AN APPROACH TO THE DESIGN AND IMPLEMENTATION OF ESP COURSES
FOR THE PERSONNEL OF THE SULTAN OF OMAN'S ARMED FORCES

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INTRODUCTION

This dissertation makes an attempt to address an identified problem, namely, 'the lack of English for specific purposes' in the nature of courses provided in the Sultan of Oman's Armed Forces English Language School.

The dissertation study will tackle the problem by proposing the introduction and implementation of ESP (English for Specific Purposes) courses in the target school. Specifically, the proposal will exemplify the courses with the design of an ESP course for a homogenous sub-group of the target learners. This exemplification will function as, and connotively illustrate, the principles through which the proposed approach to the identified problem may be realised.

On the basis of this proposal, a number of issues will be presented and these will be dealt with:

1. Identification and analysis of the problem with reference to the target situation and learners' needs for learning the language;

2. Review of the relevant literature on the topic of ESP and other associated ideas, relating what is feasible to my own professional context;

3. Proposals for coping with the problem in the form of reviewing some feasible solutions and showing how they may be incorporated into the present system. In this section, I will also highlight the general principles of course organisation and design on the basic grounds that course design is the perceived solution to get round the problem.
iv exemplification of course design for solution using a typical illustration of designing a course for a homogeneous sub-group of target learners. This will include a brief description of target group, needs analysis, a profile of syllabus, and sample activities and materials.

v Course implementation which will take into account the methodological principles, aids and equipment, constraints and solutions.

vi Finally, I will show how the exemplified course design may be evaluated.

Prior to our presentation and discussion of the proposal, we need to familiarise ourselves with the background of the target context for which the proposal is made, taking into account factors such as type of institution, type of existing courses, type of learners, and attitudes to learning English.
CHAPTER ONE
BACKGROUND CONTEXT

1.1 Institution
The Sultan Armed Forces (SAF) English Language School (ELS) is an English language training institution that came into the services in 1983. The school is run, as are all other educational institutions within SAF, by the Sultan of Oman's Air Force, but it is attended by personnel from the various different sectors of the Armed Forces and the Ministry of Defence.

The school was established in order to meet the needs of the Armed Forces personnel for learning English which has an important role in their occupational and professional engagements, and which provides the facilitation for professional training both locally and abroad.

Consistently, the school accommodates about four hundred students, throughout the year, who are distributed among eighteen classrooms at an average classroom size of twenty students.

The school has a reasonable supply of modern teaching/learning equipment and materials, sufficient resources and administrative facilities that play an important part in making language teaching and learning more manageable and, indeed, more enjoyable.
The organisation of the school, its staff and other liaison agents may be summarised in the chart in Figure One.

1.2 Existing Courses
The SAF English Language School provides general English Language courses which are categorised into three levels (Standards): Standard Three (for absolute beginners), Standard Two (for pre-intermediates) and Standard One (for intermediates). Each of the courses lasts for a duration of three months. In the case of failure or incapability, learners are required to repeat either the whole course or part of it, depending on the degree of incompetence to cope with a current course, or proceed to a higher standard.

In general terms, the aims of the presently provided courses, as I personally feel, can be expressed as:
(a) to provide the participants with the basics in general English, giving attention to each of the four traditional skills (i.e. listening, speaking, reading and writing) with more emphasis, assumingly, on the oral communication;

(b) to develop the students' fluency and confidence in using day-to-day English with native speakers and other speakers of the language;
Figure One: Organisational Chart of Target School

EXTERNAL AGENCIES

Military Police  Fire Officers
Security Officers  Welfare Officers
SOLF^1 Training Officer  SAAF^2 Training Officer
SON^3 Training Officer  Medical Officer
External Examiners

Station Accounts Flight
School OC
2nd in Command
School Adjutant

--- NON TEACHING STAFF ---

School Warrant Officer
Flight Flight Sergeant
Flight Sergeant
Chief Clerk
Clerical/Secretarial Staff
Cleaning Staff

--- TEACHING STAFF ---

STD I  STD II  STD III

Teaching Staff
Supplementary Teaching Staff

1. Sultan of Oman's Land Forces
2. Sultan of Oman's Air Force
3. Sultan of Oman's Navy
(c) to familiarise the students with the English language system (i.e. syntax, lexics and phonology) and linguistic organisation of English, so as to arm them with both semantical and lexical knowledge of the language. This, supposedly, will help the students in future job-related training undertaken through the instruction of English, and, as well, will help to make their conversations with the target speakers, working in the target situation, more comprehensible and intelligible.

These general aims are not drawn from official policies of language teaching in the target situation, but are as understood from personal experience in the teaching situation and, indeed, as conveyed in the nature of the courses provided.

1.3 Learners
The learners under consideration are adults aged between eighteen (18) and thirty five (35), and are all military personnel serving in the Sultan of Oman's Armed Forces and the different branches of the Ministry of Defence. The majority of the students are males but it so happens that some of the course members are females (Civilians). The learners share similar social and cultural backgrounds, but have different occupational and educational backgrounds. That is to say, the students' exposure to systematic education vary on the grounds that some left school at earlier stages than others. For example, some
students left within or after the Preparatory education (that is three years after the six years of Primary education) whereas others, particularly nowadays, completed their Secondary education. On the other hand, the students have different jobs and professional expertise, as they come from different places of work (i.e. SOLF, SOAF, and SON). The majority of the students are assigned to certain jobs, (e.g. vehicle mechanics/technicians, armourers, telephonists, clerks, firemen, etc.) and appointments (e.g. PT instructors, chief clerks, adjutants etc.). Some, however, are still under training, and their jobs and specifications are not yet defined.

The students also have different ranks (i.e. Civilians (occasionally), Private soldiers, Airmen/Airwomen/Sailors, Non-commissioned Officers, and Commissioned Officers).

However, the students' level of English, at the time of entry, varies from one to another (i.e. some have no command of English, some possess poor command, and others have little). This is related to certain variables, such as educational experience, recentness of leaving school, aptitudes and, therefore performance in mastering the language in previous language learning experiences. Therefore, the students are distributed among the three different Standards, indicated before, according to their respective levels which are graded by a placement assessment at the time of embarkation.
1.4 Attitudes to Language Learning

As Richterich, R. and J-L Chancerel (1987:81) point out, an attitude may be defined both from the "cognitive and the affective point of view". That is, from the cognitive point of view, an attitude is the "organisation of knowledge relating to one or more subjects. From the affective point of view, it is a "person's pre-disposition by some subject of knowledge". They go on to say that "attitudes can be displayed by adherence to or rejection of opinions manifested in relation to a given subject" (ibid:81).

In an attempt to relate the preceding definition of the psychological domain of attitudes with the nature of attitudes to the learning of English in my situation, we may say that the students' attitudes to learning English vary from one to another. This is perhaps related to the different affective and personality factors of the students. That is, the students may have different attitudes to the target community and people who speak the target language, and this is perhaps due to the students' individual perceptions of their own culture, social values and religion as being different from those embraced by the community of the target language. They may indeed resent learning a foreign language in general; they may see it as fruitless or impractical. Loveday (1982) indicates that there is a "degree of social distance perceived to exist by the learners between themselves and the target
community" (cf:28). This, somehow, has the implication that, aside from the individual attitudes of the learners, there are also the attitudes of the learner's community, which, indeed, has an influence on the formulation of the students' attitudes to FL learning. Loveday says: "If the target community is dominated or subdominated by the learners' community in a political, cultural or technical way, then the learners are not likely to be interested in learning the target community's language" (op cit). This does not mean that the case in my situation is such, but it is a general psychological phenomenon that has a bearing in FL learning.

In addition, there is a greater influence from the students' parents whether to encourage or discourage their children from learning the target language. Thus, the nature of the parents' attitude to the target language will have an impact on the students' willingness or otherwise to learn English.

Parents' worries about their children learning English, or, indeed any other language, may be related to the general belief that their boys/girls will be preoccupied by the learning of the foreign language and this, in turn, may result in doubts that the children will have total competence in their L1. Or, as Loveday says, parents "wish to maintain their L1 as a symbol of their ethnic heritage" (op cit:31).
However, what has been presented above can be applicable to any community in which English, or any other language, has the status of a foreign language and its uses are restricted to certain contexts and for certain purposes. Specifically, the attitudes to learning English in my own target situation (i.e. in and within the community of the Armed Forces) is somewhat different from that at the level of the whole nation. In other words, the majority, if not all, of the target learners are generally felt to have positive attitudes to the learning of English. Comparatively, they are, therefore, more motivated than the ordinary learners in the national system of education. The principle motives that prompt the learners are thought to reside in the two distinct forms of motivation suggested by Stern, H. G. (1983:377), cited by Gardner and Lambert (1972:132). First, an "instrumental" motive, "reflecting the practical advantage of learning a language", and, second, the "integrative" motive "reflecting a sincere and personal interest in the people and the culture" (with emphasis on preserving their own cultural patterns).

These two different forms of motivation will be given further consideration in Chapter 2 (see 2.2.3).
CHAPTER TWO

IDENTIFICATION AND ANALYSIS OF THE PROBLEM

In identifying and analysing the problem from the right perspective we first need to examine the present situation (i.e., the existing programmes under instruction) and evaluate its overall efficiency with reference to certain perceived shortcomings. Consequently, we will then look at what is perceived to be the prospective situation.

2.1 Present Situation

As has been indicated before, the present programmes under instruction in the target school are characteristically restricted to the provision of general language courses. These courses have certain 'qualities' as well as 'lacks' which can be summarised below.

2.1.1 Qualities

The existing courses:
1. help to develop the students' general repertoire in using the language. This is catered for through conducting learning activities that involve the students in mastering the basics in general English (e.g. simple general lexical items, simple grammatical rules and language structures) with attention given to each of the
four traditional skills (i.e. listening, speaking, reading and writing).

2. develop students' accuracy in producing correct language forms and in using comprehensible utterances. This emphasis on the systemic knowledge of language (accuracy and correctness) is given in the belief that it will build up the students' confidence when they come to the production stage of the language.

3. make an attempt to match the students' level of English. This will help to sort the students out into homogeneous groups that may be needed when undertaking subsequent English Language training.

2.1.2 Deficiencies

In general terms, the courses:

1. Do not equip the students with the English they need for their occupational/operational engagements (these two areas will be looked at in succeeding sections). This lack resides in two areas as the two terms 'occupational' and 'operational' suggest. The former (occupational) refers to the fact that the existing courses do not provide the specific language for the learners who need it, both to help them function more effectively in their assigned jobs and to prepare them for undergoing 'in-service' professional training. The latter (operational) refers to the need for specific language that facilitates the learners' needs to pursue communications with and understand communications of speakers of the language in
the target working environment with due attention to the military terms and vocabulary.

2. The courses do not prepare the learners, particularly those who are required to undertake 'pre-experience' job-related training. To put it another way, there are learners who, after their general English training (i.e. the courses presently provided) will be required to attend job-related training abroad (e.g. UK or America) where English is the medium of instruction, or in local technical training institutions where English is used or has importance in the instruction of the course.

2.2 Prospective Situation

In the light of the above, the proposal to be made here is based on the assumption that the learners under consideration would generally benefit more, and their needs for learning English will be better catered for if they were introduced to English programmes specially designed to equip them for professional/operational purposes, as highlighted above.

The proposal to introduce ESP programmes in the target school does not, by any means, give the implication that the presently provided English programmes need to be omitted from the present on-going system, so as to be replaced by the newly proposed specific English courses.
Certainly, it would be unthinkable to have such an orientation. That is to say, providing specific English courses without prior mastery of the basic grounding in general English would be impractical. General English is an essential pre-requisite in establishing some sort of foundation for undertaking what I propose to be 'follow up' specific English courses. In other words, our learners need to have mastered certain linguistic knowledge about the target language, have learned and understood certain grammatical and lexical rules of the language, have developed their confidence in producing it correctly and intelligibly, and indeed have acquired and practised the skills of using the language for communicative purposes in both written and spoken forms.

Without such pre-knowledge of the linguistic features of the target language, the learners will, if not perform well, be able, at least, to undertake specific English courses.

Specifically, the target learners in my own situation, as already stated, have different levels of English and so they need to be, as far as possible, brought into more homogeneous levels through teaching them the basics of the language. Thereby, preliminary general English exposure will also play an important part in the process of sorting out the students into homogeneous groups, that have close levels and similar interests, in an attempt to provide
them with subsequent courses specially designed to meet their specific different needs.

In brief, the proposed specific-English courses will function as supplementary or additional programmes (and not as a substitute for the programme currently in operation) whose primary aim is to cater for the learners' specific defined needs of both learners as individuals or groups, and the target situation (the issue of needs will be examined in the coming sections).

We perhaps now need to give a rationale for proposing the introduction of specific-English courses in the target school. This will be handled through considering a number of primary factors, namely the role and use of English in the target situation, the needs of the learners and the issue of motivation.

2.2.1 Role and Uses of English Language
It can be inferred from what has been presented above that English language plays a key role in the target situation day-to-day contacts (face-to-face contact and indirect contact, i.e. telephones, radio-telephone, telex, letters, etc.) with speakers of the language in the Sultan's Armed Forces and Ministry of Defence. This is partly due to the current dependence on expatriate expertise and technical supervision in which English serves the purpose, as suggested earlier, both of communicating and
maintaining understanding when having mutual contacts with the target speakers for professional and/or social purposes.

However, the use of English in my situation may be described in two terms, using Kennedy's Classification of Language Use (Kennedy, C. 1989:36-49).

**A English as a foreign language (EFL)**

According to Kennedy, the learner of English as a foreign language is defined as "a non-native English speaker who studies English in an environment where the dominant population speaks a language other than English ...". He goes on to suggest three uses around the term 'foreign' in EFL. Two of these are related to my target situation. That is, the language is used between:

(a) two non-native English speakers who speak different primary languages (e.g. local personnel (Omanis) and, for instance, with an Indian or Pakistani colleague at work).
(b) One native and one non-native speaker of English (e.g. a British supervisor with a local trainee technician, for instance).

Characteristically, the use of the term 'EFL' is generally related to the status of English in the country's educational system and in the country as a whole where English serves little communicative function for the students in their systematic schooling and perhaps after
they leave school. That is, as Kennedy, quoted before, says, the "communicative use is limited and may focus on literature and high culture and the use of English for any purpose outside the classroom is minimal and of short duration" (ibid:39).

