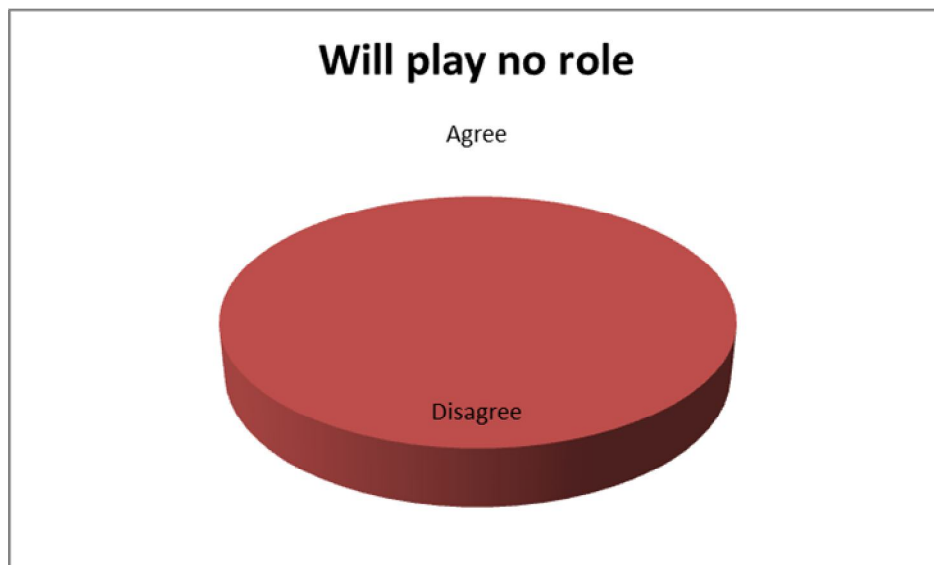
(Figure 37.4)

Question eight:

I need to develop more this area of language….

Table (4.38): Developing listening skills

Option	Frequency	Percent
Agree	68	91.9
Disagree	6	8.1
Total	74	100

Listening

The majority of the students (91.9%) expressed their desire for improving their listening skills. Small number of (8.1%) haven't the desire.
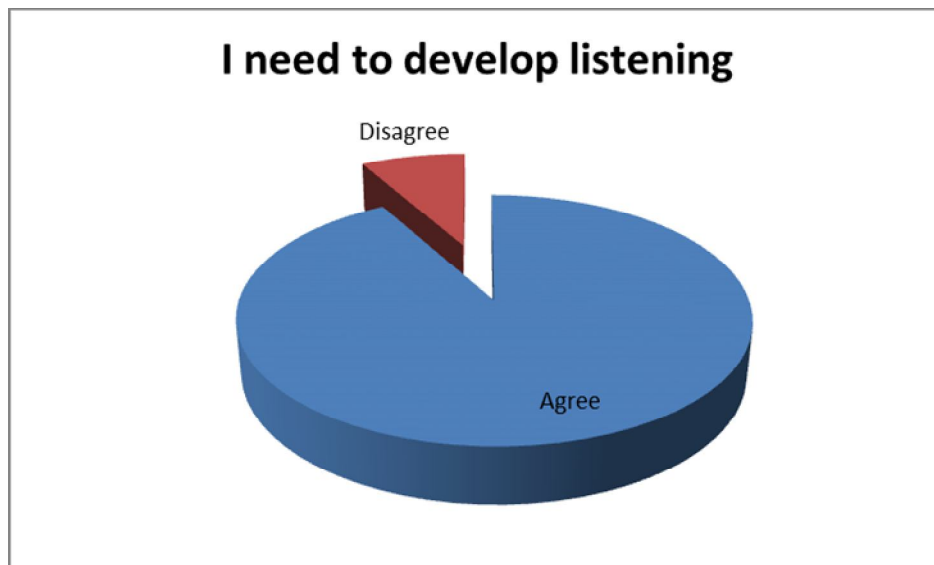
(Figure 38.4)

Table (4.39): Developing speaking skills

Option	Frequency	Percent
Agree	73	98.6
Disagree	1	1.4
Total	74	100

Speaking

The majority of the students (98.6%) want to develop their speaking skills.(1.4%) don't wont .

(Figure 39.4)

Table (4.40): Developing reading skills

Option	Frequency	Percent
Agree	69	93.2
Disagree	5	6.8
Total	74	100

Reading

(93.2%) of the students chose to develop reading skills. (6.8%) disliked it.
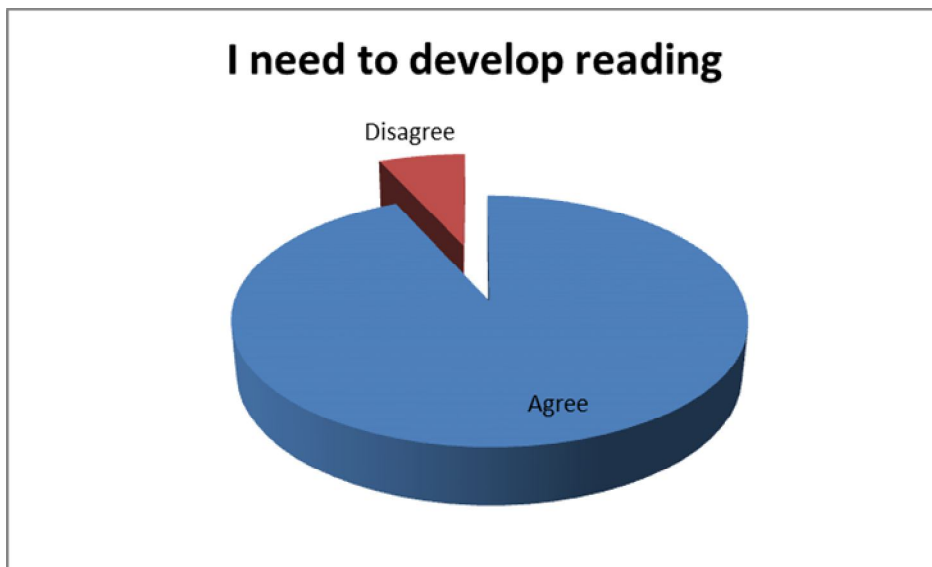
(Figure 40.4)

Table (4.41): Developing writing skills

Option	Frequency	Percent
Agree	69	93.2
Disagree	5	6.8
Total	74	100

Writing

(93.2%) of the students want to improve their writing skill as shown in the table and diagram. Small number of(6.8%) don't wont it .
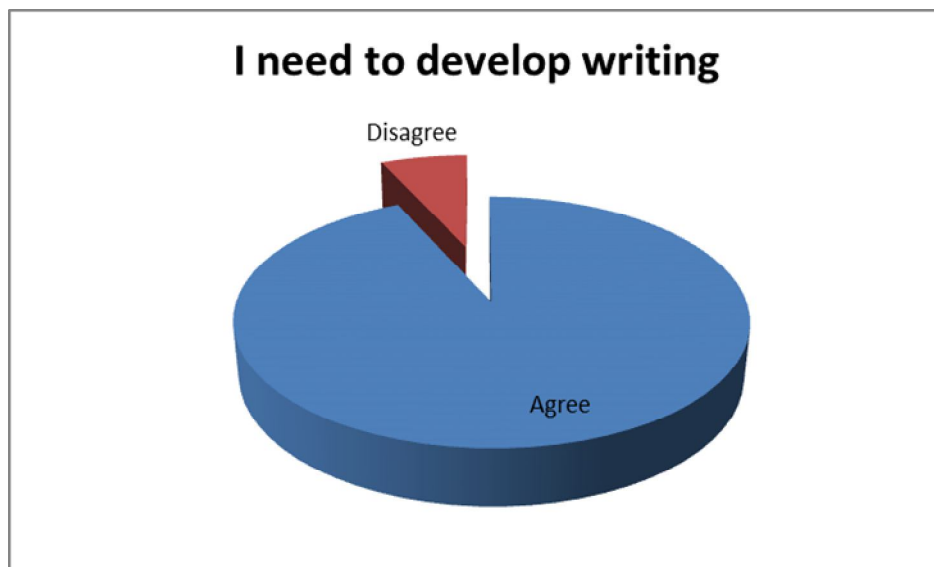
(Figure 41.4)

Table (4.42): Developing grammar

Option	Frequency	Percent
Agree	69	93.2
Disagree	5	6.8
Total	74	100

Grammar

Grammar is very influential in studying language in different contexts. As it is mentioned previously, it makes up the skeleton of the language. The students who perceived the importance of grammar in language learning represent (93.2%). (6.8%) disagreed the point .
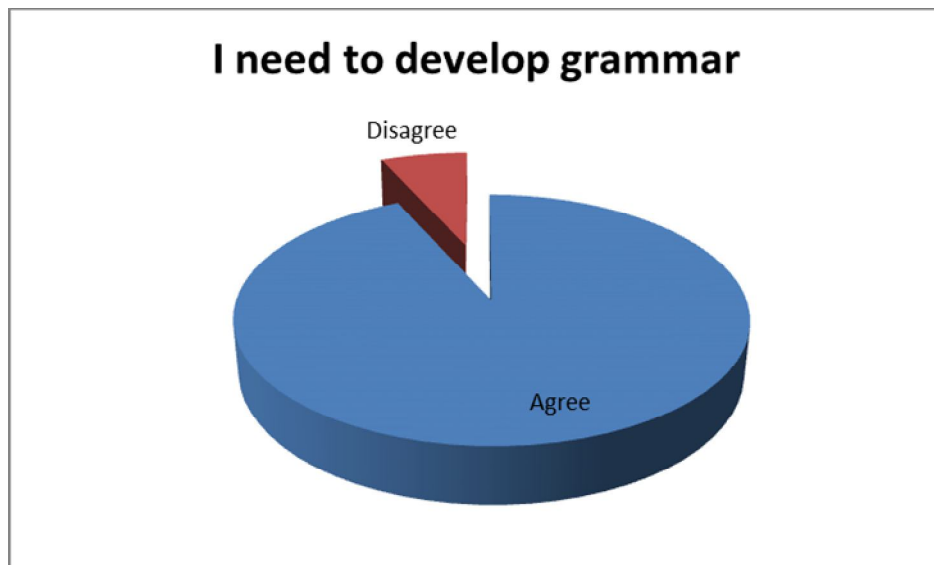
(Figure 42.4)

Table (4.43): Developing vocabulary

Option	Frequency	Percent
Agree	73	98.6
Disagree	1	1.4
Total	74	100

Vocabulary

(98.6%) of the respondents agreed that they need to develop vocabulary.
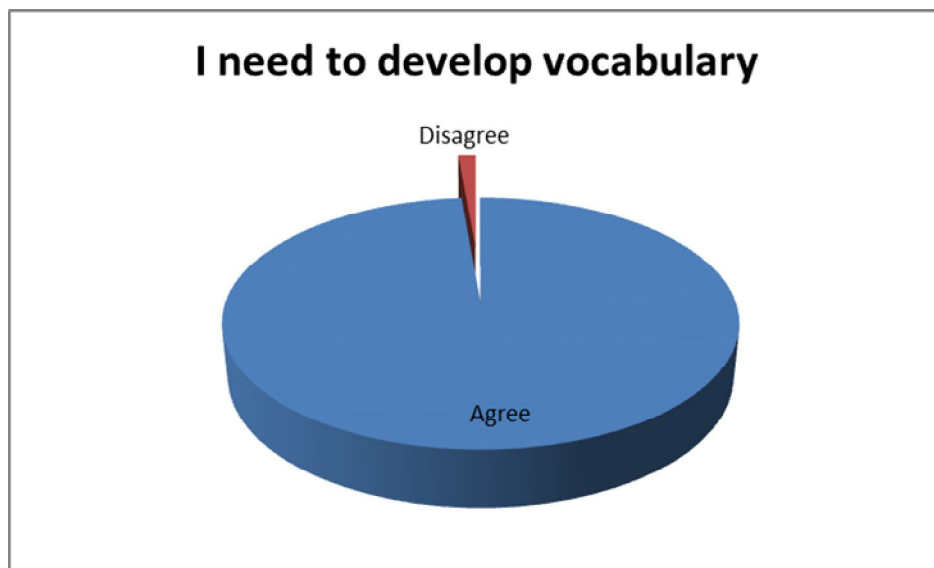
(Figure 43.4)

Question nine:

What do you think English language teaching should focus on?

Table (4.44): Focus on listening and speaking

Option	Frequency	Percent
Agree	21	28.3
Disagree	53	71.7
Total	74	100

Listening and speaking

 (28.3%) of respondents opted for Listening and speaking. (71,7%) disagreed
to focus on them .
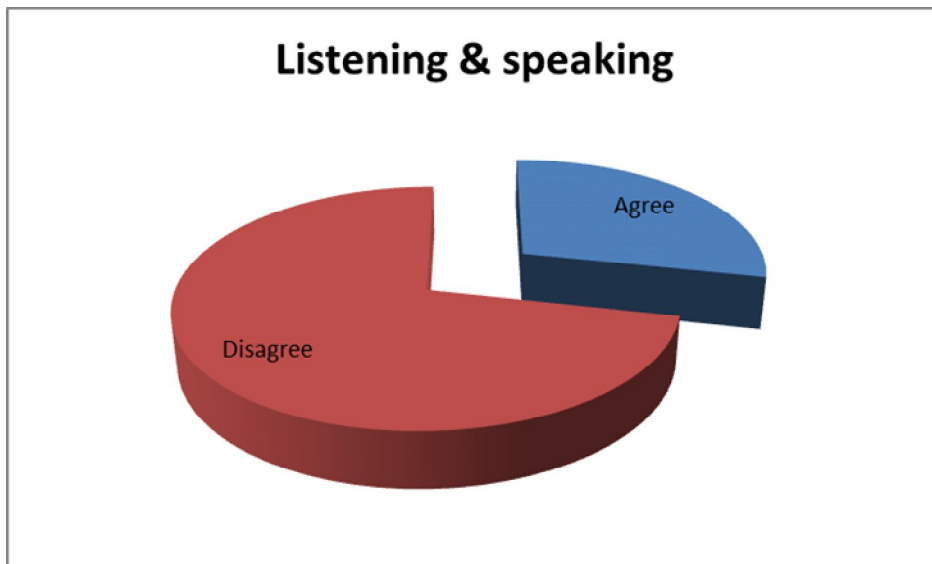
(Figure 44.4)

Table (4.45): Focus on reading and writing

Option	Frequency	Percent
Agree	38	51.4
Disagree	36	48.6
Total	74	100

Reading & Writing

Reading and writing were chosen by (51.4 %) of respondents as focus of learning programme. Where as(48,6%) refused to focus on them
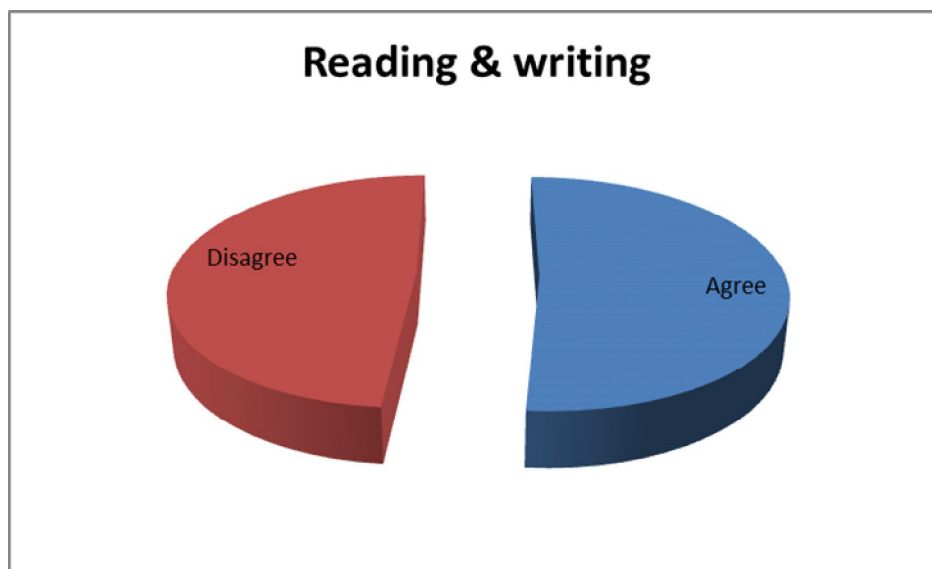
(Figure 45.4)

Table (4.56): Focus on all the skills

Option	Frequency	Percent
Agree	15	20.3
Disagree	59	79.7
Total	74	100

All skills

Those who think the learning programme should focus on the four major language skills are (20.3%)The rest respondents(79.7%) disagreed the point .

All skills

Agree

Disagree

(Figure 46.4)

Question ten:

Do you like learning by …?

Table (4.47): Learning strategies

Option	Frequency	Percent
Learning by memory	21	28.4
Learning by problem solving	39	52.7
Getting information by yourself	11	14.8
Copying from the board	3	4.1
Total	74	100

(28.4%) of respondents prefer learning by memory whereas half of the students (52.7%) prefer learning by problem- solving strategy. (14.8%) of respondents are for the learning strategy of getting information for themselves and only (4.1%) preferred copying from the board.
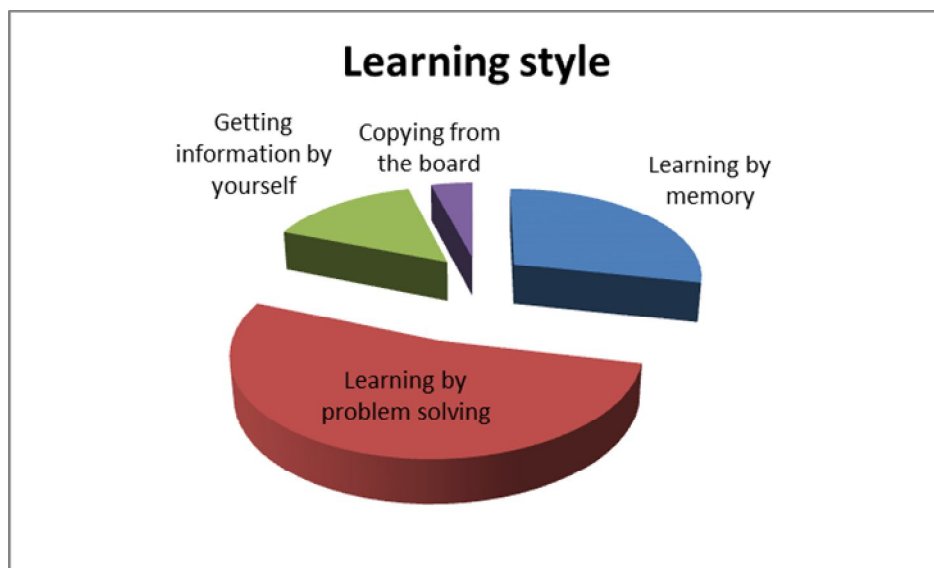
(Figure 47.4)

Question eleven:

What kind of English class do you like?