Certainly, teaching English as a foreign language in the government's systematic education is no more than a subject, as other academic subjects contained in the national curriculum. Thus, very few people, other than those involved in the teaching of English, use the language on a regular long term basis. In the school environment, particularly at the primary level, pupils do not perceive a clear purpose for learning English nor do they have a clearly recognised opportunity to use it. In return, pupils have to learn the language as a compulsory component of the school curriculum which has been determined by a higher authority.

That having been said, learners in the SAF English Language School are somewhat different; they seem to be willing and attracted to learning the language. This, perhaps, is associated with the different situation in which they are engaged, that is, the majority of our students, if not all, have an interest in learning English which is consciously or subconsciously derived from a preset purpose that resides in two main areas, namely, 'professional development prospects' and 'social contact'.
For example, to help them develop their profession or win a scholarship to an English-medium country, or interact socially with the target speaker on topics of interest, or indeed use the language when travelling abroad, since English has become a language of wider communication. These concepts do not exist in the minds of the pupils in the local education schools, especially at the early levels.

B English as a language of wider communication (ELWC)

According to Kennedy, English as a language of wider communication is "used in a country where English serves no intranational purpose and is needed only for international communication", as "many people need to use English for scientific, technical and commercial purposes". The use of an ELWC is "characterised by the fact that the register range in English is often limited and formal and the lexical and topical repertoire is narrow. Furthermore, the skills to be sued are also limited" (op cit:38).

Specifically, ELWC plays an important role in the ongoing process of modernising the Armed Forces and bringing the Armed Forces personnel up to a substantial contemporary standard of scientific and technological training that will enable them to operate the best modern hardware. Thus, it is perhaps this ELWC that we should be talking about in my own target context in the Armed Forces and MoD communities. That is, English, by definition of use, in
the SAF situation does not exactly function in the limitations set out by the uses in the EFL context as described above. To put it another way, English has an active and wider range of usability in and within the Armed Forces/MoD community, as opposed to its limited use at the level of the nation, which is comparatively characterised under EFL uses.

2.2.2 Needs for learning English

I do not intend to provide a theoretical analysis of the term 'needs' and what it involves here, but to look briefly at the reasons for learning English as derived from the needs of the target situation, i.e. asking ourselves the very question 'WHY do our learners need to learn English?'

With reference to what has been said about the role of English and its range of functions in the target situation, we can now summarise the 'need' for learning English, referring to what is suggested by Kennedy, quoted before, to be the role of the LWC in the process of modernisation.

The target situation needs English for:

(a) accessibility to technological information;
(b) operating modern technology;
(c) training professionals outside the country;
(d) participation in international conventions;
(e) hosting experts from other countries (ibid 49); and
(f) accessing communication and maintaining understanding
with expatriate experts/supervisors/training facilitation officers.

Each of the areas above represents a need to learn English, and conveys a reason for treating this need specially and differently. Harmer, J. (1983:1-2) says "... people learn languages for a variety of different reasons", and suggests a number of reasons for which people need to learn English. In particular, two of these reasons are related to my situation and can be used as umbrella terms to describe the general needs for learning English. Firstly, 'ESP' (English for Specific Purposes) and, secondly, 'advancement'. The former refers to the fact, mentioned earlier, that the target learners have different jobs and specialities for many of which English is needed, both for job requirements (i.e. for occupational purposes) and for training facilitation (i.e. for gaining access to higher education and further professional training). The different various technical and/or technological trades and specialities in the target situation for which participants need English may be summarised in the diagram at Figure 2.

The latter (advancement) has the implication that, as Harmer points out, "some people want to study English (or any other language) because they think it offers, in some
OUTLINE OF WORK OF TRADE GROUPS WITHIN SAF

1. ENGINEERING TRADE GROUPS

- Air/Marine Engineering Trades
  - Aircraft/Marine Engineer
  - Weapon Engineer
- Air/Marine Electronic Engineering Trades
  - Electronic-Engineer/technician/Mechanic
  - Air Communication
  - Radar Flight System
- Ground Electronic Engineering Trades
  - Electronic technician
  - Airfield/Air Defence/telecom
- General Engineering Trades
  - Electrical Mechanical (EME)

2. SECURITY

- SOAF Regiment
- SOAF Firemen
- SOAF Police
Figure Two: Outline of Work of Trade Groups within SAF

The information for drawing the chart above was gathered from various leaflets obtained from the RAF, RN and the Army Recruiting Offices.
general way, a chance for advancement in their daily lives" (op cit). For example, a soldier serving in the Infantry Regiment may have little or no communicative need to learn English, but he may be willing to learn English because he sees it as a means of offering a chance if, for one reason or another, he is, or wants to be, transferred to work in the Signals Regiment (SR) where English serves certain communications. He will, therefore, have a desire to study English because he thinks his success in learning a trade through English in the SR will contribute to his advancement in his career, and indeed this may also offer him a further chance to undergo further training abroad or locally where English has importance. In fact, this is taking us into the third factor in the need for providing specific English programmes, namely motivation and success in language learning.

2.2.3 Motivation and success in language learning

Teachers of English, like ourselves, whose mother tongue is completely different in script, some phonemes, discourse and organisation and, indeed, in its socio-cultural dimensions, have reasonable grounds to think that the motivation of the learners is perhaps the single most influential factor a student brings to the classroom.

According to Harmer, J. (1983) motivation is "some kind of internal device that encourages somebody to pursue a course of action" (ibid:3).
In our earlier attempt to define attitudes, we indicated the importance of the emotional factors of the learner and cited the relationship between the cognitive and affective aspects of the learner. Hutchinson and Walters (1987) suggest:

"... The cognitive theory tells us that the learners will learn when they actively think about what they are learning. But this cognitive factor presupposes the affective factor of motivation. Before learners can actively think about something they must want to think about it. The emotional reaction to the learning experience is the essential foundation for the initiation of the cognitive process. How the learning is perceived by the learner will affect what learning, if any, will take place."

(cf 47)

This close relationship between the cognitive and affective aspects of learning affects the way learners view learning, particularly the learning of a language which is an emotional experience, and have therefore a vital contribution to the success or otherwise of a language learning experience.

Learning a language is, in itself, dictated by a perceived goal (that is, something we wish to achieve) and if this goal is, or is made by someone, sufficiently attractive we will be strongly motivated to devote time and effort in order to accomplish that goal. This brings us to a matter which has been one of the most influential elements in the rise and development of ESP programmes - motivation and language learning.
It has been suggested that the motivation to reach a certain pre-set goal through the learning of a foreign language (English in our case) can be characterised in two forms:

(a) 'Integrative': the learner with such motivation has an internal desire to integrate or rather assimilate into the target language community. This internal motive may be generated, for example, as Harmer suggests, by a personal "desire to know as much as possible about the culture of the target language community" (ibid:48). In other words, it is an "internally generated want rather than an externally imposed need" (Hutchinson and Walters; cf:48).

Learners in the target situation who have this integrative orientation are, perhaps, motivated by a short or long term wish to assimilate or perhaps keep contact with the target community based on a personal perceived goal or goals which may be expressed in the following examples:

I am studying English because:

(i) I think it will better help me to communicate and understand the communication of British people or other speakers of the language with whom I work.
(ii) I think it will help me to socially, and perhaps professionally, interact and, therefore, transact with the target people in order to survive in the target community when undergoing training in, or indeed visiting, the target community.
(b) 'Instrumental' motivation is, however, the 'reflection of an external need' (Hutchinson and Walters; cf:48). The learner sees the target language as an instrument to be used in achieving his needs. The need may derive from various resources: the need to further one's education in the target community; the need to read texts and manuals in the target language for work or study; the need to better function in one's job through knowing the language. So, this form of motivation is, unlike the one previously demonstrated, generated by an external factor which is not exactly an internal wish (although this does not imply that it cannot be) but rather an instrumental need. This can be expressed in the following examples.

I study English because:

(i) I think it will one day be useful in getting a different or better job.

(ii) I hope it will afford me the opportunity to win a scholarship in the target community.

However, the question now is not, merely, 'how to make our learners motivated?' but rather, and more importantly, the question of: 'What motivates our learners? and What do we, as teachers, do to help them sustain their motivation?' The answer to the former (how?) is, in fact, related to another type of motivation, that is, as cited by Harmer, the "intrinsic motivation" which is
concerned with what takes place inside the classroom. This has the implication that the teacher has an important role in creating and, therefore, assuring such motivation. That is, aside from the 'physical conditions' of the learning environment, the teacher - his encouraging personality, his use of interesting and involving methodology, his conduction of activities tuned at the right level of challenge, and indeed his selection of materials that are of interest and relevance to the needs of the students - all these are classroom factors that have strong contributions to the creation and assurance of intrinsic motivation.

However, the fundamental question remains in the latter (i.e. WHAT?) which has close conjunction with the assurance of extrinsic motivation, which is our central point in this question about motivation. Put it another way, it is perhaps agreeable to suggest that as far as intrinsic motivation is concerned it can be created and, therefore, generated, but intrinsic motivation on its own is not enough: learners NEED to be extrinsically motivated. This has to be fulfilled through the provision of specialised English courses, i.e. programmes of ESP orientation that will satisfy, or rather meet, the learners' specific instrumental needs in learning the language, that will give them a stimulus for learning English, which will take them beyond the long irrelevant, haul of general-purpose English courses. The provision of
professional/occupational specific English is, certainly, not the responsibility of individual teachers; its initiation, planning and implementation lies with all parties concerned taking part in its instruction.

2.2.4 Summary of the chapter
This chapter has made an attempt to look briefly at the existing situation that is felt to constitute a problem (i.e. lack of professional/occupational register in the English courses currently instructed) with reference to its strengths (qualities) and weaknesses (lacks). The chapter, then, has focussed attention on the prospective situation, (i.e. the need for introducing courses of ESP orientation) giving a rational viewpoint for the proposed situation by considering factors that are thought to make up the demands for providing ESP courses. Those factors are:
(a) role of English in the target situation: in considering this factor, we have made a general comment on the instrumental key roles English plays in the target situation giving examples of the specific contexts in which it is used.
(b) needs for learning English: although this factor, somehow, overlaps with the former, the main point suggested here is that learners' need to learn English is, in the first place, converged on the area of ESP, giving examples such as those for occupational purposes, for professional training and/or higher education.
(b) motivation and success in language learning: here we have made the implication that our learners come to the classroom with motivation to learn English, but (although we have not stated this) then their motivation begins to decline, and they come to lose interest in learning the language that is approached in the same systemic and traditional way which, for the majority of them, was a cause of failure in their previous learning experience. As a result, we have then suggested giving our courses specific relevance to the target needs.

A final point that is worth making is that the chapter has not explored some other rational factors for the need for ESP courses which are, if not more important, just as important as the three factors reviewed above. Nonetheless, the other factors in mind - the worldwide continuing demands for ESP, and the question of what is different or special about ESP courses from those of general, or rather 'normal' English orientation - will be looked at in Chapter Three.
CHAPTER THREE

ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES - REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This chapter is aimed at exploring some of the relevant ideas and practices in the area of teaching English for specific purposes. It will, however, be out of the scope of this dissertation to go into a thorough and deep discussion, since what has been written on ESP is vast and profound. Nonetheless, the chapter will consider a number of issues, namely definitions of ESP (these would be arrived at through contrasting ESP with the concept of general English), demands for ESP and some important features of ESP programmes.

3.1 What is 'ESP'?

As a preliminary, perhaps we need to arrive at a workable definition of ESP asking ourselves the question 'What is ESP?' But, rather than giving a straightforward answer, we would prefer to make a gradual approach in an attempt to clearly understand it. This approach is based on the model set out by D. J. Carver in his paper entitled "Some propositions about ESP" (in the ESP Journal Volume 2: pp.131-137, 1983).

Carver makes a very clear approach in trying to understand what distinguishes ESP. He arouses our attention by
asking the question 'What is contrasted with ESP?' He suggests three types of English teaching which contrasts with ESP, namely 'TENOR' (Teaching English for No Obvious Reason), 'Common Core English' and 'General English'. It is not our concern in this dissertation to explore the challenge of the first two types of English teaching. Our central concern, however, is the third type (General English), since our proposals are oriented towards making a shift from, merely, the teaching of General English to a more ESP orientation.

3.1.1 General English v. ESP

This term, as Carver says, is sometimes used to refer to 'a type of English which is context-independent, or which is good for nearly all contexts'. Throughout his attempt to look at what is contrasted with ESP, Carver advocates the use of teaching strategies that make our teaching more communicative and, therefore, purposeful. For example, through the 'creation of simulated purposes' (e.g. role playing, simulations and game playing) and the 'direction of learners' attention to real purposes' (e.g. reading foreign newspapers, listening to foreign broadcasts, reading labels on foreign products etc.) Also the adoption of approaches that 'maximise communicative ability rather than linguistic competence' (cf 131).

Referring to what we have said earlier about the term 'general English', we find that, as Carver points out, it
'allows or even encourages the teacher to take a non-specific and therefore non-communicative approach'. He concludes by saying

"... in reality there is no such thing as English without a purpose, or English for General Purposes, and that a teaching methodology which includes purpose and specificity in its approach is thereby the richer. In this sense, all English teaching is teaching of ESP."

(op cit. 132)

Certainly, all our English Language teaching is, or should be a teaching of English for specified purposes, particularly in EFL situations. Widdowson, H. G. (1983) says "all language courses are designed to a specification and in this sense can all be said to be directed at specific purposes" (op cit. 12).

However, we here need to look at what distinguishes 'purpose' and 'specificity' both in English for General Purposes and English for Specific Purposes. Widdowson, quoted above, raises this point when he says that an "ESP course is in one sense really no more specific in its purposes than is one designed for General Purpose in English teaching (GPE ...). What distinguishes them is the way in which the purpose is defined and the manner of its implementation" (cf.5).

Widdowson points out that 'purpose' in ESP refers to the "eventual practical use to which the language will be put in achieving occupational and academic aims". It is, in
other words, a "training concept: having established as precisely as possible what learners need language for, one then designs a course which converges on that need" (op cit.6). Thus, in ESP programmes, it is this precise establishment of what our learners need language for once they have finished their course that we ought to account for in our course design. This consideration of the ultimate application of the target language is what provides our learners with the 'specific' 'eventual' uses to which they will put the language after the end of the course.

'Purpose' in GPE, as Widdowson puts it, "has to be conceived in educational terms, ... which will achieve a potential for later practical use". Furthermore, in ESP courses, learners are provided with a 'restricted competence' to enable them to cope with certain clearly defined tasks. In GPE, however, learners are provided with a 'general capacity' to enable them to cope with undefined eventualities in the future (ibid.6).