Table (4.48): Classroom interaction patterns

Option	Frequency	Percent
Teacher- centred	1	1.4
Student- centred	73	98.6
Total	74	100

This question investigates the preference for classroom interaction patterns. Only the minority of the students (1.4%) preferred a passive role and a class with no activities while the majority of the students (98.6 %) preferred the active role in the class room by participating in a lot of learning activities, pair work/group work, games and projects.

Classroom interaction patterns
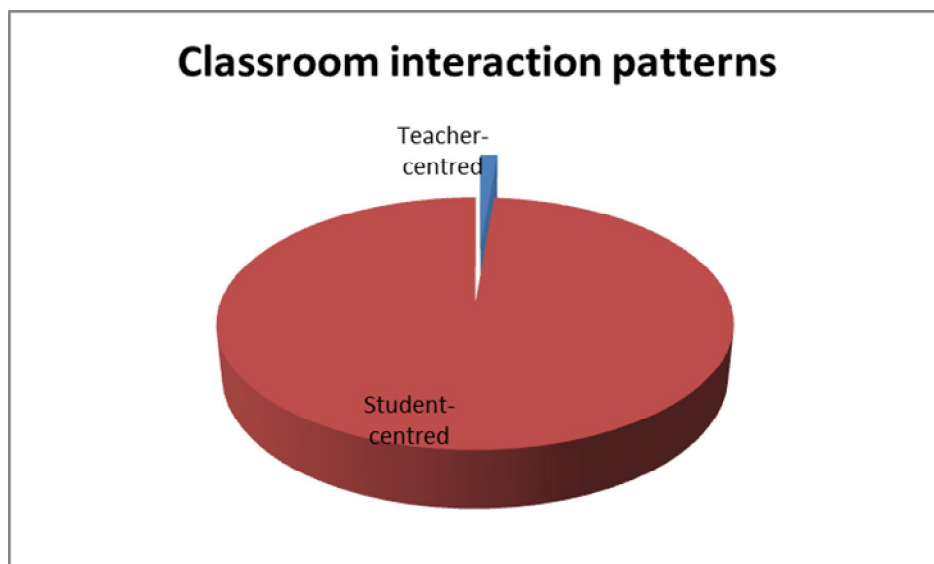
(Figure 48.4)

Question twelve:

How do you prefer to do learning activities in the class?

Table (4.49): Performing learning activities

Option	Frequency	Percent
Pair/Group work	69	93.2
Alone	5	6.8
Total	74	100

Only (6.8%) of the respondents indicated that they prefer to perform learning activities alone whereas the majority of the students (93.2 %) preferred pair and group work interaction pattern.
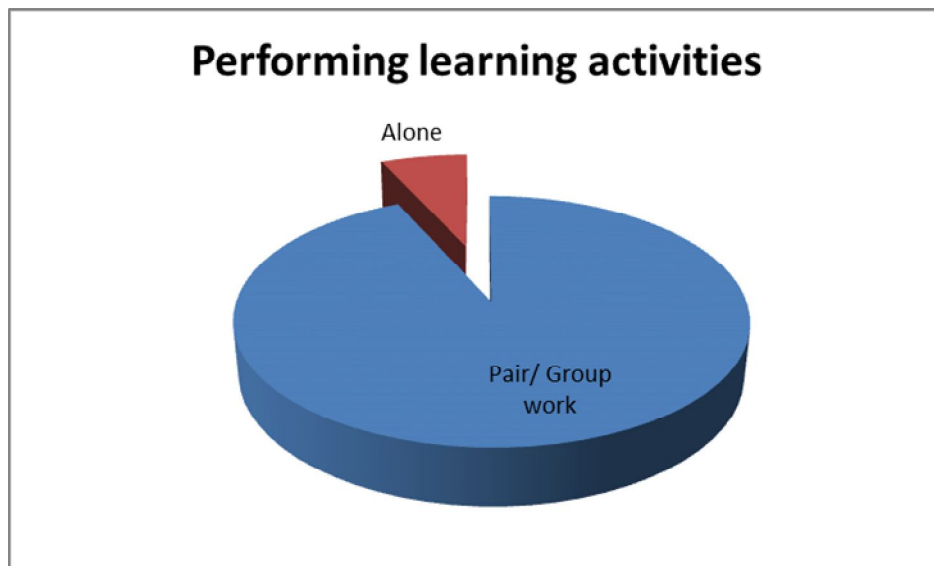
(Figure 49.4)

Question thirteen:

What kind of role do you like your teacher to have?

Table (4.50): Role of the teacher

Option	Frequency	Percent
Teacher as controller	0	0
Teacher as guide	74	100
Total	74	100

The total number of the students (100 %) opted for the role of teacher as guide and facilitator. None of the students preferred the role of teacher as a person who controls everything in the class.
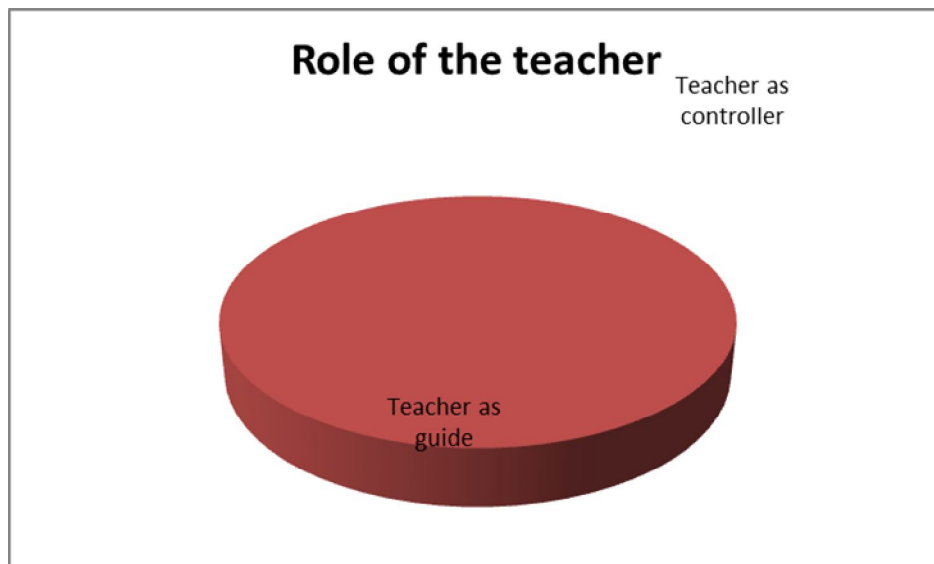
(Figure 50.4)

Question fourteen:

Our teachers should adopt a motivating teaching method.

Table (4.51): Adoption of a motivating teaching method

Option	Frequency	Percent
Strongly agree	60	81.1
Agree	14	18.9
Strongly disagree	0	0
Disagree	0	0
Total	74	100

Responses to question 14 establish students attitude to the traditional (up-front and in control) and modern (facilitator and guide) role of the teacher. (81.1 %) 'Strongly agreed' that the teacher should adopt a motivating teaching method. Those who 'agreed' that their teacher should adopt a motivating teaching method are (18.9%). Concerning the adoption of motivating teaching method by the teacher, all the students state their opinion positively and no one contradicted the importance of adopting motivating teaching method.
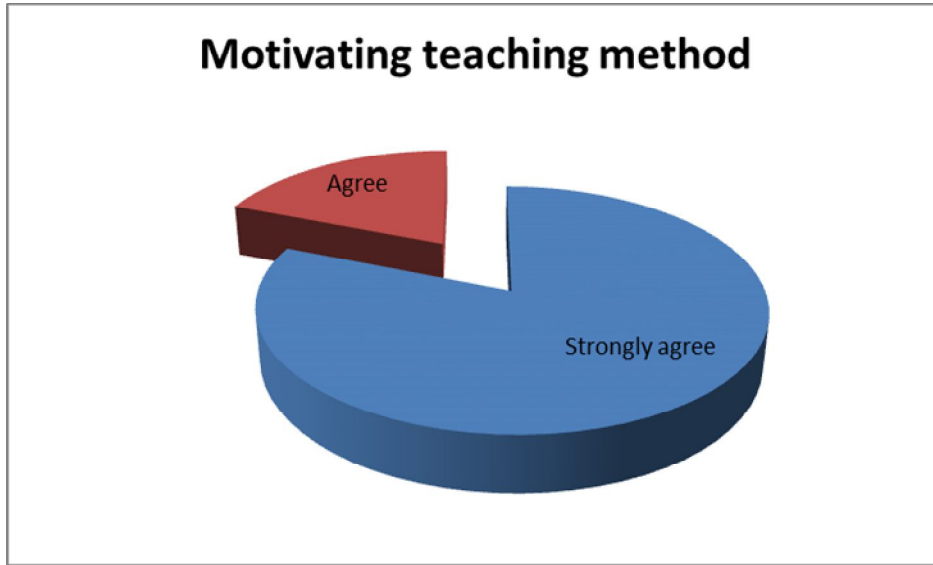
(Figure 51.4)

Question fifteen:

I can learn English better if taught through a different and new method by my teacher, e.g., using the computer and projector.

Table (4.52): Teaching through a different and new method

Option	Frequency	Percent
Strongly agree	42	56.7
Agree	23	31.1
Disagree	4	5.4
Strongly disagree	2	2.7
No opinion	3	4.1
Total	74	100

More than half of the respondents (56.7%) strongly agreed that if they are taught through a different and new method, they will have a better learning opportunity. (31.1%) agreed that using modern method and technology will enhance their learning. Only (5.4%) disagreed with the point. A small

number of respondents strongly disagreed with the use of modern technology and techniques in teaching the course represent (2.7%). Those who have no opinion represent (4.1%)

I can learn English better if taught through a different and new method

No opinion
Disagree
Strongly disagree
Agree
Strongly agree
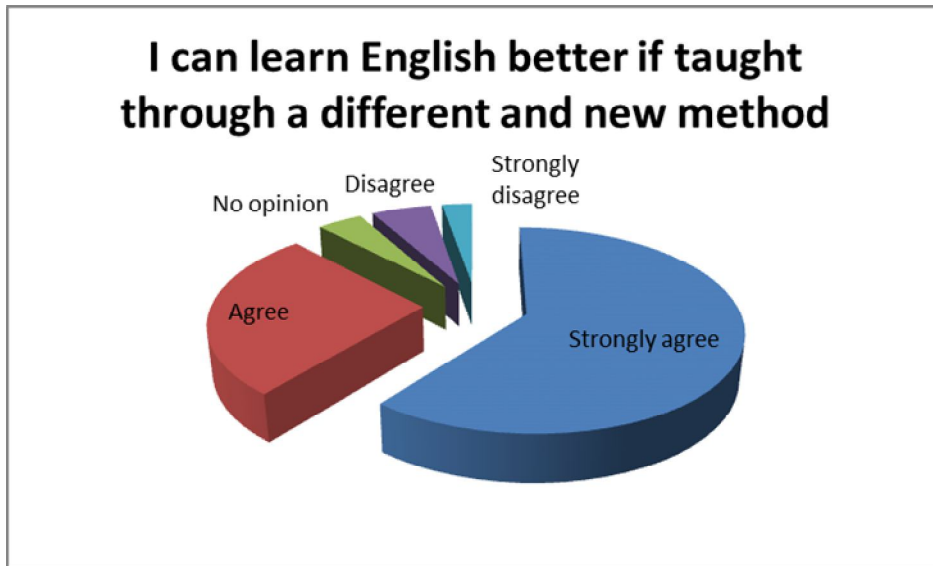
(Figure 52.4)

Question sixteen:

Do you think English language teaching should serve as a tool in helping you to study your content subjects like , maths, and computer science?

Table (4.53): English and content subjects

Option	Frequency	Percent
Strongly agree	53	71.6
Agree	14	18.9
No opinion	4	5.4
Disagree	2	2.7
Strongly disagree	1	1.4
Total	74	100

The majority of the respondents (71.6%) strongly agreed that English language should serve as a tool for studying other academic subjects. Those who agreed that success in college content subjects is enhanced by proficiency of English language are (18.9%). Only (5.4%) of the respondents are not sure whether English language should serve as a tool for studying other subjects in the Academy. A few number of the students (2.7%) disagreed with the importance of English in studying the content subjects. Finally, (1.4%) strongly disagreed with the importance of English in studying the content subjects.
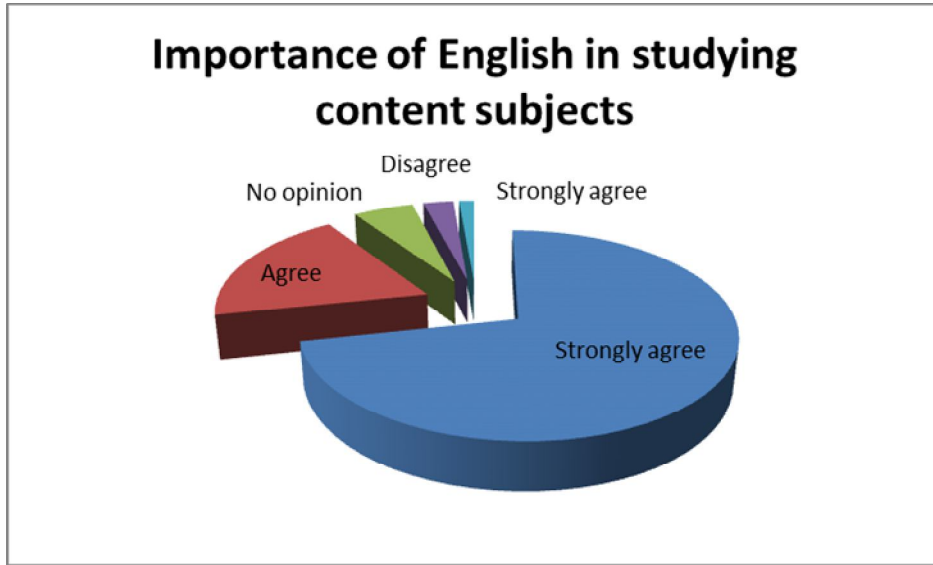
(Figure 53.4)

Question seventeen:

Will you find your English language course more interesting if it has lessons with topics from the areas related to your field of specialization (HT studies)?

Table (4.54): Relevant language input

Option	Frequency	Percent
Strongly agree	51	68.9
Agree	14	18.9
No opinion	8	10.8
Disagree	1	1.4
Strongly disagree	0	0
Total	74	100

The percentage of students who strongly agreed that English language course will be more interesting if it has lessons with topics from the areas related to their field of specialization (HT studies) is (68.9%). Those who agreed that the English course should contain topics that are relevant to their field of specialization-HT studies- are (18.9%). Only (10.8%) could not decide whether the course should contain topics related to their field of specialization; (1.4%) disagreed that the topics of the English course should be relevant to the field of Ht studies.
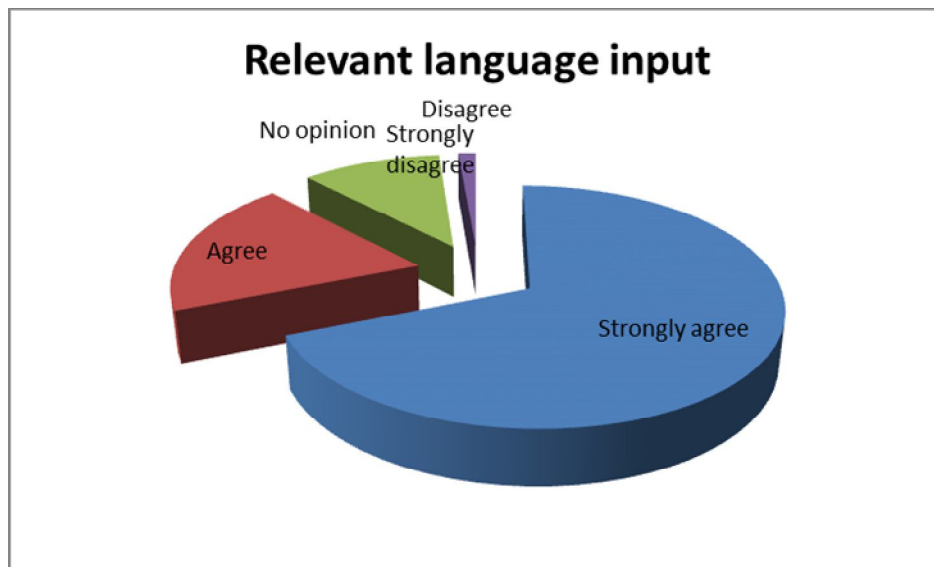
(Figure 54.4)

4.3. Presentation of teachers' interview responses

Teachers and their attitude play a crucial role in determining the implementation of any approach. This is due to the fact that the implementation of a new approach will be in competition with well-established theories of language teaching and learning, which are the product of previous teaching and learning experiences, prejudices and beliefs. Thus in this context it is suitable to present the results of the interview conducted

among the teachers of English to get an insight into their attitudes and beliefs about the language needs of HT students and to develop a syllabus addressing those needs.

What teaching loads do you have and what resources you make use of?

All of the teachers have teaching loads of about twelve hours a week. They also have their own collection of teaching materials from different sources. (40%) depend on extracts from specialized publications. Those who resort to the internet to get relevant topics are (20%). The other (40%) use some related textbooks e.g. (translating some specialized topic from Arabic to English)

What are the language problems and linguistic difficulties your students encounter while learning the language?

Concerning the difficulties facing the students' language learning, less than half of the teachers (40%) mentioned grammar and vocabulary problems. (20%) said that their students are suffering from speaking and listening difficulties. Teachers who thought that their students encounter pronunciation problems are (20%). Another (20%) considered that their students have grammatical problems.

Is your learning group easy to teach or difficult to teach?

All the teachers (100%) stated that their students are easy to teach.

Are your students motivated to learn English? How?

The total number of the teachers (100%) considered their students to be highly motivated for they show great enthusiasm in learning English.

What type of content they prefer? What type of content they have difficulty with?

The teachers were divided into two groups: (40%) stated that their students prefer structural content relevant to their HT studies; another (60%) prefer content- based syllabus that teaches them HT content

Are there any learning resources your students have access to?

All of the teachers (100%) mentioned three resources available to their student to access: the internet, language lab and library.

4.4. Data discussion and interpretation

Manifestation of the students' current language proficiency

The questionnaire begins with the intention of identifying the students' present level of proficiency in the four major language skills as well as in grammar and vocabulary. Students are, therefore, asked to assess their current language proficiency in these language areas, choosing from the following options: excellent, very good, good, satisfactory and weak. Their responses reveal that most of the students (39.2%) are weak in speaking skills.