Widdowson draws a distinction between the two terms 'competence' and 'capacity' in the context of language teaching and learning. He states that 'competence' refers to "the speaker's knowledge of the sentences of his language and constitutes a generative device for the production and reception of correct linguistic forms". He adds that the 'communicative competence' (i.e. the 'social
rules which determine the appropriate use of linguistic forms') is said to include the 'linguistic competence' (i.e. 'the speaker's knowledge of the language system').

'Capacity', on the other hand, is the speaker's "ability to create meaning by exploring the potential inherent in the language for continual modification in response to change" (cf.7-8).

However this distinction seems to create a confusion in Widdowson's use of the two different terms; 'competence' (in ESP) and 'capacity' (in EGP). I would prefer to use the term 'competence' and give it two different categorisations. That is to say, in ESP 'competence' is restricted and specified in that the eventual language skills and uses are clearly selected and defined or at least predicted. For example, a pilot needs the skills of communicating with and understanding the communications of the air traffic controller and so his language uses and communication skills are strictly specified according to air traffic communications. This restricted job-related language use is, of course, irrespective of his exposure to social English that supposedly has taken place in earlier stages and/or simultaneously.

In GPE, however, competence is 'general' and unpredictable in the sense that eventual language uses are unknown so as to be clearly defined or at least unpredictable so as to
be specified (as opposed to the eventualities of ESP where the future application of the target language is definable).

A clear example to distinguish the two is said to be the teaching of English at the Primary/secondary education, as opposed to its teaching at the tertiary education or English training institutes which are, or should be, treated differently. That is, language teaching at the tertiary level "must be different" because of the "relative failure of language learning at the secondary level of education. Learners go through 6 years (7-800 hrs) of education in English and still enter tertiary education only able to communicate in a rudimentary fashion". Thereby

"... more of the same (as at the secondary) will only lead to much the same level of achievement (or lack of achievement); that whatever the cause of the sickness (the inability to communicate in English or understand the communication of others), the same medicine (more grammar, more vocabulary, more reading passages) will leave the patient (the learner) unrestored, unenlivened and just as uncommunicative."

(Mountford, Allan; British Council [unpublished papers])

To return to our first question about what distinguishes 'purpose' in ESP (or connotively, the teaching of English at tertiary education), we will find that it is the notion of needs analysis that makes 'purpose' in ESP programmes special or different from those in GPE. Mountford, A. quoted above, makes the point that the 'purpose' of
"teaching at the tertiary level must be related in some precise way to the need to use English, and that the need to use English must be devised from a description of the English that learners need to use ..." (cf.4). This by no means has the implication that needs analysis is characteristically exclusive to programmes of ESP, and that it does not, or is not necessary to, exist in programmes of GPE. This is certainly not the point; all our teaching of English is, and should be, need-oriented, and that a teaching programme that is not geared to the needs of the target participants is operating in abstract and, therefore, is not worth the cost. (One may be filled with wonder and questions; but whose needs does or should a course account for? This is another painful argument that will be examined in subsequent sections.)

However, what is special or different about the process of needs analysis in ESP contexts is that it focusses on the target communication needs, or, as Mountford puts it, on the "target communicative behaviour", that is, the acts of communication through the learnt/acquired language, the learners will perform after the course they have followed. This "target communicative behaviour" is another area in which the 'different' and 'special' attribute of ESP resides, i.e. it is not possible or rather accessible in the primary/secondary education to make an attempt to define what the learners will do with the language after the completion of a course. This is because one is not
able to tell or at least predict what learners will need English for, or whether they need English at all, when they reach the stage of tertiary/higher education, or when they embark on new professions.

Comparatively, the target learners in my own situation are all employees who are already trained and/or under training and/or will be trained in certain professions. Thus, their language needs and, therefore, their 'target communicative behaviour' are definable or at least predictable and, in this sense, the provided English programmes should be oriented towards those defined needs and towards the fulfilment of the known or predicted target communicative performances.

In sum, Carver's point, made at the beginning, that says 'all English is teaching of ESP', is only applicable in terms of methodology and language use. That is to say, our methodology in all contexts of ELT, whatever orientation it may follow, is or should be made for a purpose clearly defined. Similarly, all language uses that we present for our learners are or should be given in purposeful contexts. So, purpose in its existence and specificity is, without question, shared both in ESP and GPE programmes. And it is misleading, for example, to talk about ESP methodology, since "there are no particular teaching techniques that characterise teaching in an ESP situation that are unique and cannot be used in other non-ESP situations" (Mountford, cf.10).
The fundamental difference, which should be our central concern, between ESP and GPE programmes then lies in the content of the target language and the context in which it is carried. That is, as Mountford says,

"The language studied in the ESP course is technical or scientific language, academic in register, or, more precisely, the English of Agriculture, Engineering, Medicine, etc. which is, it is asserted, inherently different from 'normal' English."

Part of the language content is the language skills which, in ESP programmes, are "viewed in a different and more selective way, e.g. reading skills but not writing skills" (op cit). In other words, there is a "different prioritising of skills" in the learning process of ESP courses. This prioritisation in what kind of skills should be selected or emphasised, and indeed the decision on what kind of language content should be taught are both derived from and determined by the analysis of the 'target communicative behaviour', mentioned earlier.

3.1.2 Definitions

To have a clearer understanding of the underlying theory in ESP, it is perhaps worth attempting a definition, or rather definitions, as cited by various writers in the field of ELT.

Mountford, quoted above, attempts to define ESP from a 'prevailing context' point of view which has a fresh reference to what we previously said about the disting-
ished 'content' and 'context' in ESP courses. He states:

"... ESP is language teaching of any kind placed in relation to its context - the process of education or training, i.e. ESP should be viewed as a prevailing context; misleading to talk about ESP materials or ESP methodologies. But useful to talk about ESP programmes, not in isolation but in relation to other programmes of education or training." (p.2)

Wilkins, D. A. (1985) offers this:

"Special purpose language courses are those in which the learners' objectives are unusually well defined. Very commonly they are professional language courses in the sense that the learner needs the language for the more efficient exercise of his occupation. There may be considerable limitations in the language skills needed (reading, writing, speaking and listening) and in the topics the learner will need to be able to handle and the functions he will have to perform".

He adds:

"... what the learner needs in these circumstances is often a restricted kind of language in that the vocabulary has a rather specialised character and the grammar is either somewhat limited in its range or has unusual distribution." (p.73)

Munby, J. (1978) defines ESP courses as:

"... those where the syllabus and materials are determined in all essentials by the prior analysis of the communicative needs of the learner, rather than by non learner centred criteria such as the teacher's or institution's pre-determined preference for General English or for treating English as part of a general education." (p.2)

Widdowson, quoted earlier, noted that "ESP is essentially a training operation which seeks to provide learners with restricted competence to cope with certain clearly defined tasks. These tasks constitute the specific purposes
which the ESP course is designed to meet". He adds that in ESP "... the prospect of actual language use is brought immediately in the foreground and into the focus so that it serves both the immediate objective [pedagogic intention of a particular course of study to be achieved within the period of that course and in principle measurable by some assessment device at the end of the course] and the eventual aim of learning" [the purpose to which learning will be put after the end of the course]. (op cit.7-8)

Hutchinson and Waters, quoted before, point out that "ESP is not a particular kind of language or methodology nor does it consist of a particular type of teaching material". He goes on to say: it is "an approach to language teaching which is directed by specific and apparent reasons for learning" (op cit.19).

Pauline Robinson (1980), quoting Mackay (1976:73), offers this definition of ESP:

"... by ESP is meant 'the teaching of English, not as an end in itself but as an essential means to a clearly identifiable goal'." She follows on to give a further explanation by, as we already explored, contrasting ESP with GPE (General Purpose English). She notes:

"... the general with which we are contrasting the specific of ESP is that of general, education-for-life, cultures and literature oriented language course, in which language itself is the subject matter and the purpose of the course. The student of ESP, however, is learning English en route to the acquisition of some quite different body of knowledge or set of skills" (op cit.6)
A more explicit and comprehensive definition of what is implied by ESP is, perhaps, the one offered by Peter Strevens (1980). This can be seen as a blanket perspective that covers the, somewhat, similar points conveyed in the definitions above. Strevens says:

"ESP entails the provision of English Language instruction:

(i) devised to meet the learners' particular needs;
(ii) related in themes and topics to designated occupations or areas of study;
(iii) selective (i.e. 'not general') as to language content;
(iv) when indicated restricted as to the language 'skills' included" (op cit.109)

To sum up this section, it is perhaps worth giving a brief summary of what characterises ESP in relation to what is thought to be its 'inequivalent', i.e. General Purpose English (GPE)
Summary of ESP v GPE

ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSE - ESP

Specification: of objectives equivalent to aims (defined tasks)

Training: development of restricted competence

Prospect of actual language use: is brought immediately into the foreground and focus

Purpose: eventual practical use of language aimed at achieving occupational and/or academic aims

Needs analysis: focuses on target communicative behaviour

Language content: Selective i.e. not general

Language skills: restricted and selected on priority basis

GENERAL PURPOSE ENGLISH - GPE

Specification: of objectives leads to aims (undefined tasks/eventualities)

Education: development of general (capacity) /competence

Prospect of language use: is vague and distant

Purpose: education-for-life to achieve a potential for later practical use

Needs analysis: faces strong unpredictability in defining target communicative behaviour

Language content: general

Language skills: usually given balance weight, i.e. teaching the four basic skills (bias may exist)
3.2 Why ESP?

The history of ESP is a very recent one and its rise and origin was generated by the industrial and scientific revolution that flourished after the end of the Second World War in 1945.

"What probably happened in the late 60s and early 70s to give ESP such a life was a demand explosion, generated by events in the OPEC world, where could be found . . . proliferating technological needs, an insufficiency of existing English-learning facilities and a degree of dependence on expatriate expertise"

(Coffey (1984) in his article 'State of the Art'
ESP - English for specific purposes)

The implication we get from the above statement is that the world urgently demanded an international language. English since then became the language for international communication, partly because most of the modern science and technology was and continues to be written and practised in English. Thus, the importance of English as an international language continues as more and more people are wanting or being required to learn English, since it became difficult for those with no knowledge of the language to gain access to much scientific and technical literature.

The result was to adopt a different approach to the teaching of English - English for specific purposes - so as to satisfy the particular needs of the learners and take them beyond the teaching of literature-oriented courses.
Kennedy et al (1984) point out that the demand for this (i.e. ESP) "has often come from groups of learners with no need for 'general' English provided by a typical secondary school English course. Some learners, indeed, have already completed a 'general' course and wish to learn English for particular reasons connected with their studies or their jobs". He continues to suggest that an indication of why the demand for ESP courses has developed so rapidly is because "teachers were faced with learners, often adults, who already had some knowledge of English acquired in a school situation, and who now, in contrast to their former school learning experience, were well aware of their purpose in learning the language". And that a "gap in materials had to be filled for these specific purpose learners" (op cit.2).

Kennedy's point above converges on a similar point made by Hutchinson and Walters, already quoted. They state:

"New developments in educational psychology also contributed to the rise of ESP, by emphasising the central importance of the learners and their attitudes to learning .... Learners were seen to have different needs and interests, which would have an important influence on their motivation to learn and therefore on the effectiveness of their learning. This lent support to the development of courses in which 'relevance' to the learners' needs and interests was paramount" (op cit.8)

The second factor which greatly influenced the demand for ESP programmes was the different view given about language. Recent language theories (as opposed to the old theories that viewed language as a set of grammatical
structures) view language as a set of communication functions. That is, as noted by Kennedy, "We use language to communicate with people and to cause things to be done, to describe and explain events, to qualify and hypothesise" (op cit.3). Thus, specialised courses had to be provided to allow learners to use the language on a communicative and functional basis which is defined by an analysis of the linguistic features of their specialist area of work or study. That is, as cited by Hutchinson and Waters, "tell me what you need English for and I will tell you the English that you need' became the guiding principle of ESP" (op cit.8).

The third factor that led to the growing demand for ESP courses is that of cost in terms of time, manpower and materials. Mountford, already quoted, notes:

"... the very real pressures of time, man (or woman) power and materials and scarce sources require ELT practitioners to be as cost-effective as possible in devising new ways of teaching English that can be seen as relevant and effective in relation to new aims" (op cit.4).

In sum, the widespread growing demand for ESP was, and is still, generated by three important factors: the continuing demand for English to suit particular needs, the move towards viewing language as a means of communication rather than a system, and the pressure of time, manpower and resources.
3.3 Types of ESP

There are two main divisions that help to distinguish the many branches of ESP:

1. **English for Occupational Purposes - EOP**

   EOP is taught in situations in which learners need to use English as part of their job/work or profession. Examples of EOP students would be, for instance, a nurse or a doctor in Casualty, or a mechanical technician. The former needs English to talk to and understand patients and other English-speaking staff, and the latter needs English to read technical manuals.

   The content of the English programmes will, however, vary depending on whether the learners are learning the language before (pre-experience), during (simultaneous), or after (post-experience) the time they are being trained in their job or profession.

2. **English for Academic/Access Purposes - EAP**

   EAP is taught generally in situations where students need English in their studies. An example of an EAP situation would be an overseas student attending a course in Britain, or any other English-speaking country. He or she will need to learn the study skills in English (listening to lectures, taking notes, reading textbooks, writing essays) which will play a major part in the students' English course. An EAP course may be pre-study (pre-sessional) or in-study (in-sessional) depending on
whether the learner is doing it before or during the study
or his/her specialised subject.

These types of ESP, with their sub-divisions, may be
illustrated in the diagram at Figure 3.

![Diagram of ESP types]

**Figure 3 Types of ESP** (from Kennedy et al 1989, cited by
Strevens 1977)

The diagram above illustrates the two main divisions of
ESP, i.e. EOP and EAP, but there are a number of offshoots
of these two main branches. The one that interests us
most is 'English for Science and Technology'.
EST is suggested to fall under EAP, although it has an interrelation both with EAP and EOP. This can be expressed in the following diagram.

```
ESP
  |
  |
EAP    EOP
  |
  |
-------------------------------EST-------------------------------
```

Swales, J. (1985) suggests three ways of subcategorising EST.

1. On 'educational level' basis, i.e. according to institutional setting. Thus we have different courses differently designed for:-
   A  Schools (especially technical, secondary and trade schools)
   B  Technical Colleges
   C  Polytechnics and Universities - Undergraduate level
   D  Polytechnics and Universities - Postgraduate level
   E  Polytechnics and Universities - research and academic staff
   F  Specialised Institutions (technical translation, patents, research administration etc.)

2. On 'subject-matter' basis. This can be expressed in diagram below.
3. In terms of 'activity-types' that our students of science and technology are required to engage in. Instances of such activities might include:

A   Reading and making notes on textbooks
B   Reading scientific articles
C   Following and taking notes on lectures
D   Carrying out and writing up experiments
E   Answering examination questions
F   Writing technical reports
G   Taking part in seminars and tutorials
H   Using technical manuals and other instructional literature
CHAPTER FOUR

PROPOSED SOLUTION TO THE PROBLEM

This chapter will explore two main issues. First, outlining the proposed solution to the already identified and analysed problem. This will give particular reference to the type of ESP courses proposed with due attention to the nature of content the course will enhance and a time scale showing the options of whereabout in the current system the courses may be integrated. Second, looking at the general principles of course organisation and design. This will include: a theoretical discussion on the issue of needs analysis, an overview of the basis of syllabus design which will carefully look at the question of establishing aims and objectives in syllabus design and the question of selecting the type and shape of syllabus.

4.1 Proposals for Solution

Throughout the preceding chapters we made the implications that the introduction, design and implementation of ESP courses constitute a feasible long-term solution to get round the problem of non-professional English. Thus, it is time that we looked at the type of courses that are thought to be needed.
4.1.1 Type of ESP courses needed
These are thought to fall into three main categories:
(a) English for Operational Purposes
(b) English for Academic/Access Purposes - EAP
(c) English for Occupational Purposes - EOP
A summary of these proposed courses and their subcomponents may be illustrated in the diagram at Figure Four - Type of ESP Courses needed below.

1. English for Operational Purposes
   ────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────
   Communication English
     ┌──────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────
     │ Listening & Understanding (Aural)
     │   ┌───────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────
     │   │ Military terms/ Vocabulary
     │   │   ┌──────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────
     │   │   │ Speaking (Oral)

2. English for Academic/Access Purposes - EAP
   (Training/Education)
     ┌──────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────
     │ Pre-sessional Courses
     │   ┌───────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────
     │   │ Social/Survival English
     │   │   ┌──────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────
     │   │   │ English related to subject-specialism
     │   │   │       ┌────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────
     │   │   │       │ Study Skills

3. English for Occupational Purposes - EOP
   ────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────
   Pre-experience
     ┌────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────
     │ Post-experience
4.1.1.1.1 English for Operational Purposes

This type of course is intended for personnel within the Armed Forces who work or have regular contact with English-speaking people. English for personnel under this category is seen to be an essential prerequisite for maintaining understanding and accessing communication with speakers of English, for example, native or non-native speakers serving in the community of defence and the Armed Forces, as supervisors, instructors, co-ordinators, etc. or as work colleagues.

The nature of content for such a course will, therefore, need to be focussed on English as a means of communication between two types of speakers: (a) between native (British/American personnel) and non-native (Omani personnel) speakers, and (b) between non-native speakers (i.e. other expatriates and Omani personnel). Emphasis will be primarily given to aural/oral communication skills, that is, taking part in conversations about professional and social matters of interest, and giving appropriate responses in such 'interactions' and/or 'transactions'. The distinction between these two purposes of communication is coined by Anderson and Lynch (1988:5), quoting Brown and Yule (1983a). They suggest that 'interactional talk' is used in "speech that is primarily social" whereas in 'transactional' communication the main purpose is to achieve a successful transfer or exchange of information."
To put it another way, the learners undergoing such a course will be taught the kind of English they will need in order to socially 'interact' (e.g. greeting, thanking, offering, inviting, leavetaking, etc.) and professionally 'transact' (this will include learning useful military vocabulary, office and secretarial language, writing, memos and simple formal letters, etc.) Therefore it should be noted that an Operational purpose course will be specially designed to provide English for communication and not the subject of communications, i.e. a course on linguistic communication and not a course on communications as a speciality.

A personally known example of an Operational English course, entitled 'Communications English', has recently been written specifically for the Sultan of Oman's Navy (SON) by the Air Service Training (AST) English Language School. This provokes us to say that as far as SON is concerned, the course mentioned above will, perhaps provide Navy personnel with the kind of operational English they need, though the course's approach to language is not very communicative. However, this is not to suggest that it is irrelevant. In fact, it is very much the kind of English course we would advocate, that is, it is very much knowledge-oriented, i.e. teaching knowledge and systems about the Naval life and conventions through English which is indeed very useful
and relevant. (Note that the course is not administered in my target school; it takes place in a Naval base and for the Navy personnel.)

4.1.1.1.2 English for Academic/Access Purposes - EAP

Specifically, this will involve a pre-sessional English language course, i.e. in a situation in which English training is provided prior to a student starting an academic or professional training course. Such a course will exclusively be provided to those required to attend academic or professional study in English medium institutions abroad (e.g. the UK). The primary aim of instituting an EAP course is to arm the target participants with the language and skills they are likely to encounter in their educational/training context abroad.

Rea, P. (1979) in her paper 'Study Skills in English' (in Practical Papers in English Language Education) suggests a number of different approaches to the design of pre-sessional courses. These include:

1. 'Grammar-based'
2. 'British Life and Institution', i.e. social survival English
3. 'Single-Subject Specialism'
4. 'Skill-Based'
5. Subject-Specialism Groupings
In our approach to such a course design, we will adopt three of the approaches above, namely, (a) 'Social Survival English', (b) 'Subject-Specialism Groupings', and (c) 'Skill-based' i.e. Study Skills.

However, we here need to make it clear that the three adopted approaches above will work integratively to constitute the typical strands of our target course, and they are not to be seen as alternatives from which a selection is made. It will be worthwhile examining those three main strands of our target EAP course.

(a) **Social Survival English:** This will focus on familiarising the participants with the day-to-day life both in the target community and the target institution. For example, learners attending a course in Britain will need to be familiarised with the various aspects of living in Britain. They will need to know the language associated with maintaining a 'successful integration' in the target community and with the target people, particularly the tutors in the target institution. This component will be "designed around topics thematically related to British Life and Institutions" (cf 88).

Typical instances of such themes would be 'introductions', 'identifications', directions, 'purchases', etc. Further examples of the kind of themes which may be integrated into this component are

(b) **Subject-Specialism Groupings:** This does not mean that the target learners will be taught the subject specialism itself, but rather the language that facilitates studying it. Nonetheless, if we retrace our memories to what we have suggested about the various different specialities (in Figure 2) that are thought to entail the possession of English we may infer that the list of the different areas of speciality in the target situation is almost endless. But there are two crucial points that we need to bear in mind. First, the primary aim of this part of the course is to provide the learners with the **basic** and **general** communicative features and linguistic forms related to different disciplines, and certainly not the detailed and complex language features that deal with deep analysis of the subject specialism. For example, the students whose subject-specialism is concerned with a technical trade of some kind will be taught the elementary language that they will need for their technical trades. Instances of such language could be things like names of tools/instruments, geometrical shapes, engines and their components, safety and precautions in workshops, etc. Second, it would be impractical to provide the language related to subject-specialism on an individual needs
basis. Learners need to be grouped on homogeneous grounds, that is examining what they share in common. In other words, learners will be put in specialised topic groups and not rigidly in subject-specific groups. For example, the subject topic of engineering comprises different areas of speciality (e.g. electrical engineering, mechanical engineering, chemical engineering, etc.) and if it was electrical it could be in the context of aircraft, vehicle, equipment, or that of maritime. Thus, to avoid impracticalities, learners may be taught elementary vocabulary and linguistic features in the science of Engineering in general.

Overall, it seems to us that the need to incorporate the aspect of subject-specialism in a pre-sessional course is rather a preference than a necessity without which the course would be inefficient or imperfect. Of course, it would be helpful if the degree of homogeneity is manageable.

(c) **Skill-based:** The focus here is on the skills required for study purpose in higher education and/or at undergraduate levels. The overall aim of having a strand of study skills orientation in our EAP courses is to provide the students with the 'techniques required in a variety of study situations' and to develop the main language skills.
The following examples highlight some of the study skills needed in higher education and/or training.

1. "C"'s for improving reading efficiency
Wallace, M. (1980:Chapter 2) suggests a number of strategies to help students improve their reading efficiency. These may include:
1.1 Establish a 'purpose': for reading before one starts reading a text. This will arouse the students' interest and will, therefore, contribute to better comprehension. A purpose for reading could be 'to get a general idea of what a particular subject is all about', or to study the details of a particular subject, etc.
1.2 building up anticipation through, for example, making use of the title(s) and accompanied illustrations (i.e. pictures, diagrams, etc.)
1.3 surveying a paragraph/text/book This will help to develop the skills of skimming (i.e. distinguishing main ideas from supporting details, rather than reading every word), scanning (i.e. reading in order to find specific pieces of information), reading speed, and the skills of inference (i.e. inferring/deducing unfamiliar meaning from context).
1.4 understanding graphic presentation
1.5 summarising a text
2. Taking notes
2.1 taking notes from a text
2.2 taking notes from a lecture
2.3 using abbreviations
2.4 branching notes

3. Taking part in seminars/tutorials (small group discussions)
3.1 What happens in seminars
3.2 the language of seminars
3.3 kind of topics (e.g. narrative, descriptive)
3.4 seminar practice

4. Writing an essay
4.1 research and using the library
4.2 organisation of an essay
4.3 presentation of an essay

There is a good selection of textbooks that have been specifically written for the purpose of teaching the study skills in English. A sample of proposed textbooks that might prove a useful resource in our EAP courses is given in Appendix A(ii).

4.1.1.1.3 English for Occupational/Vocational Purposes
EOP/EVP
An EOP/EVP course will focus on providing target participants with specific occupational or vocational
English. Learners undertaking such a course may be pre-experience i.e. entering into the occupation or vocation, or they may indeed be in-service learners, i.e. they are already assigned to certain jobs.

Examples of target EOP/EVP courses may be:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English for</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>telephonists</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nurses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>computer programmers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>clerks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>secretaries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>typists</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>suppliers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stewards</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>technical trades</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- mechanics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- technicians</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- electricians</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.1.2 Time scale for proposed courses

Perhaps if we first give an outline of the sequence of the present programmes; from that we will illustrate the possibilities of whereabouts in the present system the proposed courses may be integrated. This may be summarised as follows:

4.1.2.1 Present situation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time scale for present programmes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Course</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orientation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Month</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.1.2.2 Prospective situation

Two options are proposed for each area; the choice for implementation will depend on:

(i) Standard of English on entry (this may be determined by a placement test)

(ii) Availability of qualified staff

(iii) Agreement on timing and length of release by the units by which the students are seconded to training

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Courses</th>
<th>Standard I</th>
<th>Standard II</th>
<th>Standard III</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Orientation</td>
<td>Basic General English</td>
<td></td>
<td>Specific Operational English</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

English for Operational Purposes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Month</th>
<th>0</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>9</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

or

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Course</th>
<th>Standard I</th>
<th>Standard II</th>
<th>Standard III</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Orientation</td>
<td>[Diagram]</td>
<td>Basic General English</td>
<td>Specific Operational English</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Month | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
2. **English for Academic/Access Purposes - EAP**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Course</th>
<th>Standard I</th>
<th>Standard II</th>
<th>Standard III</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Orientation</strong></td>
<td>Basic General English</td>
<td>EAP</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Month</strong></td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

or

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Course</th>
<th>Standard I</th>
<th>Standard II</th>
<th>Standard III</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Orientation</strong></td>
<td>Basic General English</td>
<td>EAP</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Month</strong></td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. **English for Occupational/Vocational Purposes**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Course</th>
<th>Standard I</th>
<th>Standard II</th>
<th>Standard III</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Orientation</strong></td>
<td>Basic General English</td>
<td>ECP/EVP</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Month</strong></td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.2 Principles of Course Organisation and Design

4.2.1 Needs Analysis - A theoretical overview

In this section, the question of needs will be explored. This exploration will consider two fundamental constituents of the process of needs analysis. First, the identification and analysis of needs (i.e. finding out about what the learner needs to know or be able to do in English) and, second, methods of needs identification and analysis (i.e. how do we find out what a learner needs to know or be able to do in English?).

Perhaps before we proceed to the analysis of needs itself, it is worthwhile looking at what is implied by the concept of a 'need'.
For, as Louis Porcher points out:

"Need is not a thing that exists and might be encountered ready-made on the street. It is a thing that is constructed, the centre of conceptual networks and the product of a number of epistemological choices (which are not innocent themselves, of course). This obviously does not mean that, at an empirical level, needs, expectations, demands, etc. do not exist and are not experienced. It simply means that, in order that they may really be taken into account (particularly at an educational level, in the case of language needs), it is essential that a recognition grid', a tool for identifying the empirical, should be developed in advance."

(Richterich, R. & Chancerel, J. L., 1981:86)

In the same connection, Michel Rousson proposes:

"The following provisional definition of need: need could be regarded as the expression of a project (whether or not realistic, whether explicit or implicit) of a social agent individual or collective) vis-a-vis a necessity stemming from the agent's relationship with the social environment. This project may be onerous and conflict with other projects." (ibid:6)

The above does not imply that needs cannot be analysed and, therefore, defined. What is implied is that there is a degree of difficulty in, or rather accessibility to, making an attempt to analyse and define language needs. And that a needs analysis will "consist in collecting, processing and using a certain amount of information which should enable the learner to find his feet vis-a-vis institutions and society" (ibid:6).

Richterich and Chancerel, quoted above, suggest that the information about language needs can be collected at different levels and in relation to different fields. They summarise the essential elements and relationships
in connection with the process of needs identification and analysis in the following diagram (they refer to it as an "approach centred on the learner").

From the points made above, it can be said that needs analysis, then, rests on deploying a process of data collection about different types of information in terms of the 'learner' as the central concern, the 'teaching/learning environment' and the 'utilising insti-tution' (i.e. the target situation in which the eventual use of language will be put).
Richterich's definition of needs is useful in classifying thinking. However, because they relate more specifically to ESP, we will base our assessment of needs on Hutchinson and Waters (1987) and Munby (1978). From Hutchinson and Waters we will adopt the distinction made between 'target needs' and 'learning needs'. From Munby we will adopt some of the ideas in his model - Communicative Needs Processor (CNP). This model provides a detailed profile of learners' needs in terms of communication purposes, communicative setting, the means of communication, language skills, functions and structures.