Domains of language use and reasons for studying English

The questionnaire contains multiple-choice questions to help in determining the present and future domains of language use. The present use of language was also a consideration, as being students they not only need to continue further language learning in the remaining years of the academy but at the same time are required to use the language learnt so far according to academic, social and other demands of day to day life.

Mastering a foreign language has become not only an advantage but a necessity for many individuals in the HT. At present, many members of the HT employers have tasks which require them to work in HT fields. These

tasks include participation in hospitality, humanitarian aid work, and active tasks in air ports. Such tasks entail high language proficiency in the field of HT with its different sections. Moreover, Sudan depends on foreign countries to enrich its economy mainly red sea state , so it is necessary to send some HT groups to receive training on this activity in their country of origin. It will take them an enormous amount of time to comprehend the necessary technical terms.

The purpose of questions two and three is to find out the possible role of English in the present academic and future life of the students. The question contains fourteen items; each is intended to elicit a specific language function (themes and tasks) desired by the students (see appendix 1).

Role of English in the academy curriculum and future life

The questionnaire contains questions which intended to judge students' attitude towards the role of English in the present curriculum of the HT and in future life. The questions are in multiple choice forms. They are questions five, six and seven of the questionnaire. The purpose of which is to find out the possible role of English in the present academic and future life of the students. Following is a pattern of responses to these questions which is helpful in establishing students' attitude towards the role of English in their academic and future life.

Learning preferences in terms of language skills

The focus of questions eight and nine is on finding students' learning preferences for language skills. Question eight intends to investigate the skills which students want to develop more. The options also contain the areas of grammar and vocabulary as these are the focus of teaching in the presently prevailing materials. Teaching of grammar focuses on telling the

students about language and its rules resulting in learning the facts about language. According to Jeremy Harmer (2003) language structures make up the skeleton of a language while vocabulary is the flesh which means that both are equally important and independent. Therefore, students who perceived the importance of grammar in language learning represent (93.2%).

Importance of language skills

Questions eight and nine also provide an insight into students' beliefs about the importance of certain language skills for them. The options in question eight present the four language skills as well as grammar and vocabulary. These two areas are presently the focus of ELT in different fields of study. However, those who think the learning programme should focus on the four major language skills are (20.3%).

Developing speaking skills

Responses in favour of 'speaking' can probably be interpreted as a result of the reaction against the prevailing traditional approach which does not prioritize the development of learners' speaking skills, and Robinson's (1991:105) explanation regarding the importance of speaking skills for students that 'in many students' opinion oral proficiency is the best indication of mastery of a language' seems to be very valid in this context also.

Developing reading skills

Though reading is a receptive skill it does not mean that the reader is only a passive participant of communication, as it involves active participation. Reading (together with listening) is considered as sources of both finely- and

roughly-tuned input. There are many reasons why students want to improve their reading skills. In the first place, many of them want to be able to read texts in English either for their field, for study purposes or simply for pleasure. For the HT students they need to develop reading skills to read handouts given to them by the teacher (Figure 13.4). They also need to read reference materials in the library (Figure 18.4). Some others want to read articles and materials related to the field of HT studies (Figure 21.4). For all these reasons (93.2%) chose to develop reading skills.

Developing vocabulary

In communicative language teaching structural accuracy is less important in effective communication than choosing the right word. In earlier methods vocabulary was seen as incidental to the main purpose of language teaching. It was not the main focus of language teaching. This trend has come to an end and recently methodologists have increasingly been turning their attention to vocabulary. Modern language course books, however, concentrate equally on structures and vocabulary.

Vocabulary is greatly needed by HT students particularly the acquisition of specialized Hotel, air lines and tourism terms (Figure 24.4). Therefore, (98.6%) of the respondents state that they need to develop vocabulary.

Preference for teaching/ learning activities

Question eleven establishes the pattern of students' preference for teaching/ learning activities. The majority of the students prefer activities like role play, games, and projects as compared to passive learning and no activities by the students in the class.

Students' preference for the kind of classroom interaction which involves a lot of activities and tasks has been spotted by different means. Classroom

observations, for example, revealed that students enjoy atmosphere where they are involved in tasks, where teacher relinquishes his control and opportunity for student-student interaction is generated. Experience, telephonic conversation with colleagues and tourists in HT and classroom observation disclose that whenever students are involved in tasks they display greater degree of enthusiasm and participation and improvement.

Role of the teacher

Questions thirteen, fourteen and fifteen examine students' preferences for the role of the teacher in the classroom. They are in scaled form aiming at finding students' attitude towards teacher's giving up his/her traditional role. Here is a discussion of question fifteen:

I can learn English better if taught through a different and new method by my teacher, e.g., using the computer and projector.

This question intended to elicit students' belief and attitude towards using innovative methods particularly modern technology for its crucial role in language learning and teaching as stated clearly by Robertson and Acklam (2000).

> *For many years, the blackboard was the only teaching aid many teachers had. In today's technological world, this is no longer true. There is a wide range of modern resources available to many teachers. Technology provides variety in your lessons and makes them more interesting for your students. Technology can help to present ideas in different ways, generate new activities and stimulate discussion. But only if it's used well.*
>
> (Robertson, & Acklam, 2000, 25)

Role of English proficiency in good performance in science subjects

The effect of English language proficiency on the acquisition of science content knowledge by English foreign language learners has been a real question raised by a number of applied linguists. The theoretical foundation to investigate this factor was Cummins' (1979) work on cognitive academic language proficiency, which relates both cognitive and linguistic processes to the academic success of students, more specifically non-native English language learners. According to Cummins (1979), there are two levels of language proficiency: the basic interpersonal communicative skills (BICS) and the cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP). The basic interpersonal communicative skills (BICS) concept represents the language of natural, informal conversation. Basic interpersonal communicative skills (BICS) are used by students when talking about everyday things in concrete situations, that is; situations in which the context provides cues that make understanding not totally dependent on verbal interaction alone. Cummins (1979) refers to this everyday conversational ability as context embedded or contextualized. It has been found that in context embedded or contextualized communication, the conversation deals with familiar events or matters that require that the speakers react and respond to each other. However, according to Cummins (1979) CALP is the type of language proficiency needed to read textbooks, to participate in dialogue and debate, and to provide written responses to tests. Students who have not yet developed their cognitive-academic language proficiency (CALP) could be, according to these researchers, at a disadvantage in learning science or other academic subject matter.

Relevant material input

Do you think English language teaching should serve as a tool in helping you to study your content subjects like physics, , math, and computer science?

Opinion is divided on whether English language teaching should serve as a tool for studying content subjects like physics, computer, etc. Although, the majority of the students stressed the importance of English language proficiency in academic achievement (Figure 22.4), the responses to this question reveal more ambivalent attitude to the role of English as a tool of success in content subjects.

Any material intended to contribute to language learning may be interpreted as a theoretical statement about how it is that languages actually are best learned. The structure and organization of the material, the way input language is presented (in texts and as "items"), and the suggested student activities can all be understood as statements about second language acquisition: in *this* way language will be learned and acquired. Clarke (1991) discusses the changes in language teaching materials under the communicative paradigm. One development has been an emphasis on "authentic" materials, in the sense of "genuine" (Widdowson 1978 p 80) as input. This trend has been particularly significant in ESP settings where the genuine input can be closely related to the learners' present situation.

CHAPTER FIVE
Summary, Conclusion
and Recommendation

5.1. Summary

The purpose of this research is to introduce a framework for developing an ESP course for the students of HT in Port Sudan technological college. As it is illustrated, course-developing process starts with (1) students' needs analysis, which is followed by (2) formulation of goals and objectives, (3) content, (4) selection of teaching materials, (5) planning the course, and (6) course evaluation.

Needs analysis is important in terms of students' involvement in every phase of educational process. It is necessary to know about learners' objectives, language attitudes, expectations from the course and learning habits in order to design an efficient curriculum. However, it is not only the learners who play an important role in developing a curriculum. There are other factors relevant to the design and implementation of language programs or curricula such as situation analysis, syllabus designer, etc. taking these facts into account, this thesis report presents a framework for investigating the English for Specific Purposes (ESP) needs of HT students who study ESP in an English as a Foreign Language (EFL) environment. The theoretical research originates from an aspiration to update and improve an ESP course. The review of literature indicates that learners' needs will have to be addressed if the course is to be successful. The literature suggests important principles for investigating learner needs, specifying that attempts should be made to meet those needs in actual teaching and learning situations, which further involve attention to curriculum development.

To achieve the objectives of the research a variety of methods have been adopted. Both qualitative and quantitative data were collected for this purpose. The reason for collecting qualitative and quantitative data is to have more convincing and accurate findings and conclusions by means of multiple sources of evidence (McMillan & Schumacher, 2000). Data collecting tools included interviews, observations and questionnaires. Before collecting the data, the researcher explained the purpose of the study to the participants and their role in it. The following tools are used for data collection:

1. *Observations:* While lecturing in classes, giving explanations or engaging with various activities, the students were observed to determine what kinds of activities they liked and what kinds of language problems and linguistic difficulties they encountered.

2. *Questionnaire:* The questionnaires were administered after the observations with the same purpose

3. *Interviews:* Lastly, the teachers were interviewed to determine what kinds of language problems and linguistic difficulties their students encounter. They were also asked about their roles and experiences related to curriculum development. Semi-structured interviews were administered only once.

The participants of this study are 74 currently registered in the HT and are doing their diploma in HT studies. The students form a homogenous learning group. The teacher participants have been teaching English at this college with varying years of experience. They all hold a post graduate degree in Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL).

Technological college of port Sudan where this study was conducted provides diploma degree in HT studies. English language is taught as college requirement. It is a mandatory subject that all students should do in order to successfully pursue their education.

Percentages and frequency of responses to the questions on challenges or linguistic problems as well as students' opinions, beliefs and attitudes towards learning English were found through analyzing the student questionnaires using (SPSS). The categories of data were developed for interviews notes and observations and each category was further analyzed to determine major themes.

The purpose of this study is to discover the EL learning needs of the students of HT and then suggest an appropriate approach in the light of students' needs, attitude, beliefs and opinion. The response pattern to the questionnaire helps in interpreting them in certain form of the students.

The findings are presented in such a way that the needs of the students are established and then these needs are matched against the elements of the present situation to find out which syllabus framework is more conforming to the needs of the students.

The findings related to interpretations about the needs of the students are presented according to areas of present and future domains of language use, learning preferences, learning styles, classroom interaction and learning activities, and role relationship i.e. classroom interaction.

5.2. Findings of needs assessments

1. The present and future domains of language use are academy curriculum and advancement in future professional life as suggested by the results

presented in answering questions two, three and four of the questionnaire. Thus it can be inferred that the mastery of language is considered instrumental in making good progress in studies (thus present needs) and in getting a good job in future and also making good progress in future career (thus target situation needs) (suggested by the results in(tables 4.2; 4.3; 4.4). This factor suggests that the motivation for EL learning among these students is extrinsic. It is suggested that in the case of extrinsic motivation external factors can have an effect on students' motivation for language learning in a negative way, and language learning environment needs to be supportive and encouraging to the students in order to help students view language learning experience in a positive way. It will not be amiss to include needs-appropriate approach as one of the factors and thus establishing the need for an approach which is more consistent with learning needs of the students. This will help in making EL learning more pleasant because "*the atmosphere in which a language is learnt is vitally important: the cold greyness of institutionalised education must be compensated for in some way if it is not to have a negative effect on motivation*" (Harmer: 2003, 5) and also because "*learners bring preconceptions of what teaching and learning should be like. These constitute a set of learning, which when unrealized can lead to learner confusion and resentment*" (Richards & Rodgers 1986:166).

2. The students need to learn all the four skills of language as compared to grammar and vocabulary. Speaking is more preferred as compared to the skills of listening, reading and writing table (4.8). Greater importance is attached to the skills of reading and writing (table 4.9). This result proves the hypothesis that the HT students need to develop the four basic language skills with greater emphasis on reading and writing. They are considered

important skills for their temperament of being used in higher education particularly in contexts relevant to the academy students where English is taught as a foreign language. Thus an order of learning preferences for language skills can be established individually and in pairs (Figure 37- 45.4).

3. Students need a classroom environment which is supportive to their active participation by introducing pair and group work, and activities like games, role play, and projects. They need to learn language by solving problems and getting information for themselves and actively using language (Tables 4.10; 4.11).

4. Students need a change in role relationship and their status. They need a class where they are at the centre and the role of the teacher is that of a facilitator and guide (tables 4.12; 4.13; 4.14).

5. The students need course material in the field of ESP, English for HT studies. The course material needs to be interesting to these students by incorporating variety in material, integrating the four language skills, tasks and activities in the form of an illustrated course-book (table 4.17). It should contribute to the improvement of their language proficiency by focusing on the development of academic achievement. The syllabus should also familiarize the students with the register of common HT studies as suggested by (figure 24.4).

6. Students attach great importance to the study of English. They believe that present approach and course material is not contributing to the improvement of their English. They have a favorable opinion to the suggestion that a modern approach can be helpful in improving their learning of English which should be adopted (tables 4.14; 4.15; 4.16).

The analysis of data collected through a sample group of HT students and teachers has clearly indicated that there is strong and homogeneous bias towards ESP course that meets their needs. The students desire the kind of learning culture which specific course in HT studies can provide and teachers also favor the elements of ESP. Therefore, the initiation of implementation of HT English course may not be accompanied by the kind of problems which characterized the implementation of other approaches i.e. general English.

5.3. Recommendations

The findings of this research form the basis for recommendations to facilitate the introduction and design of an ESP course for HT students was mentioned in the previous section, the results of needs analysis manifested a strong and homogeneous bias for an ESP course both by students and teachers. Consequently, there is a need for making a shift from "inflexible" and "rigid" curriculum to a learner- centred approach, which "takes into account the needs and expectations of all the parties involved in the teaching/ learning process when designing courses and selecting methodology". (Hutchinson & Waters 1996:108). To achieve this end in ELT in ESP course based on needs analysis can be an instrument. However, the question emerges is that what can be done to gain the maximum benefit of this instrument in order to accomplish the avowed end?

The following recommendations are made for the implementation of an ESP syllabus for HT Students.

1. Adoption of the proposed HT English syllabus

The researcher proposes a syllabus for HT students based on their actual needs. A general frame work of the syllabus is suggested; the selection and

grading of the learning items are chosen to meet the needs of the students in specific language areas. For full description see (Appendix 3)

2. Training of Teachers

The ability of teachers to give a shape to a methodology in practice can probably play an important role in the implementation of a new methodology. ESP places certain demands on the teachers in his role as a guide, manager and facilitator. Teacher has to involve him/herself in a wider range of roles. S/he has to manage learning by 'setting up activities, organizing material resources, guiding students in group work, encouraging contributions, monitoring activities, and diagnosing the further needs of students' (Hedge 2000:63). All these demands means a well trained teacher who has good understanding of the nature of ESP and is well adept in practicing its techniques in the class thus being able to satisfy all the demands of an ESP teacher's role. For successful initiation of the implementation of HT English syllabus in-service training needs to be arranged for those teachers who have no training in teaching ESP.

3. Training of Learners

Learners, in a communicative ESP class, have to develop more responsibility and show more initiative in their learning process (Bassano 1986:13). This is in contrast to a traditional approach where learner is dependent, for most of his learning, on teacher. In a shift from teacher-centered approach to a learner-centered approach this can result in unproductive learning experience for the learners as this new style of learning may be in conflict with the previous learning style of the learners. There is a need to prepare learners for such an experience where they can take control of their own learning. Thus, apart from training teachers for

teaching ESP, students of HT should also be trained to assume their new role as learners and can take responsibility for their own learning.

4. Administrative Measure

Some measure needs to be taken by the administration of HT to facilitate practice of ESP classes. The time for English classes needs to be extended reasonably as two hours are insufficient for setting activities, group work and pair work. Instead of having a class of two hours, it can be increased to three hours a week. This will help in lengthening the time for English class, and provide teachers more time for preparing their lessons, planning activities, and arranging materials. Wherever possible, English language teachers should not be encumbered with non-teaching activities. Rooms, where English language teaching classes are taught should be furnished with proper furniture, necessary equipment like OHP, cassette players, TV and DVD player. If possible they should be at a location slightly removed from the main stream classes so that other classes are not disturbed if there is a noise during pair and group work. This noise can be anticipated because the learners are teenagers and they may feel excited during certain activities. However, this factor can be countered by training the students for participation in pair and group work.

5. Continuous (on- going) Needs Analysis

The process of NA should be repeated at intervals. This will provide a feedback on the effects of ESP on learners and teachers and concurrently help in attuning the language teaching programme further to the needs and expectations of learners and teachers.

5.4. Suggestions for further research

The field of ESP and more particularly English for HT studies is still virgin. Researchers can tackle it from different perspectives. However, the following topics are suggested for further consideration:

1/ Evaluative study of the ESP HT syllabus for HT students. 2/Analyzing internet- based resources of HT English.

3/ Needs analysis: Planning a syllabus for a workplace course.

CHAPTER SIX

Proposed syllabus

Unit one

Tourism and purposes:

Tourism is The movement of tourist from one place to another one. It is The temporary short term movement of people to destinations outside the place where they normally live and work includes the activities they indulge in at destinations as well as facilities and services specially created to meet their needs. Tourism does not only mean travelling to particular destination but also includes all activities undertaken during the stay. It includes day visits and excursions . The movement can be in your country or the tourists can travel to the foreign destinations for the tourism purpose. In physical motive case , many people travel searching for their body health . they believe that they may recover in being out boards. Those who need to be free from routine life, and daily pressures prefer pleasure tourism for some time . Another motives , is the relaxation, rest and recreation , in which people travel to get relaxed and rest their mind .Many other people always love traveling to collect cultural in formation . A large number of people travel every day to visit relatives and see new place. Others travel to take part in meetings conferences, and conventions , some travel to celebrate festival and ceremony . The spiritual and religions motives is when people visit religious places, like "HuJ" for Muslims.

1-Present time

The simple present and the present progressive:

	Simple present	Present progressive
Statement	I-you we they eat He she it eats	am ٣ eating You we they are eating He She it is eating
Negative	I you we they do not eat He She it does not eat	I am not eating You we they are not eating He she it is not eating
Questions	Do I – you – we- They eat ? Does She – He – It eat?	Am + I eating Are + They + we + you eating Is+ He+ she+ It eating

(1-2) Present perfect and present perfect progressive

	Present perfect	Present _refer progressive
Statement	I-you we they have + eaten He she it has eaten	I You we they have+ been eating He she it has been eating
Negative	I you we they have not eaten He she it has not eaten	I You we they have not been eating He she it has not been eating
Questions	Have you eaten?	has she eaten?

2-Past time

2- (1) Past simple and Past Continuous:-

	Past simple	Past continuous
Statement	Mary walked down? Yesterday We slept here For five hours	Mary was Walking Down Yesterday We Were sleeping here For five hours
Form	Subject + did We They You She He It I	I , The , She . It was doing They , we , you were doing
Negative	We did not walk down yesterday We did not sleep for five hours	Mary was not walking down yesterday We were not sleeping Four Five hours
Questions	Did We walk down yesterday?	were we sleeping Four Five hours?

Advantages of Tourism and problems

What lies beyond assertion is the fact , that tourism of a number of advantages. We can distinguish some of them here. It provides the country with many benefits. To begin with national economy , it directly helps in refreshing and developing the economy of the country as the tourists spend money while coming and visiting a country. Tourism may help in wide range, in the process of generation employment . Many employed in different tourist corporations as officers, clerks, monitors and hotels. Cultural exchange. It means the cultures of different countries can meet each others. On the other hand many of people think that tourism helps in unity among the people of a nation . this is so called . national integration. Important advantage happens when the people of a country aware of his country environment . This through cleaning , protecting , and re arranging their country to create tourism attraction .

The tourism is a source of earning a foreign currency by the money spent from the tourists while staying in the country. Finally the touching with the foreign we may learn how the other people live, speak, and think. What mentioned are not all the advantages of tourism, but there are many other.

On the other hand tourism industry faces several problems. The lack of transportation and communications. A great example is of Nepal . it is economically poor country, so it has not been able to provide transportation and communication facilities in all sector. So, tourists who visit Nepal cannot get a chance to visit all parts of Nepal . lack of trained tourism manpower ,in many poor countries we can find a little number of interactive people who have a good background about the history , geography and

culture of their country. Last problem is the lack of good quality hotels. In some countries hotels are not well managed **.**

(3) Future Time

(3-1) Forms with be going to :-

(a) We are going to be late (b) She is going to come tomorrow In correct :- She is going to comes tomorrow.	Be going to is followed by simple form of the verb as in (a) and (b).
© I am not going to be late He ,She ,It , is not going to be late They ,We , You are not going to be late	Negative Be + not+ going +to

(d) Am   I
     Is   He , She , It   going to be late?
     Are   They , we , you
	Questions
	Be , subject , going to .

(3-2)   Forms with will

statement	I, you , She , he, It , They , We + will come tomorrow.
Negative	I, you , She , he, It , They , We + will not come tomorrow.
Questions	Will – I, you , She , he, It , They , We come tomorrow?

Unit (2)

DINDER NATIONAL PARK

(DNP)

It is situated in the east of the country, very close to Ethiopian boarders, about 400km.250 mile south east of Khartoum – Sudan's capital city. Dinder National park covering about 6,475 sq km .(2,500sqmi). It covers Avery large area, which would make it one of the largest park in Africa .It was established in 1935. It is the most important wildlife reserve in Sudan , beside the Radom national park .(RNP) in the southern Darfur . Dinder National park is larger than of Radom.

The park is full of wild animals such as lions , leopards , and monkeys. Elephants migrate to the park during the wet seasons. A large number of the biggest size of elephants come there. In (DNA) there are also many kinds of birds . The most dominate groups of mammals found in the park include the baboons as pests. Visitors claim that there are about more than 160 species of birds in the park . In addition to 32 fish species, reptiles and amphibian.

Dinder is mainly and extensively made of savannah grassland , wood land and forests. It is with a few hills and highlands. Located a long and near the Ethiopian boarders .

There are many threats facing the park. They could be summarized as follows, The absence of proper land to face the increasing size of some animals and birds. The absence of management plane for the park. Illegal hunting of some species of animals, since there is no punishment rules and laws.

The best way to go to dinder , is through Khartoum , where you can arrange to have a vehicle (best to have 4 – week – drive) Avoid to go there during the rainy and wet season, June to October. The roads become difficult and muddy due to floods. The best time to go there is from December to may .

There are a lot of facilities for the visitors like rooms for rent, and places to eat .one can find a guide to tour with him and provide with information. If you have been there , please be careful there are dangerous animals and insects.

Writing activity:-

Write about an attractive sight in Sudan . describing Its;

(location – weather – population – interesting places to visit there -)

4- CONNECTING IDEAS

And , But , Or and So

(4)-1 And

Connecting items within one sentence	
(a) I saw a cat and a mouse . (b) I saw a cat , a mouse ,and a dog.	No comma: comma used. * when and connect two words or phrases within a sentence, No comma is used as in (a). *when and connect more than two items with in a sentence , commas are used , as in (b).

Connecting two sentence	
(c) I saw a cat and you saw a mouse .	Comma is used to separate two complete sentences
(b) I saw a cat , a mouse ,and a dog.	The two sentences separated by period without (and)

(4-2) But, and or :

(a) I went to bed but
    Could not sleep.
(b) Is a lemon sweet or Saur?
(c) Did you order coffee, tea
    or milk?
	And , but , and or are called
	,conjunctions.
	They connect items within
	a sentence.
	Commas are used with a series of
	three or more items as in (c).

(d) I dropped the vase =
    a sentence.
(e) It didn't break   =
    a sentence.
(f) I dropped the vase , but it
    didn't break .
(g) Do we have class on
    Monday , or don't ?
	A comma is used when , but,
	or or combine two complete
	sentences (independent) into
	one sentence as in (d) ,(e).

4-(3) So, and because :-

(a) The room was dark , so I
    turned   on a light
 	
(cause)   and   (result)
	(b) So expresses The result
	    and comma is used to
	    connect two Ideas by so.

(b) I turned on the light , because the room was dark.	(c) Because expresses the cause.
(c) The room was dark , but l didn't turn on the light .	(d) But , often expresses an unexpected result as in (c)

PRONOUNS

Study the pronouns and their class

(a) Subject	(b) Object	(c) Possessive
I	Me	My
You	You	your
We	us	Our
They	Them	Their
He	Him	His
She	Her	Her
It	It	its

(a):-

1- I booked a room in palace hotel.
2- He is doing his homework.
3- They bought a new house.

(b):-
1- He sent me a letter yesterday.
2- I saw him last week.
3- They invited them to come.

(c):-
1- My room number in the hotel is 306.
2- Ali finished doing his homework.
3- The students went to their new house.

Ordering food in a restaurant

Listen , read , and use the menu to role play with you partner

Waiter :-   Hello, can I help you?

Adarob :-   yes, I would like to have lunch.

Waiter :- And what would you like to have starter?
Adarob :-   I d like to have a bawl of chicken soup, please.

Waiter :-   And what would like to have for the main courses?

Adarob :- I'd like to have meat.

Waiter :- Would you like anything to drink?

Adarob :- yes. Is there any milk?

Waiter :- sure. Which   one do your prefer?
_____

After Adarob had his lunch he called the waiter.
 Adarob :- please, can I have the bill?

Waiter :- certainly, it is $34.

Adarob :- Here you are thank you very much.

 Waiter :- you are welcome . Have a nice day.

Adarob :-   Thank you – same to you.

Writing activity

Changing the role try your own dialogue .

MENU

Starters :-

Chicken soup

Soup

Vegetable soup

Bread and salad

Garlic bread

Smoked salmon salad

Shrimp and fresh fruit salad

Main course :-

Sandwiches

Cheese sandwiches

Egg salad sandwiches

Pizza

Beef

Chicken

Burger

Cold drinks :-

Orange Juice

Apple Juice

Lemon tea

Mineral water

Soft Drinks

Fanta

karkade

Unit (3)

Hotel and Motel

Differences and comparisons

The term "Hotel" refers to an establishment that provides paid lodging for a short duration to tourist . The term hotel has teem derived from French word "hotel" which means "a town house". Hotels provide a number of other services such as a restaurant, a swimming pole , or childcare. They also have arrangements to hold conferences and meetings . A rating system with one to five stars has teem introduced as a mark of comparison for hotels.

The term "motel " is derived from the term " motorist hotel " which originally meant that ,the hotel l provided parking. Motel referred initially to a single building of connected rooms which doors face, a parking and / or common areas or services of small cabins with small parking . Their origin was driven by increased driving distances on the united states highway system that allowed easy cross- country travel .

Motels and Hotels may differ s on the following points. Hotels usually more expensive than motels, however prices range with star- ratings , rooms types, a amenities, location ,and services provided. On the other hand, Motels are often less expensive then hotels due to lack of amenities, basic rooms , location , ete . Hotels situated anywhere within a city or village often near business , districts , air ports, downtown areas, attraction , freeways , Vacation areas, within or near casinos , sports arenas, and other places, whereas the motels usually situated on highways , but can also to found near outskirt of town, rural areas and

other places. Concerning the stars rating it is a matter of classifying hotels only and it is from one to five . Motels do not have this classification, however , they are differ in their components , sometimes. Amenities are the pools, Jacuzzi, fitness center , game room and business center. They are avail at le in the hotel 3 but not in Motels. We may find pools in motel outdoor. Hotels generally have restaurants and room service for food. In motels room service may or may not be there . Sometimes, kitchens may be offered to prepare food in motels . A motel is targeted at people travelling on the highway and wanting to break their Journey . A hotel is targeted at all sorts of people like business men, travellers, students , etc . so the duration of stay in hotels can be both short as well as long.

At the hotel

1-1 - Check in

Receptionist	Welcome to Al bussairy hotel. Can I help you?
Customer	I'd like to check in , please.
Receptionist	Did you make a reservation.
Customer	yes. I did .My name is Onoor.
Receptionist	yes. Mr and Mrs. , Onoor. A double room For three nights , is it ?
Customer	That is right . How much is the total charge?
Receptionist	300 pounds for the night.
Customer	Okay . That is well.
Receptionist	Here are you room Keys and breakfast coupons. Have a nice days.
Customer	Thank you.

I-2 Information

Customer	Excuse me, can I have a local map?
Receptionist	Yes. Here you are.
Customer	I want to have a city tour – Do you have Any suggestions?
Receptionist	You can go Salabona sea shore
Customer	How can I get there?

Receptionist	You can take a taxi from have front of the hotel.
Customer	What can I do over there?
Receptionist	you can have a sea trip by small glass floor boat, see nice sea creature, and taste delicious sea food over there
Customer	Great .We should go there. Thank you.

1-3- Room service (1)

Customer	Excuse me. can I have a hair dryer ?
Receptionist	What is your room number?
Customer	305
Receptionist	It will be there soon. Any thins else?
Customer	Can l have two on are pillows and one more towel?
Receptionist	No problem at all
Customer	Thank you.

1-4 – Room service(2):-

Customer	Excuse me. can I use internet in my room?
Receptionist	yes , but the internet costs extra.
Customer	How much does it cost?
Receptionist	It 50 pounds. Is that suit you?
Customer	yes . I will take.
Receptionist	Ok. It will be charged to your account , and here is the password. BSRY 120
Customer	Thanks a lot.

1-5-check out:-

Receptionist	: Good afternoon. How can I help you sir?
Customer	: yes. I d like to check out.
Receptionist	: can I have your room number and your name please?
Customer	: My room number is 305 and my name is Onoor.
Receptionist	: Wait a moment, please … Here is your bill. Please check it to see if it is
Customer	: The total cost is 950 pound- what is the extra 30 pounds for?
Receptionist	: That is for the international phone call you made in the room .
Customer	: can .I pay with credit card?
Receptionist	: certainly .
Customer	: thank you too . Good bye.

Changing the role try your own dialogue

Modal Auxiliaries'

1\ Can and could – (Ability)	
a\ Bob can play the piano. b\ You can buy a bread at the bakery . c\ I can meet you at hospital tomorrow .	Can Expresses ability in the present and future time.
d\I $\left.\begin{matrix} \text{Can' t} \\ \text{Cannot} \\ \text{Can not} \end{matrix}\right\}$ understand this sentence.	The negative from of can may be Can' t Cannot Can not
e\ Our son could walk when he was one year old.	The past form of can
f\ He couldn't walk when he was six month old.	The negative from of could ,could not , couldn't

2-May / Might/ May / can – (possibility and permission)

a\ It may rain tomorrow. b\ It might rain tomorrow. c\ He may be sick. 　　Might	May and might express possibility in the present or future. They have the same meaning. There is no differences in meaning between a, b, and, c
d\ It may not rain tomorrow . e\ It might not rain tomorrow.	Negative from may not and might not.
f\ May be john is sick . g\ John may be sick.	In (f) may be as one word an (adverb) it means possibility . it comes at the beginning of the sentences.in (g) may be two words is a form of auxiliary (may) and the main verb (be).
h\ Yes, children , you may have a rest after dinner. i\ Okay kids, you can have a rest after dinner.	May and can also used to give permission . May and can in (h) and (i) have the same meaning.
You may not have a rest You cannot have arrest.	May not and can not or can, t are used to deny permission, (I , e, to say no)

3- Using polite questions with

(May I – could I – can I)

Polite question	Possible answer
a\ May I please use your pen?	Yes
b\ could I please use your pen?	Yes . of course
c\ can I please use your pen?	Yes , certainly
d\ can I please use pen please?	Of course
e\ can I use your pen?	Certainly
Notice	I am sorry, l need it to my self.
Please can come at the end of the sentences , also can be omitted as in (d) , (e).	

Unit Four

Travel agencies

Travel agency is a private office , which provides with travel and tourism related services to the public , such as , air lines cars rentals, hotel, and railways.it also has a department which make travel arrangements for business travellers and some of travel agencies specialized in commercial and business travel only. The modern travel agency first appeared in the second half of 19th century . Thomas cook established a number of agencies in association with midland railway . The first ever tour was carrying 500 pasengers-12 miles journey for 1 shilling.

Travel agencies became more common with thy development of commercial aviation ,in 1920.

Travel agency's   main function is to act as an agent. Selling travel products and service to the people. Travel agencies bought the tickets of airline having what is called commission .That means air lines company provide tickets to the agency with a discounted price . Travel agency also organize the tour trips for the tourists, in addition to provide them with all facilities like hotels , and cars . Traditionally , travel agencies, sources of income was the commissions paid for booking of car rental , air lines , hotel railways, sightseeing tours, tour operation, etc. Commission is different depending on the type of service.

Travel agents in order to protect themselves and their activities, they join to insurance office. There are a number of organization and association

which travel agencies must join to . They are international offices that protect their members.

Some prepositions and their uses

1-study the sentences and explain the meanings of the prepositions in each group

1- In

(a) He lives in port Sudan	Port Sudan / Khartoum / city
(b) She was born in 1992	1992/2000/2001/date
(c) I work in a farm	A farm / a factory etc place
(d) The pen was in the desk	Desk / Boket / bag / location
(e) We watch T.V in the evening	Evening / morning / afternoon terms of day

2- On

a- The computer is on the table
b- I don't go to work on Friday
c- In the past people travelled on foot , camels and on horses.

3- At

a- He will depart at 5 o'clock pm .
b- The plane may take off at midnight.
c- He studied at Sudan University.

4- by

(a) the letter was Witten by Ahmed
(b) John went to Khartoum by plane
(c) Take your steps one by one.

5-With

(d) He live with a friend.
(e) She spoke with a joy.

6-Of

(a) Khartoum is the capital of Sudan .
(b) The furniture some time made of wood.
(c) Please , may you slow down the speed of the car?

At the travel agency

Adarob wants to visit his mother in Sudan . He is an engineer in London . He goes to travel agency. Read, the dialogue then change the

 role.

Adarob :-   Hi, I'd like to check on a flight.

Travel agent:-   Sure, What is your destination?

Adarob :-   Khartoum , Sudan.

T.A :-   Is this one – way or round Trip?

Adarob:-   Round Trip.

T.A :-   When would you like to depart?

Adarob:-   January 12th , returning on January26th.

T.A :-   Okay , One moment please……….Do

                                             You have an airline preference?

Adarob:-   No, Any airline will be fine.

                                             I'm not picky.

T.A :-   And what class would you like?

                                             Economy, business class, or first class?

Adarob:-   Economy , please.

T.A :-   Ok , well There is a flight on the morning of the

                                             12th returning on the afternoon of the 26th.The

                                             cheapest we have is $2000.

Adarob:-   Oh , I was hoping to find something

cheaper. My dates are flexible.

Can you find a cheaper?

T.A :-   let me check . Just a moment ……….

There is a flight on the 10th , the

returning on the 25th , for $1700

Adarob:-   That is much better .

T.A :-   But you have to change planes twice – one

in Manchester and again in Dubai . And

there is three – hours layover in Dubai.

Adarob:-   Hmmm ….. Is that the best you can do?

T.A :-   I am afraid so . If you'd like , I can

reserve a seat now , and you don, t

need to pay right now .

Adarob:-   That would be great .

T.A :-   I just need your full name and passport

number.

Adarob:-   Here you are.

T.A :-   O key , one moment ….. Alright ! it is

reserved . If you decide you wont to

purchase the ticket , you need to

confirm before the end of the month.

Adarob:-   Great , you have been so helpful.   Thank you .

Useful Vocabulary

Destination –   where you want to go .

One – way –   a ticket that only includes a flight to a place not back .

Two – way   a ticket that includes the flight to place and back .

Depart   leaving a place .

Return   coming back to a place .

Picky :-   hard to make happy .

Class:-   different level of services.

Economy class:-   The cheapest class of tickets.

Business class:-   Nicer than economy includes Movies and better food.

First class:-   The best class of tickets .

Layover :-   The time you spend an airport waiting for your next
flight .

Confirm:-   To decide and purchase the ticket.

Writing activity

Using the same way and changing the role write your own dialogue.

Asking Questions

1- Yes / no question and short answers

(a) Do you like tea ?	Yes , I do	No , I don't
(b) Did sue call ?	Yes , she did	No, she didn't
(c) Have you met Ali ?	Yes , I have	No , I haven't
(d) Is it raining?	Yes , it is	No, I t isn't
(e) Will Rob be her?	Yes , he will	No, he won't,

1- In formation question is the question that asks for information by using a question words

Where – when –why –who –whom –what –which – whose – how?

(g) Question word	(f) Helping verb Subject main verb (post of sentence)
	(a) Does Ann Live in Montreal?
(b) Where	(b) Does Ann Live ? Is sarra studying at the literary ?
(c) Where	Is sarra studying?
(f) When	(e)Will you graduate next year ? Will you graduate?
(h)Whom	(g)Did They see Jack? Did They see?
	a, c, e, g are short questions b , d , f , h are information questions

Question tag

Study these sentences

(a) I can buy this car	can't I ?
(b) She is a student	isn't she ?
(c) He was a great man	wasn't he ?
(d) They are inside the house	aren't they ?
(e) She studies very hard	doesn't she ?
(f) We arrived so late	didn't we?
(g) You sleep early	don't you ?
1- What are the underlined verb in (a) (b) (c) (d) (e) (f) (g) called?	
2- What are the questions at the end of the sentences?	
(a) I cannot buy this car	can I ?
(b) She is not a student	is she ?
(c) He was not a great	was he ?
(d) They are not in the room	are they ?
(e) She does not stuely hard	does she ?
(f) We did not arrive early	did we ?
(g) You don't sleep late	do you ?