4.2.1.1 Identification and analysis of needs

1. **Target needs**

It is suggested that target needs should be expressed in terms of (a) 'Necessities'; (b) 'Lacks', and (c) 'Wants'.

1.1 **Necessities**

These are the type of needs that are necessitated by the demands of the target situation, that is, what the learners need to know in order to function effectively in the target situation. In our case, this can be expressed in three contexts of the target situation in which English will be used or needed. That is, in terms of
(1) English for Operational Purposes: the target users (learners) are required by the target situation (certain units in and within the Armed Forces) to learn English because they are working with English-speaking colleagues and because some of the materials connected with their work are written or printed in English.
(2) English for Academic/Access Purposes: the target users (learners) are required by the target situation (the educational or training institution) to learn English so as to effectively study their courses in which English is the medium of instruction, or has an important role.
(3) English for Occupational Purposes: the target users (learners) need to learn English as demanded by the target situation (e.g., the Electrical Mechanical Engineering Corps) so as to be able to use technical manuals and generally function better in their jobs.

The students are required to know the linguistic features - discoursal, functional, structural and lexical - which are commonly used in the target situations illustrated above.

1.2 Lacks
Another aspect of target needs analysis is to find out what the learners know already so that we can decide which of the necessities a learner lacks. In other words, the 'target proficiency' needs to be matched with the 'existing proficiency' of the learners. 'The gap between the two' is what we refer to as 'the learners'
lacks'. For example, the necessity demanded by the target situation in (1) above (the need for Operational English in some of the SAF Units) rests with requiring the learners to be able both to communicate effectively and understand easily English-speaking people at different work sites. The starting point for the development of the language and skill needed for such a necessity will be determined on the basis of what, and how well, the students can do that already. One way of analysing the learners' lack is to distribute a questionnaire, perhaps, after giving them a proficiency test at the beginning of the course. An applied example of such a questionnaire will be given in our exemplification of course design in Chapter Five.

1.3 Wants
This third conception of target needs analysis implies the need to actively involve the learner in the process of needs analysis. That is to say, we have so far considered the students' need for learning the language merely in terms of what is perceived by those involved in decision-making (e.g. the clients; Staff Training Officers, or teachers) to be the needs demanded; 'necessities, recognised and identified'; 'lacks', by the target situation. The student, as a central involved party, should be allowed to have a view as to, not only his needs, but his interests, characteristics and capabilities.
Richterich (1984:29) cited by Hutchinson and Waters (1987:59) points out "... a need does not exist independent of a person. It is people who build their images of their needs on the basis of data relating to themselves and their environment."

Thus, it is here where a controversy arises. Whose needs are we trying to assess, anyway? Are they the needs of the teachers, the needs of the learners, or those of the sponsors/clients (i.e. the training officers, the COs, or the user-institutions)? One may say, the needs of all three parties concerned should be recognised and accounted for, but the constrain rests with the conflicting perceptions and interpretations of needs given by the parties concerned. That is to say, what a student wants to learn or know may indeed differ from what is seen by his sponsors as to what they want him to know or, more precisely, be able to do with the language after completing the course.

Richterich and Chancerel, quoted above, comment:

"Any project may conflict with other projects of the agent in question or of other agents. This fact therefore implies the existence of continual tension, and hence compromises. But any compromise is temporary. It is therefore safe to say that the fulfilment, the satisfaction of a need implies making a choice, renouncing and negotiating." (p.6)

Therefore, it is essential that all parties play a part in giving their views and perceptions of target needs, but, more importantly, they need to reach some kind of
compromise or settlement so that conclusive decisions
 can be made as to what the target needs are.

As for the learners, we need to put greater importance
on their perceived needs and wants so as to be in a
better position to make decisions on what contents,
materials, methods and practices will best match their
characteristics, capabilities and interests. This, in
return, will contribute to better motivation and, thus,
better performances and achievements.

Bowers (1980:67) cited by McDonough (1984) has this to
say about the importance of learners' involvement in
needs analysis:

"...if we accept ... that a student will learn
best what he wants to learn, less well what he
only needs to learn, less well still what he
neither wants nor needs to learn, it is clearly
important to leave room for the learner's own
wishes regarding both goals and processes." (p.36)

In sum, the target needs analysis will aim at answering
the following questions which represent both Munby's
model 'Communicative Needs Processor' (CNP) and Hutchin-
son and Waters' framework for target situation needs
analysis. This can be illustrated in the following chart:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Munby's Model (CNP)</th>
<th>Hutchinson &amp; Waters' framework</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Participant</td>
<td>Who is the learner?</td>
<td>learner/user</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Purposive domain</td>
<td>Why is the language needed?</td>
<td>Communicative goal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Setting</td>
<td>Where will the language be used?</td>
<td>Context of use - physical</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>When will the language be used?</td>
<td>Context of use - frequency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interaction</td>
<td>Who will the learner use the language with?</td>
<td>Context of use - personal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instrumentality</td>
<td>How will the language be used?</td>
<td>Medium/channel/type of text</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dialect</td>
<td></td>
<td>Br/Am English? - RP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communicative event</td>
<td>What will the content area be?</td>
<td>Complexity of language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Context of use (day-to-day activities on the job)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communicative key</td>
<td>How will the language be used?</td>
<td>Manner/style (e.g. formal, friendly, etc.)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2. Learning needs

What we have considered so far in our look at the target needs is the ends or the products of an intended course. That is to say, we have only assessed needs in terms of the 'target communicative behaviour', or the eventual uses to which a learner will be required to put the language, as demanded by the target situation, at the end of the course.

However, these ends or eventual language uses are not maintained spontaneously. Before a user of a language is able to put it into action he or she has to undergo certain processes in which he or she is exposed to language items, skills and strategies he or she will need in order to use the language efficiently. Thus, it is this process of how people learn a language an how people learn to do what they do with a language that we indeed need to find out about.

Hutchinson (1987:61) says:

"Analysing what people do tells us little, if anything, about how they learnt to do it. We should be concerned less with knowing or doing and more with learning. It is naive to base a course design simply on the target objectives. The needs potential and constraints of the learning situation must also be taken into account if we are going to have any useful analysis of learners' needs."

In the light of the above, the targets cannot be reached satisfactorily if the needs of the learning situation are not carefully accounted for. To achieve this we
need to base our teaching on the relevance and purpose for which the learners are learning the language. Our materials should be carefully selected in that they should be interesting and at the level and with the learners' needs in mind. It is also a known fact that learners learn best if they are motivated to learn. Thus, by basing our teaching on the learners' needs, making the tasks/activities reflect their target situation and making them fulfilling, enjoyable, involving, manageable, generative and at the level and to the purpose of their course, motivation will be enhanced.

In brief, analysing the learning needs will help us to answer the following important questions:

Who are the learners (apart from their identity)?
- What do they know already about English?
- What are their interests?

What is the students' attitude to learning English/the course?
- Willing and motivated; or
- Resentful

How do the students learn? (with reference to their learning background)
- What methodology will appeal to them?
- What tasks/activities will be used, that they will find interesting and enjoyable?
What resources will be available/needed?
- teaching materials (published/authentic)
- learning equipment

Where will learning/teaching take place?
- physical conditions
- psychosocial setting

When will learning/teaching take place?
- part-time
- full time

4.2.1.2 Methods of gathering information for needs analysis

There are a number of ways in which information can be gathered. These may be summarised as:

1. Questionnaires
2. Interviews
3. Observation
4. Proficiency test
5. Data collection, e.g. gathering texts

Specifically, the methods that we will use in our target needs analysis will be looked at in Chapter Five.

Having looked at the analysis and identification of language needs, we then have to consider other factors in course design which, in fact, follow and derive from the needs analysis. Those factors will be concerned with establishing the aims and objectives of the course, determining the components of a syllabus, and selecting the type and shape of a syllabus. It is worthwhile to very briefly look at these factors which have bearing on course design.
4.2.2 Establish aims and objectives

The information gathered from the various sources in the process of needs analysis — the clients/sponsors, teachers, learners data, target working environment and user institution — will help us to identify the aims of the course (i.e. the purposes to which language will be put after the course) and, thereby, the course objectives (i.e. the specification of the learning goals in relation to the established aims/ends). It is not our intention to go into a theoretical discussion trying to single out the notional distinction between aims and objectives, and the many shapes and forms of them. However, here we may say that aims are basically used to refer to the general goals that constitute the target ends or outcomes of a particular course. Objectives, on the other hand, are more specific as to language content, activities and tasks. Nunan, D. (1988) points out that objectives:

"... can be useful, not only to guide the selection of structures, functions, notions, tasks, and so on, but also to provide a sharper focus for teachers, to give learners a clear idea of what they can expect from a language programme, to help in developing the means of assessment and evaluation." (p.61)

4.2.3 Components of a syllabus

Dubin, F. et al (1986:42) indicate that a syllabus will involve three main components, which, indeed, have interrelationship with the target specified objectives: language content, process or means, and products or outcomes.
(a) Language content: This implies asking some key questions about the target language content such as:

1. What elements, items, units or themes of language content should be selected for inclusion in the syllabus?

2. In what order or sequence should the elements be presented in the syllabus?

3. What are the criteria for deciding on the order of elements in the syllabus?

(b) Process or means: This refers to asking questions about the learning/teaching process, i.e.

1. How should language be presented to facilitate the acquisition process?

2. What should be the role of the teacher, and learners in the learning process?

3. What type of activities and tasks in which learners are engaged? And how will the materials contribute to the process of language learning in the classroom.

(c) Products or outcomes: Course designers need to ask product/outcome questions such as:

1. What knowledge is the learner expected to attain by the end of the course? What understandings based on analyses of structures and lexis will learners have as an outcome of the course?

2. What specific language skills do learners need in their immediate future, or in their professional lives? How will these skills be presented in the syllabus?

3. What techniques of evaluation or examination in the target language will be used to assess course outcomes?

4.2.4 Selecting the type and shape of syllabus

4.2.4.1 Types of syllabuses

Dubin et al, quoted above, suggest five major syllabus types (op cit:37-38):

1. Structural-grammatical syllabus: this is a linguistic syllabus that is centred around items such as
tenses, articles, singular/plural, complementation, adverbial forms, etc.

2. Semantical-notional syllabus: this type of syllabus places the semantic unit in the centre of syllabus content. Such a syllabus is organised around themes relating to broad areas of meaning such as space, time, obligation, etc.

3. Functional syllabus: this is developed alongside the notional syllabus with favourable attempts to combine the two. A functional syllabus focusses on the functions and the purposes for which language is used. Thus, it is concerned with elements such as invitations, suggestions, apologies, refusals, static descriptions, dynamic descriptions, etc.

4. Situational syllabus: this is focussed on thematical and situational uses of the language. Appropriate topics are selected to talk, read or write about in order to learn the target language.

5. Communicative syllabus: this fifth type of syllabus derives its principles from the contemporary approach to language teaching - the communicative approach. The basis for a communicative syllabus is not the view of language as separate units (i.e. structures, notions, functions or situations) but rather as a continuous integrated process of communication and negotiation in the target language. In other words, a communicative approach to syllabus design is a reflection of the communicative needs of the learners as the basis of
which linguistic, thematic or functional elements are selected.

For our own syllabus design we would, certainly, be flexible in considering the various approaches highlighted above. That is to say, we will adopt a variety of different approaches and try to combine them in an eclectic manner in order to bring about positive acquisition of the target language. So, we will base our syllabus on thematic elements (situational /thematical) from which language functions (functional) are identified and, thus, language structures (structural) have to be specified through which the target functions may be realised.

However, we would put our emphasis on the principles of the communicative approach in which the role of the teacher is to facilitate the learners' participation in the communicative exchanges, and in which the focus is on the skills of communication and negotiation rather than on the structural and grammatical features of the language.

4.2.4.2 Shape of the syllabus

By this we mean the format in which the selected content is organised so that it is best suited to the fulfilment of our course objectives. Dubin, F. et al suggest five possible ways of organising the syllabus content specification:
1. The linear format;
2. The modular format;
3. The cyclical format;
4. The matrix format; and
5. The story-line format.

It is not our concern here to go on to explain what each of these is. Our own target format of syllabus organisation will, however, be based on two of the shapes suggested above, namely, the **modular** and the **cyclical** types of format. The former (modular) implies, as pointed out by Dubin et al, the integration of thematic or situational language content with a skills orientation regarding the course outcomes. We feel that the modular format will best suit our target course(s) in that it offers a degree of flexibility in the materials to be used and this will indeed facilitate our characterisation of the wide range of topics in the field of technical trades, for example. As Dubin et al suggest, the concept of the latter (cyclical) is that a "new subject matter should not be introduced once in a syllabus and then dropped; rather it should be reintroduced in different manifestations at various times in the course" (p.55). This back reference to what has been introduced at earlier stages in the course will help to reinforce the acquisition of the language and better develop the students' ability to communicate.

In sum, it seems rational to adopt the two formats so that the target language content is specified on
modular/thematic bases and then these themes are organised in a cyclical progression.
CHAPTER FIVE

EXEMPLIFICATION OF COURSE DESIGN FOR SOLUTION

The primary function of this chapter is to exemplify an ESP or, more precisely, an EOP course design for a homogenous sub-group of target learners. However, it should be appreciated that the exemplification of course design cannot be covered in full in this dissertation study. Further, the central point conveyed in this proposal is not providing a design of an ESP course, but rather an approach to the design (and implementation) of ESP courses from which the principles will be illustrated.

Nonetheless, the chapter will make an attempt to give an overview of course design. This will include: a brief description of target learners, needs analysis, a profile of syllabus and sample activities and materials.

5.1 Brief Description of Target Learners
The target learners are all military personnel serving in the Sultan of Oman's Armed Forces. They come from different places of work within the Armed Forces community. The learners are all males aged between eighteen and twenty five. They have a similar cultural background and, it must be assumed, similar educational background (i.e. they have finished their secondary
education). In addition to their previous English language learning experience, the learners have undergone a six-month course of general English instruction and, in this sense, their level of English is that of intermediate. The learners are all prospective technician apprentices, that is, they are going to be trained in various technical trades and, thus, they will need English both for their occupations as technicians and for their training to be qualified technicians. The learners will be trained in a local technical institution, namely the Trade Training Institute, located at Sæeb Air Force base. Course duration is three months - five hours per day.

5.2 Needs Analysis
5.2.1 Methods of gathering information
5.2.1.1 Questionnaire (1): this will be used to identify what is referred to above as 'necessities'. Three different interest-groups will be required to complete the questionnaire:
(a) the clients/sponsors - those are the learners' Commanding Officers and/or the Staff Officers in charge of training
(b) the user-institution - this will include the target people with whom the language will be used. Those are thought to be expatriate experts or supervisors in the technical trades workshops (occupational), and trade specialists in the training establishment (trade training)
(c) the course instructors - those are the course teachers who will be responsible for the instruction of the course, and who will, perhaps, need to work in collaboration with the trades specialists.

Here are some examples of the questions that will be asked in the proposed questionnaire:

**A Sample Questionnaire**

WHERE APPLICABLE PLEASE TICK THUS ✓ IN THE BOX PROVIDED

WHERE A BROKEN LINE IS PROVIDED, PLEASE WRITE ANSWER

1. For what jobs or purposes is the student being trained? ..................................................

2. Why do the students require English?
Because:

- The main language of the job is English
- They are working with English-speaking colleagues
- Some/most/all of the written or printed materials connected with the job are in English
- They have to convey information or instructions from English language sources to non-English-speaking workers
- Some/most/all correspondence has to be conducted in English
- They have to follow training courses conducted in English

OTHER (please specify) ........................................

..............................................................
3. What is the target working environment like?
   Noisy   Quiet   Office   Workshop   Working alone   in groups

4. By means of the numbers 1 (most), 2, 3, and 4 (least) indicate the priority skills focus
   Listening   Speaking   Reading   Writing

5. Are there any of the skills above which you believe have no relevance to the students' needs?
   YES [ ]   NO [ ]

6. If so, which?
   Listening   Speaking   Reading   Writing

7. What channel of communication is required?
   Face-to-face   Telephone   Print
8. What anticipated functions does the learner need to perform in English after completing the course? (Please give examples)

9. What is the target complexity of language items and structures?
   Very simple
   Complex
   Highly complex

5.2.1.1 Questionnaire (2): This will involve two different questionnaires specially designed to find out the learners' lacks and, thus, their needs and wants
(i) A sample questionnaire aimed at identifying the learners' 'lacks' is given below. The learners will be required to complete the questionnaire after they have sat a proficiency test (see 5.2.1.3), though the students' lacks will be formatively scrutinised throughout the course.
Please tick the column which you believe describes your present ability in each skill

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English Language Skills</th>
<th>Good</th>
<th>Average</th>
<th>Weak</th>
<th>Poor</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Following oral instruction</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Answering questions orally</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asking questions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Describing people/places/objects</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Giving/asking for information</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Giving directions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading aloud of texts</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocabulary range and accuracy</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writing sentences</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writing paragraphs</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dictation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spelling</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Letter writing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Report writing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Memoranda writing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Note-taking from a text</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Note-taking from an oral presentation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Adapted from Abraham, D. (1987:6)
(ii) A sample questionnaire aimed at identifying the learners' 'needs' and 'wants' is illustrated below

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>Perhaps</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(a) My main aim is to pass exams</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(b) I need English mainly to advance in my career</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(c) I need English mainly to read technical manuals</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(d) I need English mainly for face-to-face conversations</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(e) I need English mainly for reading instructions, letters, reports, etc.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(f) I need English mainly for writing letters, reports, memos, etc.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(g) I need English mainly for telephone conversations</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.2.1.3 Proficiency Test: This will be used to help us identify the students' existing proficiency in English. The information obtained, combined with the information obtained from the questionnaire in 5.2.1.2(i), will be utilised in determining the target level of the course and in choosing teaching materials that will converge on that level. The test will also help to put the students into groups of similar abilities so as to allow them to work at their own pace and level. An example of a proficiency test that may be used to assess the students' general
proficiency is (suggested by Geoffrey Land (1983)) the 'ELLA' (English Language Level Assessment).

5.2.1.4 Interview: the people concerned as indicated in 5.2.1.1(1). This will be carried out after they have completed the questionnaire so as to verify information obtained and provide opportunities for clarification.

5.2.1.5 Work-site observation: work site visits may be organised to help us identify the practical language uses of technician apprentices (both in training and workshops) in terms of communicative events, language functions and structures, styles and frequencies of use.

During our observation we should, as far as possible, tape record and note actual on-the-job transactions as well as obtain samples of authentic written materials (memos, forms, technical papers, report sheets, etc.) actually used on the job.

However, we should be as unobtrusive as possible. We do not necessarily need to follow the staff around; we simply need to note what they are doing and the context in which they are doing it. Obviously, we will need to have more than one observation visit, but we should limit ourselves to as few as possible.
5.2.2 Profile of Communication Needs

The profile of needs, obviously, cannot be specified until the needs analysis data is complete. However, it is anticipated that it will take the form which follows (this profile of needs is adapted from Munby's model which we cited earlier).

0.1 IDENTITY (as highlighted in 5.1)

0.2 LANGUAGE
0.2.1 Mother tongue: Arabic
0.2.2 Target language: English
0.2.3 Present level/command of target language: intermediate

1.0 PURPOSE DOMAIN
1.1 Occupational: pre-experience
1.2 Specific occupation: Military personnel
1.3 Central duties: Technician apprentices
1.4 Other duties: Carrying out military operational duties

2.0 SETTING
2.1 Place of work: Different units in the Armed Forces, specifically in the technical trades workshops and/or training workshops
2.2 Place of course: English Language School (North), Sultan of Oman's Air Force, Ghalla
2.3 Duration: some time in day-to-day trade training and/or work
2.4 Frequency: quite often

3.0 INTERACTION
3.1 Role set
   (a) English-speaking colleague at work
   (b) English-speaking supervisor/instructor at training establishment
3.2 Role set identity
3.2.1 Number: individuals
3.2.2 Age-group: adults
3.2.3 Sex: males
3.2.4 Nationality: mainly British and some other English-speaking nationalities

4.0 INSTRUMENTALITY
4.1 Medium
4.1.1 Spoken: receptive
4.1.2 Spoken: productive
4.1.3 Written: receptive
4.1.4 Written: productive
4.2 Mode
4.2.1 Dialogue spoken to be heard
4.2.2 Monologue spoken to be written
4.2.3 Monologue written to be read
4.2.4 Monologue written to be spoken
4.3 Channel
4.3.1 Face-to-face
4.3.2 Telephone
4.3.3 Print

5.0 DIALECT
5.1 Understand and produce Standard English

6.0 TARGET LEVEL
6.1 Size of utterance/text: fairly large
6.2 Complexity of utterance/text: fairly high

7.0 COMMUNICATIVE EVENTS
7.1 Undertaking workshop tasks including machining, welding, and metal work
7.2 Reading technical manuals and papers
7.3 Producing drawings for electrical and mechanical services
7.4 Investigating and reporting equipments/instruments that have recurrent breakdowns
7.5 Writing reports about malfunctioning machines/instruments
7.6 Finding out faults and making repairs
7.7 Operating and installing machines and electronic instruments
7.8 Knowing and understanding workshop safety instructions
7.9 Taking and understanding measurements
5.3 An Outline of the Syllabus

5.3.1 Course teaching hours
The teaching hours designated for the course can be calculated as follows:

COURSE DURATION:  Three months
DAY:  Five hours per working day
WEEK:  5 x 5 = 25 hours per week
MONTH:  25 x 4 = 100 hours per month
THREE MONTHS:  100 x 3 = 300 hours
TOTAL TEACHING HOURS = 300 hours

5.3.2 Aims
As its overriding concern is to build up communicative competence for trade training and occupational purposes, the syllabus aims to -
1. foster a desire to learn English, and to help learners to meet the challenge of working in a technological environment.
2. develop the learners' competence in processing technical information found in manuals and technical textbooks so that they will approach the reading of technical materials with some confidence both in their occupational duties and their trade training.
3. help the learners to listen with accuracy, fluency and critical discernment and understanding when conversing with the different speakers of the language.
4. help the learners to speak fluent and understandable English confidently when pursuing professional transactions with target speakers.
5. develop the learners' ability to write communicatively about matters related to their professional purposes.
6. promote the learners' command of occupational-specific English through a knowledge of its linguistic features and communicative values.

5.3.3 Objectives

[Some of the skills and subskills stated in the objectives below derive from Bygate, M. (1987) and Grellet, F. (1981)]

It is only for convenience that the objectives which follow are listed under productive (speaking and writing) and receptive (listening and reading). Teachers are encouraged to design activities that will realise the objectives stated.

1. Productive (speaking)

The minimum objectives of the oral work are that by the end of the course learners should be able to -
(a) produce and use the language fluently and intelligibly in professional communicative events with specific ability in demonstrating the oral production skills of:
negotiating meaning

* turn-taking

* using facilitation devices (e.g. simplification of structure, use of ellipsis, use of fillers and hesitation devices, and use of formulaic expressions)
* using compensation devices (e.g. self-correction, re-phrasing, substituting words, false starts, repetition, etc.)
* planning of agenda both in transaction routine (transfer of information), and interaction routines (social interchange)

(b) use the language in -

(i) basic professional transactions with different people in the target situation. This will include:
* initiating, conducting and closing conversations
* making static and dynamic descriptions of objects, events, processes, measurements, locations, purposes and functions
* giving instructions
* making suggestions
* making hypotheses
* giving reasons

(ii) participating in discussions and debates by -
* presenting or challenging a point
* disagreeing politely
* arguing a point clearly
* asking questions
* asking for and giving clarification

(iii) presenting short talks about professional topics, clearly and coherently

(iv) simulating and role-playing; and generally

(d) appreciate the phonological features (i.e. rhythm, stress and intonation), attitude and body language in oral communication
2. **Production (writing)**

The minimum objectives of written work are that learners should be able to -

(a) express themselves informally in the writing of diaries, informal letters, descriptive compositions, etc. related to occupational needs.

(b) express themselves in formal ways as required in a specific occupational/professional context, e.g. writing reports, memos, filling in forms, etc. with attention given to -

* appropriate use of punctuation
* appropriate choice of words and expressions
* sentence construction
* coherence in topic sentences and paragraphing and linking words and phrases
* basic methods of developing a point
* methods of drawing writing to conclusion

3. **Receptive (aural)**

The minimum objectives of the aural work are that learners should be able to -

(a) follow instructions, commands and requests

(b) recognise how speakers are

* introducing a point
* developing a point
* illustrating a point
* challenging a line of thought
* drawing a conclusion

(c) listen and understand oral presentations (e.g. lessons, talks, interviews) by

* listening for main ideas
* listening for specific details
* listening to take notes
(d) follow argument in conversations, small group discussions and debates, so as to take part in them
(e) recognise different dialects and ways people speak

4. **Receptive (reading)**

The minimum objectives of reading are that learners should be able to -

(a) find and interpret the function, in technical manuals/textbooks and papers, of -

* a title
* an index
* chapter and paragraph heading
* footnotes

(b) distinguish

* main points from supporting details
* statements from examples
* facts from opinions
* literal from applied meaning

(c) Skim a text to get the gist of it

(d) Scan a text to extract specific information on a particular topic

(e) infer or deduce meaning and use of unfamiliar words from a context

(f) Summarise text

(g) take notes from a text

(h) recognise and understand the use of reference

(i) read extensively for professional purposes
5.3.4 **Profile of Syllabus Content Specification**

The syllabus is organised on a modular or thematical basis, that is, the language content is selected and organised according to the topics of interest and areas of subject knowledge related to the apprentices' technical trades. From the topics, language functions are identified so that the target language is presented in a communicative style. The relevant topics may be summarised as follows: [The classifications used below are modelled on those presented in Comfort et al (1982)]

5.3.4.1 **An Overview of Topics**

**Weeks 1-3**

1. Tools and instruments
2. Shapes, forms of transport
3. Vehicle components
4. Materials
5. Shapes, rotary systems, electrical circuits

**Weeks 4-6**

1. Rotary systems, drills cameras
2. Cutting tools and machines, vehicle components
3. Manual operations, generators petrol engines
4. Manual controls, rotary systems
5. Valves

**Weeks 7-9**

1. Measuring instruments, cutting machines, joining methods
2. Industrial processes, engines
3. Personal safety, electrical connections, materials protection
4. Electromagnetism, materials, measuring instruments
5. Fault-finding, instruments electrical components

**Weeks 10-12**

1. Joining methods, materials
2. Structural safety, joining methods
3. Industrial processes, electronic components
4. Personal safety, industrial process, fault-finding
5. Thermostatic controls
### 5.3.4.2 Illustration of Content Specification

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topics</th>
<th>Language Functions</th>
<th>Samples of Target Language</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Tools and instruments | STATIC DESCRIPTION  
Classifying                           | The first tool is a wrench.  
The third tool is a chisel.  
A thermometer is an instrument. It is used for measuring temperature. |
| Geometrical shapes, forms of transport | STATIC DESCRIPTION  
Classifying  
Comparing | Triangles are shapes; they have three sides.  
Hexagons are shapes; they have six sides.  
Squares and rectangles have four sides but bikes do not. |
| Vehicle components | STATIC DESCRIPTION  
Classifying  
and comparing | Cars have an engine and a gearbox.  
Some cars have a petrol engine and some have a diesel engine.  
Some car batteries have three cells.  
Cars have a generator: some have a dynamo and some have an alternator. |
| Materials          | STATIC DESCRIPTION  
Classifying  
Comparing (A\&B)  
Making deduction (A:B)  
Giving explanation (A=B) | Aluminium (A1), Water (H2O), Oxygen (O2) and Carbon Dioxide (CO2) are substances.  
Brass is an alloy whereas aluminium is a pure metal.  
Iron is one of the substances in steel. So steel is a ferrous alloy.  
Copper and zinc are pure metals; i.e. they have only one type of atom. |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topics</th>
<th>Language Function</th>
<th>Samples of Target Language</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Geometrical shapes</td>
<td>STATIC DESCRIPTION</td>
<td>The area of a rectangle = length x width.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rotary systems</td>
<td>Expressing measurements</td>
<td>The circle has a radius (r), a diameter (D)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Expressing dimensions</td>
<td>and a circumference (C)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Locating</td>
<td>In figure 4 there are three shapes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Making hypotheses</td>
<td>There are two main types of metal:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>pure metals and alloys.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Making deductions</td>
<td>If the movement of the bottom pulley</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>is anticlockwise, the movement of the top</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>pulley is also anticlockwise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>The height, length and width of the cube</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>in figure 4.1 are 2 cm; therefore the volume is</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>8 cm³.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Geometrical shapes</td>
<td>INSTRUCTION</td>
<td>Calculate the area of AGEF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>electrical circuits</td>
<td>Giving instructions</td>
<td>Find the area of ABHF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Giving instructions with purpose</td>
<td>Add the area of AGEF to the area of GDCB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>To find the resistance in an electrical</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>circuit, divide the voltage by the current</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cutting tools and</td>
<td>STATIC DESCRIPTION</td>
<td>There are different types of chisel for</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>machines, vehicle</td>
<td>Classifying</td>
<td>metalwork.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>components</td>
<td>Making definitions and</td>
<td>The cutting angle in the angle between the upper</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>expressing location</td>
<td>and lower surface of the tool point</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>The lower assembly is known as the knee assembly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Topics</td>
<td>Language Functions</td>
<td>Samples of Target Language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------</td>
<td>------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valves</td>
<td>DYNAMIC DESCRIPTION</td>
<td>Boats on a canal go through locks to move up or down from one level to another.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Expressing a sequence</td>
<td>When water flows out of the tank, the level falls and the ballcock moves down.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industrial processes</td>
<td></td>
<td>Diecasting is a common process in the engineering industry. It is used to produce many</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>engines</td>
<td>DYNAMIC DESCRIPTION</td>
<td>machine components.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Expressing purpose</td>
<td>In a steam engine, the piston is driven backwards and forwards. This type of movement is</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Expressing movement</td>
<td>called linear movement.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Expressing sequence</td>
<td>First the dies are shaped, then the molten metal is poured into the chamber ...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Finally, the dies are separated.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5.4 Samples of Activities and Materials

The kind of activities and materials that will be used in the course instruction should reflect our communicative approach to language teaching/learning, and the active and participative role of the learner in the learning process (as we shall see in the course implementation section).

5.4.1 Activities

Examples of target communicative activities to be deployed are based on the examples suggested by Bygate, M. (1987:67-72), quoted Harmer, J. (1983). First, we shall briefly describe what each of the activities is, then we will relate them to our own target context giving some practical examples.

1. Oral drills: examples of these would be the 'four phase drills' Q-A-Q-A (Question-Answer-Question-Answer), substitution drills, cue-response drills etc. However, it should be emphasised that such drills should be meaningful and realistic, and not based on mechanical repetition.

2. Information-gap activities: Here, one learner is given information which the other learner is not provided with. The other learner's task is to bridge the gap by acquiring the information from the one who has it. The learner who has the information can share it by giving the other learner cues or the other learner will have to elicit the information by asking questions.
3. Personalisation and localisation: The aim of such an activity is to help learners use recently learnt language by making them relate it to their own experiences. In other words, it is a fluency activity, as opposed to accuracy, that takes place in the reproduction stage in the learning process whereby students are allowed to put the language into functional uses to say things that have genuine meaning about themselves.

4. Oral communicative activities: These may include the following types of communicative activities:
   (a) Reaching a consensus: In this activity the students are assigned a task on which they will have to agree with each other through discussion. This will promote free and spontaneous use of the language. Instances of such activities will be based on asking the students to argue a professional dilemma. For example, giving individual views on how a machine/instrument operates and coming to an agreement on that, agreeing on possible ways of finding measurements, etc.
   (b) Relaying instructions: In this activity, a group of students has the necessary information to perform a task. Without showing them the instructions, they have to enable another group or group of learners to perform the same task.
   (c) Communication games: These are based on the principle of the information gap, for example:
       - Describe and draw: one student describes a picture to another student who has to draw it.
- Finding similarities: without looking at each other's pictures, pairs of students have to find as many similarities as possible.
- Describe and arrange: Student A has six pictures in a certain arrangement, and student B has to arrange his six in the same way.

(d) Problem-solving: Here, students in groups are given a problem situation and are asked to discuss how to get round the problem.

(e) Simulation and roleplay: We should put greater importance on such activities, as well as the problem-solving above, so that students are exposed to real-life situations and real professional settings by being asked to simulate and/or roleplay genuine events similar to those they may later experience in their professional life.

Although the activities outlined above appear to be devoted to the development of aural/oral skills, they, however, will not necessarily so be, i.e. the development and practice of the language skills will, as far as possible, be approached integratively. For example, in a group discussion/information gap/problem solving etc. there will be listening and speaking and may indeed be notetaking (i.e. writing) or reading from given notes/instructions etc. Of course, there may be a session in which the focus is on the development of one skill, but realistically there is always an integration between the language skills and it would be inadvisable, nor would it
be practical, to practise one skill in isolation from other skills.

Some practical examples of typical activities that would be conducted in a target classroom are given below.

1. **Oral Drills**
   - Q-A-Q-A drills e.g.
   A Do circles have sides?
   B No, they don't.
   A What do they have then?
   B They have a radius and a diameter.
   A What else do they have?
   B Oh, they also have a circumference.
   - Cue-response drill e.g.
   T Question ... thermometer ... pressure? (nominates Ali)
   Ali Is a thermometer used for measuring pressure?
   T Answer ... Ahmed
   Ahmed No, it is used for measuring temperature etc
   - Substitution drill, e.g.
   T Some cars have a petrol engine
   T Now, diesel
   Ss Some cars have a diesel engine
   ... dynamo
   Ss Some cars have a dynamo
   T Good. Alternator
   Ss Some cars have an alternator etc

2. **Information gap activities**
   An example: students are seated in pairs in which one student is A, and the other is B. They are given the following cards of information and told not to show the information to their partners.
Each student then asks the other for their missing pieces of information and notes it down on their cards using pencils. For example,

S A  What is the width of the rectangle?
S B  1.7 cm (A writes 1.7 cm on his card) ... What is the length of the rectangle?
S A  2.6 cm (B writes 2.6 cm on his card) ... etc.

Instructions: Look at these pictures of a car being assembled and then read the instructions below.
Decide with your partner which instruction goes with which picture and then write down the instruction letter and picture number. For example, if you think instruction A goes with picture 6, write A6. Remember that you listen to your partner's view and ask for reasons or give reasons why you think a particular picture is appropriate.

A  Fitting electrical wiring and lights
B  Assembling and checking gearbox and engine
C  Bolting together engine, transmission and suspension parts and then car body to engine parts
D  Adding seats, fixing carpets, mirrors and other special parts
E  Filling radiator and petrol tank
F  Passing the car through a tunnel for a water test.
   Giving the car a short road test

4. **Relaying instructions** [The material used in the activity if taken from Hutchinson, T. et al (1984:6)]

The students are seated in groups. One group is A and the other B. Group A is given the instructions below written on cards:

Door  Push the door
Flex  Twist the wires
Life jacket  Pull out the cord
Bottle  Twist off the cap
Car engine  Pull off the leads
Test tube  Twist out the cork
Group B is given the following set of cut-out pictures:

![Images of pictures](image)

Group A is asked to give instructions to Group B whose task is to give appropriate responses both by showing the correct pictures that match the instructions given and by demonstrating the correct act for performing what is
conveyed in the instruction. For example, if the instruction was, 'Bottle. Twist off the cap', the group will show the picture of the bottle and demonstrate the act of twisting a cap.

A similar exercise may take the form of matching informal workshop register with formal manual/text register, for example:

Put in = insert
Take out = extract
Turn ... round = rotate
Take ... off = detach

5.4.2 Materials

1. Authentic materials: by authentic materials we mean those which are based on the language as it is used in real-life situations - in other words, materials that depict real language as is used outside the classroom walls. Thus, we propose the use of authentic materials as far as possible, because they will generate interest and motivation in that learners will recognise them to be from the real world or the working environment. This will provide learners with contents and language uses that syllabuses and textbooks are unable to provide.

Examples of authentic materials to be used may include: technical texts taken from magazines, newspapers, brochures, etc., technical documents/workshop manuals may be obtained from technical workshops or technical establishments in the target situation, writing materials (e.g. forms, memos) that may be used in the working environment, on-the-job recorded materials, etc.
2. **Pedagogic materials**

- **Published texts:** these will be based on textbooks that may be used in course instruction. Examples of textbooks that are thought to prove useful resources in the target situation, specifically for the exemplified course (technical apprentices) are given in Appendix B.

- **Published recordings** (the recordings that go with the textbooks adopted)
CHAPTER SIX

COURSE IMPLEMENTATION AND EVALUATION

This chapter will be sub-divided into two main sections.

(1) Course implementation: this section will outline the anticipated constraints for course implementation and the possible solutions; the methodological principles adopted; aids and equipment needed.

(2) Course evaluation: In this final section of our dissertation study we shall demonstrate the methods intended for evaluating the overall efficiency of the target course in relation to the pre-set objectives.

6.1 Course Implementation

6.1.1 Strategies and general constraints in course implementation

Looking at the whole issue presented in this study; proposing the introduction and implementation of ESP courses in the target school, we shall see that characteristically it constitutes an innovation in the existing system. Therefore, it is worth looking at the strategies that facilitate the adoption of an innovation in general. Horvath, B. (1989) cited by Kennedy, C. (1989:59-61)
suggests three different strategies for the management of an innovation. These are:

(1) Rational-empirical: In simple terms, this strategy is based on the reasoning power of human beings; it sees people as rational beings and that a change will be adopted once evidence has been produced to show that it will benefit those interest-groups.

(2) Power-coercive: Changes in this strategy are based on a top-down system; that is, those legitimately in power impose sanctions of some sort which force people to change or act in a certain way.

(3) Normative-re-educative: Underlying this strategy is the idea that an innovation will be accepted if there is a change in attitude and deep-seated beliefs of those concerned. This strategy necessitates working with a problem-solving approach whereby those affected by the change will be involved in making decisions about the degree and manner of change they wish to accept.

To relate this to our own situation, we may say that in terms of the power-coercive strategy, it is exercised in the day-to-day routines of military life and it is, unquestionably, the basis of the hierarchical authority and decision-making. However, in our proposals for the introduction and implementation of ESP courses, we would
advocate the adoption of a problem-solving model beside the existing power-coercive strategy, though these two are not easy to combine. We need to adopt a problem-solving model because, chiefly, we have identified a problem, namely the lack of occupational or professional English in the target school. We take the view that such a problem has to be resolved through an analytical diagnosis of its dimensions whereby the target needs are analysed and clear objectives are defined and, thereafter, solutions are fabricated and then applied.

As regards the adoption of an innovation, Rogers and Shoemaker (1971) cited by Jibrea, Mary (in her dissertation MAELT 1988), suggest some features of innovation which influence the likelihood of adoption. These are (a) communicability, (b) divisibility, (c) complexity, and (d) congruence and compatibility with existing values/practices.

On communicability, reference is made to the explicitness of some innovations to be more fully explained and demonstrated than others. Our proposal clearly falls under this category in that what we are proposing is thought to be experienced and, thereby, realised by the students, teachers, administrators and others concerned. Divisibility implies two main aspects: (i) the extent to which innovation can be tried out on a small scale, limited basis and (ii) the number of people who are
required to be involved in the adoption and maintenance of an innovation. Again, our proposals do not suggest that the various recommended types of occupational/professional English courses all have to be introduced in the short term. On the contrary, the introduction and implementation of proposed courses should be made on a priority basis and on a scale that would meet the demands of the target situation. An innovation can be said to be complex if "(i) it poses greater problems of understanding (ii) requires greater amount of unlearning/re-learning (iii) its implementation requires co-operation from a greater as opposed to a lesser number of people and (iv) it requires more elaborate procedures in its implementation, maintenance and servicing" (op cit). In connection with congruence/compatibility, it is asserted that "if an innovation embodies unfamiliar values and requires a radical re-conceptualisation of teaching approaches, its chances of successful diffusion will be diminished" (op cit.).

As far as our proposals are concerned, we would not anticipate serious problems with regard to the factors of complexity and compatibility, as highlighted above. However, we would propose the provision of opportunities for the various interest-groups to share ideas and experiences so that clear understanding of the objectives and procedures of our proposals is maintained. This may be done through disseminating seminars, debates, news-
letters, etc. in which all those concerned play a part.

What we have done so far is looked at the general underlying theories and constraints that have bearings on the adoption and implementation of some sort of educational innovation. It is important to understand these strategies and general constraints if we are to make our innovation a success.

Now, we shall briefly look at the specific constraints that are likely to be encountered in the target situation, with reference to possible solutions.

6.1.2 **Anticipated constraints in the target situation**

Those constraints are perceived to rest on two main categories:
A Organisational, and B Pedagogical/experiential.

A **Organisational** Here we would anticipate two main constraints.

(i) External: This resides in the problem of withdrawing students or returning them to their respective units for one reason or another. It is very common within the military life and the routines of the Services that students undertaking courses are wanted to return to their units at short notice, for example, for operational exercises, manoeuvres, ceremonies and so on and so forth.
Solution: We cannot give a solution to such a problem but must accept it. Of course, we cannot restrain personnel from attending operational duties. However, those who are subject to withdrawal for a short period of time (e.g. 1-2 weeks) will be given extra work either as homework or additional exercises to carry out in the classroom so that they may be helped to acquire what they have missed and, thus, be in line with the rest of the class.

(ii) Institutional: We are here trying to refer to factors such as resources and materials. As for the target school, the introduction and implementation of ESP courses represent an innovatory potential and, thereby, this will entail the provision of special ESP materials. This may include purchasing new textbooks and other accompanied materials (e.g. recorded materials), specially writing and/or designing specific teaching materials that would satisfy the target objectives of the various proposed courses in the target context. Further, although the school has most of the necessary teaching support equipment, the availability of further equipment may be needed for better learning/teaching. For example, video players/recorders and TV sets and software for using them. The factors of resources and materials will inevitably be encountered and need to be resolved.

Solution: It is anticipated that the necessary resources and materials will not be problematic; they will be
supplied if proposed courses are to be implemented. Overall, it is a well known fact that if one wants to introduce a new orientation or restructure a system, he first has to ensure the accessibility of the resources and support equipment needed.

B Pedagogical/experiential
Four sets of problems are anticipated:

(i) Problems related to needs analysis: by this, we mean the controversial question: whose needs are we talking about? (from Mountford's Paper, quoted before).
- learners' needs, as a group or individually, future or concurrent?
- Clients' needs, e.g. the Staff Office in charge of training, the learners' Commanding Officers, or the School's Officer in Command (our own examples)
- Language teachers' needs, i.e. some material to teach every Monday and Wednesday somehow?
- Course/materials designers needs?

So, the different interpretations of needs by different interest-groups and indeed by different individuals within a group or groups have to be taken into account in the course implementation. And there is nothing extraordinary about encountering difficulties and perhaps disagreements in the definition and specification of needs.

Solution: to get round these conflicting perceptions of needs we would propose the involvement of all the above parties and allow opportunities for negotiation and
compromise, on one hand, between the interest-groups of clients, teachers, course/materials designers and user-institutions. And, on the other hand, generating awareness in the learners' minds about their needs and purposes in learning the target language and persuade them on these lines.

(ii) **Problems related to teachers:** One of the problems of teaching ESP for teachers is that they find themselves being required to teach, for instance, the English of mechanical engineering, biology or telecommunications. This is the problem of the English language teacher not understanding or being uncertain about the content/subject matter of such subject areas.

**Solution:** An approach to get round the problem of not knowing the subject matter or being uncertain about it is for the language teachers to seek advice from the subject specialist and work together collaboratively. This may be arranged with the various subject specialists in the Trade Training Institute, as necessary. Further, the teachers themselves may share knowledge of and exchange ideas about the subject matter. Overall, the job of a language teacher is to teach language and not the subject matter. Of course, it would be useful and helpful if an ESP teacher had some knowledge about the subject matter, but this does not mean that he has to be as knowledgeable as the subject specialist. Thus, it is proposed that
teachers should stick to language, and not bother very much about not being familiar with the subject matter.

(iii) **Problems related to teaching materials:** the content of ESP teaching materials very often has a general tendency to be **boring**. That is to say, ESP sometimes involves materials about subject matter (e.g. science, mathematics) that students already learnt about in their secondary education, although it was in their mother tongue they still find it monotonous to go over the same ideas again. The materials may be not specific enough to meet the needs of a homogeneous group and, consequently, this may be demotivating.

**Solution:** One way to dilute this problem is to consider how to present the material, as opposed to what (i.e. the material itself). In other words, the methodology used will have an influence on making the learners intrinsically better motivated; variety, interest, learner's participation and centredness will be our priorities in the instruction of the course(s) as we shall see in the next section.

(iv) **Problems related to learners:** These mainly reside in the aspect of learning expectations. In our target ESP classes, learners will be faced with learning experiences they are unlikely to be accustomed to. In other words, our methodological principles will focus on the learner as
an active participant in the learning process in which the teacher plays the role of an advisor or manager, as opposed to director or explainer. Thus, learners need to adopt new learning strategies that will help them to cope with the new approach to learning and teaching.

Solution: Learners will be helped to overcome this constraint by familiarising them, throughout the course instruction, with the fundamental principle of viewing English as a tool - constant cross-referencing to the workshop - for the students to maintain access to the satisfaction of their characteristics and professional needs.

6.1.2 Methodological principles adopted
6.1.2.1 Methodology
We have made the implication in the preceding sections that our target ESP courses will be based on the view of language as a means of communication and on the view of learning as an active and learner-oriented process. In this sense, we propose to use communicative methodology for language learning. We propose to present our learners with learning experiences that emulate the outside world and the professional setting of the learners. We propose to do away with the mechanical conditioning in which learners play a passive role by simply requiring them to memorise literal sentences and non-contextualised patterns of language. Instead, we would advocate learners'
autonomy whereby the learners are given a free choice to use the language in meaningful and realistic contexts.

Those of us who are interested in the communicative methodology must not forget that our strong emphasis to adopt it is based on the basic characteristic of communicative language teaching that sees language as being more than a system, or a set of syntactical or semantical items. Language is seen as meaning, message, conveyed and in use and communication. Thereby, we work out an approach which is:

"... grammatical because it is communicative and communicative because it is grammatical - that is, an integrated approach which is based on the recognition that acquisition and use are not distinct but complementary and interdependent aspects of all the same process."

Widdowson (1978:11)

Further language learning, on the other hand (in the insight of the language theory adopted above) is far more than transmission of systems or pouring of knowledge into empty vessels. Language learning, like any other learning, entails participation and engagement from the side of the learner and involves an employment of his/her cognitive capacities (i.e. being a creative learner, and thinking about language rather than simply being asked to repeat it).

In the light of the above, we propose to base the implementation of target ESP courses on the methodological principles outlined below.
A Learning as a participatory process and not as a transmittive process. This participatory approach will entail the following specification of the roles played both by the teacher and the learner in the learning process.

(i) The roles of the teacher (these are from Mountford's Paper, already quoted)
- the teacher should establish a clear, precise aim for each lesson and for the activities in that lesson in a way which the students can understand
- the teacher should make the structure of a task and the purpose of a task clear to the students
- the teacher should organise the classroom in the most appropriate manner for the tasks in hand which may involve arranging classroom furniture for group work
- the teacher should spend a lot of time observing and checking the students, moving between individuals, pairs and groups
- the teacher should make himself available as an advisor, or consultant, helping individuals, pairs or groups work things out for themselves, and only giving answers when these are necessary to 'unblock' an activity in progress

(ii) The roles of the learner: Learners will be actively involved and will initiate their own learning by:
- exploiting the classroom as the environment in which the learners use the language rather than waiting for them to use it in the future
- engaging in activities in which they learn by doing and initiating rather than by being told
- being encouraged to learn through meaningful communication through pair and group work in situations which have relevance to their needs.

B Learning as an engagement of the cognitive capacities of the learners
This will entail:
- Creating problem-solving situations in which the learners are required to find appropriate spoken or
written responses. It will be learning by trial with minimum intervention from the teacher - that is, learners will be encouraged to communicate rather than merely utter modelled patterns of language.

- Creating simulated real situations by the means of using roleplays and simulations in which learners are encouraged to use the language for simulated real purposes related to what has been predicted to be their target communicative performances.

Learning as an enjoyment

This will be achieved through including variety in our teaching and through ensuring a good selection of teaching materials that match the needs and interests of the target learners. The variety in teaching may be summarised in the kind of teaching techniques that will be deployed, as we shall see.

Learners are encouraged to build up the habit of self-correction and reliance rather than relying on the teacher. This will be arrived at through making our teaching learner-centred through activities that involve pair and group work where learners are provided with a sense of responsibility and achievement.

Fluency, written or spoken, should be the central element in language use, and less attention is given to the aspect of accuracy. In the various language interchanges we should develop the students' ability to use the
language spontaneously at their own disposal, promote their confidence to communicate and lessen their anxiety about always trying to be grammatically correct.

F Teachers are encouraged to adopt a non-interference approach to language teaching/learning. They should, as far as possible, use a minimal correction strategy towards error correction, so as to promote learners' autonomy and freedom in trying the language out for themselves and, thereby, to facilitate real communication in the classroom. Part of the non-interference approach is to make sure that learners are provided with a roughly-tuned (i.e. slightly above their level of competence) rather than a finely-tuned input so that they work with the language without putting in too much effort that will likely contribute to making errors.

6.1.2.2 Teaching techniques

We propose to deploy the following teaching techniques:

A Lockstep techniques These may include:
(1) Meaningful and realistic drills such as:
   - Q-A-Q-A drills
   - Substitution drills
   - Mini-dialogues
   - cue-response drills

(2) Class discussion
(3) Debates

B Pair work techniques These may include:
(1) Roleplays
(2) Student-student conversations
(3) Information gap activities
(4) Teacher-student conversations
C  **Group work techniques** These may include:

1. Communication games
2. Interpersonal group with teacher as a member
3. Interpersonal group without the teacher as a member
4. Simulation
5. Group discussion

D  **Individual study techniques** These may include:

1. Reading exercises
2. Writing exercises
3. Open-ended exercises

These, of course, will be exercised as well in the techniques above.

6.1.3  **Aids and Equipment needed/available**

The aids and equipment required for the implementation of proposed courses may be categorised under what is already available in the target school and what is recommended to be made available.

1. **AVAILABLE**

1.1 **Premises which include:**

- 18 classrooms
- OC's office
- School Adjutant's office
- School NCO's office
- Secretarial and paper office (Chief clerk and other secretarial staff)
- Three language laboratories
- Storage space for equipment and materials
- Technician's workroom
- Teachers' room
- Toilet facilities

1.2 **Classroom equipment which includes for each room:**

- 20 students chairs with desks
- 1 teacher's table and chair
- overhead projector, tape recorder/player
- 1 white board
- 3 display/flannel boards
- provision of felt pens, spare bulbs for overhead projector, transparencies for overhead projector, tapes, etc.
1.3 Teaching support equipment which includes:
- 1 photocopier
- 1 stencil cutter
- 1 stencil duplicator
- provision of duplicating paper, stencils, photocopying paper, etc. plus various stationery
- 3 20 booths language laboratory
- 1 cassette fast copier
- software for use with the above equipment

2. RECOMMENDED EQUIPMENT

This should include:
- Video recorders/players ) The number will
- TV sets ) depend on the scale
- software for use with these ) of course operation

This recommended equipment is seen to be very useful for various teaching practices, especially in that they will help to get access to on-the-job settings and workshops which will help to provide genuine professional examples.

6.2 Course Evaluation

In course evaluation we need to bear in mind a number of considerations. These reside in polling vital questions such as:

What do we mean by evaluation, in general?
Why evaluate in the first place?
What is it we are trying to evaluate?
When do we evaluate? and
How do we evaluate?

The first two questions (What is Evaluation? and Why Evaluate?) are perhaps best answered by Bachman, L. cited by Mackay and Palmer (1981). He asserts:
"Evaluation, essentially, is the collection and use of information for the purpose of decision-making. It is this purpose that characterises evaluation and distinguishes it from testing and measurement. Although tests and other forms of measurements are commonly used for gathering information, they are not, in themselves, evaluative. Data derived though such procedures become evaluative only when they are used as input to the decision-making process." (op cit.108)

As regards the question of What is to be Evaluated? reference is made to areas such as (from Mackay (1981) cited by Morrison, J. in a lecture at Noray House College on the topic of ESP):

- Planning (intent)
- Syllabus and materials) (Content)
- Methods
- Administration (Context)
- Performance (Behaviour)

As for the times of evaluation (When do we Evaluate?) an evaluation may take place while the course is in operation, i.e. a 'formative' type of evaluation. Bachman, L., quoted above, makes the point that formative evaluation "provides information and feedback during the development of the programme in order to facilitate decision-making regarding improvement of content, organisation, strategies, and techniques" (p.109).

Evaluation may also take place at the end of a course, once the programme has been completed, i.e. a 'summative' type of evaluation which is "directed towards decision concerning, for example, the wider implementation of a given program, the continuation or discontinuation of a
program, or the adoption of one of several competing programs" (op cit.)

The last question in our considerations is concerned with the methods of evaluation (How do we Evaluate?). Methods of obtaining data for evaluation may include:

1. Tests
2. Questionnaires
3. Interviews
4. Observations

The data obtained (with the exception of testing) is of two kinds (as suggested by Morrison, J. in the same lecture):

1. **Objective/quantifiable**
   e.g. How many hours? tapes? books? etc.

2. **Attitudinal/behavioural**
   e.g. Has the programme attained its stated objectives? Which was most enjoyable ...? Do the students display the kinds of behavioural (including linguistic) changes which were planned?

In the light of the above, we will base our data collection for the evaluation of the exemplified course on the methods outlined below:

1. TEST: This will take the form of a summative test that will be deployed at the end of the course. The information obtained jointly with the data derived from
the formative assessment and students' work monitoring, that were exercised at different times throughout the course of instruction, will be used to judge the students' improvement in language performance.

2. QUESTIONNAIRE: Using this method we can ask the participants questions about the overall efficiency of the course. For example, (these may be translated into Arabic, should it be necessary)

- Did the course meet your needs and expectations?
- Did it contain things that were not of use to you and your work or trade training?
- What was the most useful thing the course offered you?
- Were the materials used relevant and at the right level?
- Were the activities/tasks deployed interesting and at the right level of challenge?
- Do you think you have improved the English you need for your work or trade training?
- Do you think that now you can better communicate with and respond to speakers of the language (about professional/occupational matters) easily and without major difficulties or breakdowns?

Answers to these questions will be sought in an objective format using a 5-point scale ranging from "Not very ..." to "Extremely ...".

3. INTERVIEW: This method will be used to obtain information from the user-institution where the students will undergo their occupational engagements or trade training. This, of course, will be carried out after some time of the students' embarkation on the work site or technical trade training institution. Questions will be asked to get the viewpoints of the user-institution about
the usefulness and efficiency of the course. Instances of such questions may be expressed like this:

- Do the students display the kind of language performances that are needed for their occupations or the instruction of their technical trade training?

- If so, is this adequate for the requirements of the place of work or target trade training institution?

- What kind of significant language problems, or communication breakdowns still occur? etc.

4. OBSERVATION: Obviously, this cannot be deployed immediately after the completion of the course. Students need time to fully integrate in their professional engagements and/or trade training establishment. Observation will, perhaps, then be useful to find out how proficient the members are in handling various functions and transactions in English in their user institution. Observation will also help to identify language problems which students may still encounter.

These means of evaluating the course are all deployed for the purpose of trying to measure the change and improvement that the course helped to make the participants' language performance more efficient as was planned. The information and feedback obtained will be used to help determine changes and improvements in future similar courses in terms of objectives, materials, methodology, costs and administration.
BIBLIOGRAPHY


22. Munby, J. (1978) COMMUNICATIVE SYLLABUS DESIGN. CUP.


33. Wilkins, D. A. (1985) NOTIONAL SYLLABUSES. OUP.
### Unit 3

<table>
<thead>
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<td>ii What's a/What does a/look like?</td>
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<td>Process</td>
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### Unit 4

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<td>b/</td>
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<td>iii Travel</td>
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**Notes:**
- A change in Timetable
- When can I see you about it?
- For business reasons
- For social reasons
- 3 ways of getting to Pembrokeshire
- 3 places to stay in London

**Development of Newcastle University**

**Social function of Universities**
Unit 5

Axis

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<td>Future role of Universities</td>
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<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Hypothetical operation</td>
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a/ Hypothesis

- i Cigarette machine
- ii The lift’s stuck
- iii Using a cricket bat
- iv Preparing a report

b/ Operations

- Physical-mental

Working a gadget-laden tape-recorder

incorporating revisional materials

A 'SOCIAL SURVIVAL SYLLABUS'
Proposed textbooks which may be useful in a target EAP course - English for Academic/Access Purposes (these textbooks are recommended in Wallace, M. 1980).

UK Background

The British Council: How to Live in Britain (Longman: available from The British Council, London). This booklet, which is regularly brought up to date, gives advice on all aspects of living in Britain such as insurance, clothing, accommodation, etc.

Reading Efficiency

Edward Fry (1963) Reading Faster. CUP.

Taking Notes


Writing Essays


General Study Skills


APPENDIX B

Proposed examples of textbooks for exemplified course:

