Designing a Syllabus for ESP Learners:  
The Case of 2nd Year Commercial Sciences’ Students  
At the University of Constantine  

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for  
the degree of Magister in Applied Linguistics  

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2013
Dedication

With all my love, to:
My parents,
My siblings,
And in the memory of my grand-mother: Mebarka.
Acknowledgements

All praise is to Allah, The Exalted and Sovereign, for enabling me to undertake this work.

I would like to express an immense gratitude to my supervisor Dr. Hacene Hamada for agreeing to conduct this work with me and everything he did to bring this piece of research to life. His efforts do include endless encouragements, generous suggestions, precisely constructive advice and valuable guidance and enough patience. Dr. Hamada has been very patient and inspirational since the beginning of my post-graduate studies, in 2006.

I am also deeply indebted to my dissertation committee members and committee chair and wish to thank them for the time they dedicated for the discussion of this work.

My thanks and appreciation also go to two distinguishable professors who have been an excellent source of knowledge and support since the debut of my university studies: Dr. Nacif Labed and Dr. Youcef Beghoul. They have –directly or indirectly- been the most influential personalities in both my studying career and professional (short) experience.

I would like to also thank all the students and instructors who accepted to participate in the data collection. Those students have been very cooperative and really fun to teach and the teachers made of the working environment an appreciated one. Without those, I would not have been able to conduct this study.

Last but not least, I wish to specially thank all those who helped me go forward in times of uncertainty and fear. Those are various people from different walks of life: my wonderful parents and my beloved sister and brothers (particularly Mahmoud for his tremendous help with text formatting) for the encouragements, unconditioned love and unequalled support, my precious friends for their admirable presence, my dear relatives and family friends for their constant care and whoever believed in me and over-estimated my capacities.
Abstract

The present study has been conducted to investigate the needs and objectives of commerce students at the University Mentouri, Constantine, while learning English as part of their curriculum. The sample population comprises 120 second-year undergraduate students and 5 English language instructors at the same department. A questionnaire was constructed for each group to explore the teaching/learning environment and any problematic areas in this process. The language they are learning is specific because it targets a content related to their field of interest, and our aim is to study the relevance of that content and whether it matches students’ expectations or not. The findings of this study revealed that students are at different levels of performance, and this is due to antecedents related to school classes and instructors, uninteresting learning environment, lack of references (example: textbooks), etc. The results also show that all English skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing) are needed and that the learners’ needs (or what they think they need English for) are varied, and this points to a possible necessity for an eclectic approach and appropriate strategy to meet all the learners’ expectations. After analysing those findings, we attempted at presenting sample units that could be included in the syllabus and presented lists of possible topics, activities and language structures. Study limitations, course implementations and suggestions for future studies have also been addressed.

Keywords: ESP; needs analysis; learners’ objectives; Commerce students; Business English; proficiency level; students’ expectations; learning situation; eclectic approach; syllabus design; sample units
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List of Abbreviations

ABE: Academic Business English
AEBE: Academic English of Business and Economics
BE: Business English
CLT: Communicative Language Teaching Approach
CNP: Communication Needs Processor
EAB: English of Applied Business
EAP: English for Academic Purposes
EBE: English for Business and Economics
EBP: English for Business Purposes
EFL: English as a Foreign Language
EIL: English as an International Language
ELL: English Language Learning
ELT: English Language Teaching
EOP: English for Occupational Purposes
EPP: English for Professional Purposes
ESL: English as a Second Language
ESP: English for Specific Purposes
ESS: English for Social Studies
EST: English for Science and Technology
EVP: English for Vocational Purposes
GE: General English
LSP: Language for Specific Purposes
L2: Second Language
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General Introduction

Scope of the Study

It is known within institutions of higher education that English is taught as a separate subject matter in almost all university fields. Besides, teachers fulfilling this task design the content of language courses by themselves because administrative authorities do not provide them with syllabuses to guide them in what to teach and how. In this work, we are going to study learners’ objectives and needs, and give the essential information for the design of an English syllabus for students of Commercial Sciences and Economics.

Research Questions and Aims of the Study

Students’ needs are just as specific as their field of studies, and are at the basis of the content selection/organization and the strategies used in the teaching/learning process. Investigating them in this research would tell us about learners’ objectives while learning English in relation to their domain of interest. The questions that may be raised in this study are the following:

- What is the proficiency level of the learners and what are their future needs in English?
- What are the learning conditions (environment in terms of course content, density and length) provided for the students to learn English?
- What are the present materials and activities which implement the course?

The aim of this work is to explore those students’ need for an appropriate syllabus and attempt to create sample units that would serve the learners to understand the nature of the language and master the linguistic components they might need to use in the domain of Commerce. With a such syllabus, they are expected to gain, by the end of the academic year, a considerable register of technical terms, phrases, expressions and constructions needed in their professional career, especially if required to work in foreign companies. The design of
such a syllabus (as a general aim) requires from the researcher to determine the following aims:

- Students’ level of English language.
- Students’ expectations in applying to the studies in question, and their vision and attitudes towards the learning of English within the curriculum.
- Students’ short-term and long-term objectives.
- The time allocated for the teaching of English within the whole curriculum.
- The data and materials needed to enable them acquire sufficient linguistic knowledge and up-dated economic one.

**Hypothesis**

Because globalization made of English a necessary language in almost all fields, students in the economic field became aware of the urgent need to learn it in order to achieve their own objectives and contribute to their society’s. Nowadays, computer programs and documents are designed exclusively in that language, and economic exchanges with foreign countries became vital. Therefore, introducing English courses in academic studies is expected to be useful for both students (short-term objectives) and for society (long-term objectives). In this case study, we are going to explore our population sample’s objectives and needs in order to test the hypothesis that: “If students of Economics and Commercial Sciences learn specialized English through an appropriate and well-designed syllabus – according to the aims determined above, they would gain accurate and fluent communication features needed in their future potential professions.”

**Research Tools and Methodology**

In order to examine the existing situation of English language learning/teaching in the Department of Commerce, University of Constantine, we have designed two questionnaires to glean students’ and teachers’ views and perceptions about the said situation.
The first tool of investigation is the students’ questionnaire. It is divided up into four main categories each of which includes a set of questions. The first category includes questions that relate to the students’ identities or personal characteristics (notably: age, gender). The second is entitled “Students’ learning experience and motivation”. As the title indicates, the questions under this category deal with the students’ past experiences in and motivation for learning the English language. Next set of questions is under the heading: “Students’ Proficiency Level”, and it deals with the students’ self-assumptions about their weakness/strength in the English language. The last, and not least, category of questions (Students’ Attitudes to and Experiences of the English Course) investigates the reason why the students’ think they are attending the course, their attitudes towards the learning of this language, the way they learn and their own expectations.

The second device used for collecting the necessary information is the teachers’ questionnaire. It is divided into categories and subcategories as well, and the first one deals with their qualifications and experience. The second category relates to “Teachers’ Design of their English Course”; it includes their viewpoint of the learners’ needs, the learning (short-term and long-term) objectives, the most needed language skills to fulfill the objectives in question and the actual level of learners. Next, a set of questions dedicated to the teachers’ implementation of the course with their opinion about the “official” content – provided by the department-, their contribution to improve the deficiencies observed, the difficulties they may face in the classroom and their suggestions for a better learning environment and more satisfactory results.

Content of the Dissertation

The present work is founded on two major parts. The first one is dedicated to theoretical issues in English language teaching and methods, the field of ESP, syllabus design and
Discourse Analysis. The second part deals with the interpretation of the data collected during the investigation and its relevance to the implementation of the English course in the Department of Commerce.

The opening part is divided into two main sections. Section one states some facts about the status of the teaching and learning of the English language. A historical review is, in fact, needed to highlight some of the factors/disciplines that influenced this field, and a summary of the most known methods would serve us learn about the characteristics, components and criticism brought to each in order to select the most appropriate one for a successful learning/teaching. Next, a glance to the ESP realm and the wide range of syllabus types is to help us know what would be more suitable for the business class English course. Section two deals with Discourse, its meaning, its historical development and its role within the domain of second/foreign language teaching.

The second part is made up of two main sections. First, The Case Study, which represents a detailed explanation of the components of each questionnaire. It sums up the analysis of the participants’ answers in relation to the teaching/learning environment and the past findings in the same respect. The second section is devoted to the Implementation of the most appropriate course in accordance to the expectations of both learners and teachers.
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Chapter I: Teaching and Learning Foreign Languages

This first chapter of the dissertation introduces English language instruction, the past and current research in the field, and the various changes that occurred in the profession through different eras and contexts. It is evident that this field has been basically influenced by many other educational/social disciplines, and this is what paved the ground for the various changes and teaching methods to be applied on English language instruction until now.

This chapter will also introduce us to the ESP field, which is at the core attention in the current research. We will present a brief introduction about its appearance and its phases of development, and then move on to a more relevant topic to this paper: Business English.

1. Historical Review

Foreign language instruction has gone through various changes in the last decades. Some consider that the modifications being brought to it were revolutionary rather than evolutionary, and it is rather complicated to attribute the changes to one particular source. Since the main objective in foreign language instruction is to help someone learn a given language, various parameters have been involved in these changes. First, the subject to be taught, i.e., language and its characteristics, which is the subject studied in linguistics (Khan, 2011). Second, what happens when someone processes language, i.e., learning, which is the subject of study in psychology. Third, the individual who learns, i.e., the learner as a human being, who is the subject of study in human sciences in general, and sociology in particular. Fourth, the person who helps the learner, i.e., the instructor, who is influenced by factors related to the learner as well as the teaching task itself (Van Der Walt, 1992). Therefore, advances in these areas, as well as “the constant changes in the language itself” (Meng, 2009) would be the main sources of modifications in language teaching/learning practices.
One set of changes is rooted in the theories of linguistics (Khansir, 2013). Traditional, structural, generative-transformational, functional, case, and other theories in linguistics have led to different descriptions of the language. Of course, the substance under investigation for all these theories has been the same, i.e., language. However, every theory has examined language from a different perspective. For example, one theory has viewed language as a set of patterns, another as a set of rules, still another as a set of functions. Each movement in linguistics has forced language educators to adapt or adopt certain modes of linguistic manifestation of language to be exercised in classroom settings.

Another set of changes originates from psychology. Various theories in psychology have attempted to explore the process of learning in order to offer guidelines for educators. There have been different schools of psychology including traditional psychology, behaviorist psychology, and cognitive code learning psychology - to name a few, each of which has viewed the learning process from a different perspective. In order to gear their activities towards the most efficient procedures that would help learners achieve their instructional objectives, language educators have to consider and appropriately apply the explanations provided by different approaches and theories in psychology (Hanak-Hammerl, Newby, 2002).

The third set of changes originates from pedagogy (Luo, 2013). Principles offered by theories in linguistics and psychology have been combined to form the basic tenets of different teaching methods. These principles had to be organized in a practical form in order to be applied in classroom situations. The success or failure of these approaches depended on the outcome of their applications. In spite of all the changes and advancements in language teaching theories, and all sorts of modifications these theories made in teaching methods, most language practitioners have experienced the bitter taste of failure because none of the
methods has been practical enough to meet all the requirements of language teaching satisfactorily.

A brief examination of the principles of teaching methods reveals that every method was replaced by another because of some sort of theoretical or practical shortcomings. For example, the traditional grammar translation method could not train language learners to cope with the growing needs for face-to-face communication with the speakers of the target language, and did not consider present-day language usage (Cerezal Sierra, 1995). Similarly, it was argued that the audio-lingual method, which dominated the field for more than half a century, has been rooted in an unjustified theory of linguistics and an incomprehensive theory of psychology because its application did not prepare learners for communication in real life situations (Roulet, 1972). Along the same lines, the cognitive method, though an improvement over the methods practiced earlier, did not fulfill the expectations of the learners (Tejada Molina, Pérez Cañado Agulló, 2006). Even the so-called innovative methods such as the silent way, suggestopedia (Bhakti, 2011), community language learning (Al-Humaidi, 2007), and others could not alleviate some of the pressing problems in the field. With all these developments and advancements in language teaching methods, scholars wondered why none of the methods had operated satisfactorily enough to meet the demands of the field. They also wondered why the contribution of linguistics, psychology, and other language related areas didn’t lead the field to an acceptable level of success. From which other areas could the language teaching profession get help? What other disciplines could contribute to the progress of language teaching? These and many other questions burdened the scholars for a long time. On the one hand, the demands for learning a foreign language were continuously growing because of the considerable expansion of international communication and on the other hand, the field of language teaching was not well-equipped enough to accommodate the needs of the
learners. These inefficiencies forced language educators to reexamine the existing state of affairs and attempt to remodel the whole design of language teaching process.

Many issues had to be taken into account during the remodeling process. Nevertheless, a logical starting point was to examine the deficiencies of the existing teaching methods and to offer solutions. It was during these activities that fundamental changes occurred because at every step many vague issues were clarified and many useful suggestions were offered. It was argued that the first step in remodeling was to determine the expected performance of the learners. Then, on the basis of the terminal performance, appropriate designs, and effective techniques could be implemented in the classroom settings. Since the emergence of ESP was one of the significant outcomes of these developments, a brief discussion of them in the coming elements seems warranted.

2. Methods

There is undoubtedly no single best way to teach a foreign language. The most successful language teachers do not limit their teaching process to only one method although they may lean towards certain characteristics of a particular one. Besides, students’ levels are almost never similar, and they, themselves, differ in personalities, attitudes, tastes and even learning styles. Thus, the instructor should be flexible and conscious of all the possible existing ways of conveying knowledge.

A whole range of teaching methods exists; this is the result of historical swing between various criteria of how to proceed in the language classroom. The result is a multitude of naming: Grammar Translation Method, Direct Method, Audio-Lingual and Audio-Visual Method, Oral Method, the Method of Interactionism, Total Physical Response, etc. The list is varied but no perfect method exists yet. A historical review will reveal similarities between
anciently used and present day methodology. It will lead us to decide upon the basic criteria that would help a teacher choose the most appropriate way to teach the foreign language.

2.1 The Grammar Translation Method

For centuries, foreign language learning meant the learning of Latin and Greek; they were acknowledged as the key to classical literature and thought. Latin was taught through what was called the Classical Method for the purpose of reading Latin texts and understanding the fundamentals of grammar and translation. In the 19th Century, it came to be known as the Grammar Translation Method. Despite the appearance of more advanced methods, it has survived historical changes in Foreign Language Teaching circles. Its classes in the Western world remained until the 1970s and still exist somewhere in less-developed countries. The main focus of it was reading, writing and structure, and little concern was given to speaking, listening or interactive communication.

According to Prator and Celce-Murcia (1979:3), the major characteristics of this method are as follows:

(1) Classes are taught in the mother tongue, with little active use of the target language.

(2) Much vocabulary is taught in the form of lists of isolated words.

(3) Long elaborate explanations of the intricacies of grammar are given.

(4) Grammar provides the rules for putting words together, and instruction often focuses on the form and inflection of words.

(5) Reading of difficult classical texts is begun early.

(6) Little attention is paid to the content of texts, which are treated as exercises in grammatical analysis.

(7) Often the only drills are exercises in translating disconnected sentences from the target language into the mother tongue.
The main shortcomings of this method are: first, learners are given a wrong idea about language. They see it just as a collection of words and isolated items which must have a corresponding equivalent in the native tongue. Second, it assumes that language is acquired through translation skills at the expense or oral/aural ones. Third, it badly affected learners’ motivation; they got frustrated of their failure and got bored and undisciplined in the classroom.

2.2 The Direct Method

It came as a reaction to Grammar Translation Method by the late 19th Century and became popular during the first quarter of the 20th Century, especially in private language schools where highly motivated students could study new languages and native speaking teachers were employed. One of the most famous advocates of the Direct Method was the German Charles Berlitz, whose schools and Berlitz Method are now world-renowned. It was also known as Reform Method, Anti-grammatical Method or Phonetical Method. Its supporters claimed that language learning was more than the learning of formal grammatical rules and the acquisition of imperfect translation skills. So, it involved all the various areas that have not been dealt with in the Grammar Translation Method: oral communication, more spontaneous use of the language, and developing the ability to think in the target language.

The fundamental principles of the Direct Method, according to Richards and Rodgers (1986:9-10), are those that:

1. Second language learning should be more like first language learning.
2. It emphasized the fact that knowing a language is being able to speak it.
3. A great stress was put on correct pronunciation.
(4) Printed words were to be kept away from second language learners until they have good grasp of speech.

(5) Classroom instruction was conducted exclusively in the target language, and the learning of grammar or translation skills was discouraged because they involve the application of the mother tongue. Under the Direct Method, all these features had to be avoided because they hindered the acquisition of a good oral proficiency.

(6) The Direct Method teachers highlighted an inductive acquisition of grammar.

(7) The teacher presented real (concrete) vocabulary all the way through demonstration, realia and pictures, and theoretical (abstract) vocabulary throughout connection of ideas.

Diane Larsen-Freeman (1986:13-24) also provides a list of techniques closely related to the method as follows:

(1) Translating literary passages from target to native language
(2) Reading and finding info in a passage, then relating it to personal experience
(3) Finding antonyms and synonyms for words or sets of words
(4) Learning spelling patterns similar in L1 and L2
(5) Understanding grammar rules and applying them to new examples
(6) Filling in gaps
(7) Memorizing vocabulary lists and grammatical rules
(8) Generating sentences with newly learnt words
(9) Composing essays using the target language

As Brown (1994:56) explained, this method was not highly accepted in public schools because of constraints of time, teacher background, financial aspect and classroom size. It was also criticized for its belief that second language should be learnt in the way the first language is acquired, and by the late 1920s, it went into decline and there was even a return to the
Grammar Translation Method. Despite these facts, it paved the way for communicative, oral-based approaches, and as such allowed a considerable improvement in the history of foreign language teaching.

2.3 The Audio-Lingual Method

The World War II was one factor that marked the domain of foreign language teaching/learning. The US military service was in urgent need of learning foreign languages for military operations, and a new methodology called "The Army Method" was quickly developed through intensive language courses supposed to enhance the communicative competence of translators and soldiers. This method focused on the aural/oral skills of these adult learners. Afterwards, a blend of ideas regarding language learning/teaching from descriptive linguistics' disciplines and behavioural psychology gave birth to an innovative, scientific method identified as the Audiolingual Method. The new technological aids made their first step into the language classroom: the language laboratory, the tape recorder and the film strips were the modern substitutes for sets of books.

The main key features of the Audio-lingual classroom -described by Brown (1994) and adapted from Prator and Celce-Murcia (1979)- are that it was characterized by introducing new material through taped dialogues and recorded drills to allow learners to imitate the native pronunciation and intonation. The stress was put on memorizing sets of phrases, and on oral proficiency to get learners to produce error free stereotypic utterances. In addition, there was a great emphasis on structured drill sequences, mimicry and over learning. There was little, or no, grammatical explanation, and if it happened, it was only by inductive analogy. Vocabulary was taught in context, with the help of pronunciation rather than written discourse. Moreover, teachers strongly discouraged the use of the mother tongue, and successful responses of learners in the foreign language were immediately reinforced.
This method was one of the first to have its roots "firmly grounded in linguistic and psychological theory" (Brown 1994:57), which apparently added to its credibility and probably had some influence in the popularity it enjoyed over a long period of time. It also had a major influence on the language teaching methods that were to follow and can still be seen in major or minor manifestations of language teaching methodology even to this day. Another factor that accounted for the method's popularity was the quick success it achieved in leading learners towards communicative competence.

Soon, teachers’ enthusiasm ended with the recognition of the approach’s limitations. The extensive use of mimicry and memorization was both its advantage and its weakness because it was revealed that the method did not provide successful outcomes in the long-term communicative ability. This means that learners were described as ‘parrots’ repeating brilliantly various combinations until they become second nature but unable to produce new structures or ideas. Habit formation was not really the best way to acquire the language, and errors were not necessarily obstacles to learning.

2.4 Community Language Learning

The early 1970s were marked by Charles Curran’s innovative “Counseling Learning”, an educational model applied to language learning, which became known as Community Language Learning. Inspired by Carl Rogers’ view that learners were to be considered not as a class, but as a group, Curran’s philosophy dictated that students were to be thought of as "clients" - their needs being addressed by a "counselor" in the form of the teacher. Brown (1994:59), in commenting on this approach notes that:

*In order for any learning to take place...what is first needed is for the members to interact in an interpersonal relationship in which students and teacher join together to facilitate learning in a context of valuing and prizeing each individual in the group.* (Brown, 1994:59)
Curran believed that the counseling-learning model would help lower the instinctive defenses adult learners throw up, that the anxiety caused by the educational context could be decreased through the support of an interactive community of fellow learners. Another important goal was for the teacher to be perceived as an empathetic helping agent in the learning process (not a threat) who concentrates on the clients’ feelings, intellect, interpersonal relationships, protective reactions, and desire to learn. His careful attention helps them be self-assured and self-confident.

The Community Language Learning method involves some of the following features:

(1) A relationship of mutual trust and support is considered essential to the learning process.

(2) Students are permitted to use their native language, and are provided with translations from the teacher which they then attempt to apply.

(3) Grammar and vocabulary are taught inductively.

(4) "Chunks" of target language produced by the students are recorded and later listened to. They are also transcribed with native language equivalents to become texts the students work with.

(5) Students apply the target language independently and without translation when they feel confident enough to do so.

(6) Students are encouraged to express not only how they feel about the language, but how they feel about the learning process, to which the teacher expresses empathy and understanding.

(7) A variety of activities can be included (for example, focusing on a particular grammar or pronunciation point, or creating new sentences based on the recordings/transcripts).
Moreover, Larsen-Freeman’s book *Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching* (1986:45-47) provides expanded descriptions of some common/typical techniques closely associated with Community Language Learning. The listing here is in summary form only.

1. Tape Recording Student Conversation (Students choose what they want to say, and their target language production is recorded for later listening/dissemination)

2. Transcription (Teacher produces a transcription of the tape-recorded conversation with translations in the mother language - this is then used for follow up activities or analysis)

3. Reflection on Experience (Teacher takes time during or after various activities to allow students to express how they feel about the language and the learning experience, and the teacher indicates empathy/understanding)

4. Reflective Listening (Students listen to their own voices on the tape in a relaxed and reflective environment)

5. Human Computer (Teacher is a "human computer" for the students to control - the teacher stating anything in the target language the student wants to practice, giving them the opportunity to self correct)

6. Small Group Tasks (Students work in small groups to create new sentences using the transcript, afterwards sharing them with the rest of the class)

The method was unique in that it actually focused on the feelings of the students and tried to address affective factors in learning, but it has its limitations. It assumed that students intrinsically want to learn the new language, and that is not always the case. Only a little number of students actually wanted to be there and the principle of group dynamics was very likely to fall down. Besides, the teacher had to be fluent in both the target language and the students’ mother language. It could not be used for large or very large classes, and would be quite limited in terms of how it could be applied to classes of young learners who tend to
instinctively expect a certain amount of active direction from the teacher. Still, for its focus on the affective issue, Community Language Learning techniques can be used very effectively in combination with other methods. The tape recording and transcription elements are very useful, and any method which stresses the feelings and independent development of the learners themselves is one worth looking at and trying out in a variety of ways.

2.5 The Silent Way

Language learning trends that followed the Audio-lingual Method had a major focus on affective theories and new challenges known as “Cognitive Code” and "Discovery Learning." With these concepts, an emphasis on human cognition in language learning highlighted issues such as learners being more responsible for their own learning. Accordingly, they have to formulate independent hypotheses about the rules of the target language; they create their own sets of meaningful language rules and concepts, test them by applying them and understand errors, which constituted a natural part of the process and a key learning device. Brown (1994:63) expresses this as being a process in which "students construct conceptual hierarchies of their own which are a product of the time they have invested." Thus, they learn through discovery/exploratory methods which are very different from rote-learning; they become more autonomous in their learning process.

Caleb Gattegno founded The Silent Way as a method for language learning in the early 70s, sharing many of the same essential principles as the cognitive code and making good use of the theories underlying discovery learning. Some of his basic theories were that "teaching should be subordinated to learning" and "the teacher works with the student; the student works on the language" (Caleb Gattegno, 1972). The most prominent characteristic of the method was that the teacher typically stayed "silent" most of the time to help learners develop independence and responsibility; his/her role was that of a facilitator. The learning process is
usually seen as a problem-solving task to be used by the students both independently and in a group, and the teacher was required to stay out of the way as much as possible.

The Silent Way is also well-known for its common use of “cuisinere rods”: small sets of colored rods of varying length used to introduce pronunciation, vocabulary and grammatical patterns along with colourful wall charts.

Richards and Rodgers (1986:99) describe the key theories underlying the Silent Way as follows:

1. Learning is facilitated if the learner discovers or creates rather than remembers and repeats what is to be learned.
2. Learning is facilitated by accompanying (mediating) physical objects.
3. Learning is facilitated by problem-solving involving the material to be learned.

Criticism to this method was that it encourages the teacher to assume a distance that prevents him/her from providing direct guidance when at times such guidance would be helpful. The method neglects cultural input, and the silence of the teacher prevents students from hearing many active models of correct usage. In trying to create a less teacher-oriented classroom, the Silent Way goes too far to the opposite extreme. Earl W. Stevick, a well-known writer on language teaching, has described the role of the teacher in Silent Way as "Teach, test, get out of the way".

2.6 Suggestopedia

This method appeared in the late 70s with the Bulgarian psychologist Georgi Lozanov’s view that the human brain could process and retain much more material if given most favorable conditions for learning. He believed that students, with their fears and anxiety, naturally set up psychological barriers to learning. His research on extrasensory perception
allowed him develop a language learning method that focused on providing some kind of relaxed state of mind that would facilitate the retention of material to its maximum potential. This method became known as Suggestopedia - the name reflecting the application of the power of "suggestion" to the field of pedagogy.

The main characteristic of this method was soft Baroque music accompanying the learning process. With its specific rhythm and a pattern of 60 beats per minute, Lozanov assumed that it created a level of relaxed concentration that facilitated the intake and retention of huge quantities of material because of an increase in alpha brain waves and decrease in blood pressure and heart pace. A second aspect supposed to create a relaxed state of mind was the use of soft comfortable chairs and soft lighting in the classroom.

The key features of Suggestopedia may be summed up as follows:

(1) Learning is facilitated in an environment that is as comfortable as possible; learners are in a “comfortable and relaxed posture”.

(2) The teacher is the provider of “suggestions” and the one who makes learners get into a relaxed alertness (“a suggestible state”). Thus, self-perceived and psychological barriers to learners' potential to learn are "desuggested".

(3) Students are encouraged to be child-like; they take a kind of "mental trips" under the authority and guidance of the teacher. “According to Lozanov, infantilization is especially important for increased memorization...without strain or conscious effort” (Bancroft, 1999:37-38)

(4) The classroom atmosphere is made as positive as possible, and the main activities that learners learn from are role-play, games and song performance.

(5) The teacher assumes for each learner a new role and name in the target language in order to become more "suggestible". “This approach, derived from group psychotherapy, creates a “play situation” which liberates the students from their
normal, real-life social roles and permits a more spontaneous and immediate expression of individual abilities.” (Bancroft, 1999:39).

(6) Baroque music is played softly in the background to increase mental relaxation and potential to take in and retain new material during the lesson.

(7) Students work from lengthy dialogs in the target language.

(8) Errors are tolerated and corrected by teachers, the emphasis being on content and not structure.

Some of the limitations of this method lie in the fact that a specially equipped class/institute with comfortable seats (reclining chairs) and music selections are not really available to the majority of schools, and these environmental factors are certainly inconceivable for very large classes. But also, it does not take account of the fact that many learners in many countries do not necessarily bring an intrinsic desire to learn the language into their English lessons. Besides, while the notion of authority may have a positive impact in the context of "suggestology", it is not very welcomed in other countries (as in North America and Western Europe). (Bancroft, 1999:33)

2.7 Total Physical Response

The late 1800s were marked by the work of François Gouin, a French teacher of Latin, at devising a method of language teaching exploiting the way children naturally learn their first language. His approach became known as the Series Method. He assumed that when language is used, it can directly be related to whatever the speaker is doing simultaneously with the utterance (i.e., one's actions and language go with one another).

In the 1960s, James Asher, while noting that children learn their first language through a lot of listening accompanied by physical responses, began experimenting with a method called Total Physical Response which had a lot in common with Gouin's. The method became
better known during the 70s, and it highlighted the theory that memory is stimulated and increased when it is closely associated with motor activity.

The basic foundation of this method is the fact that, before the oral use, language acquisition entails a significant deal of listening and comprehension altogether combined with various physical responses (touching, reaching, grabbing, looking, etc). Asher (1977) also drew attention on right-brained learning (associating the right hemisphere with motor activity), which he says should precede the left-brained language processing. He, as well, devised the method to be based on fun and stress-free learning.

Further key features of the Total Physical Response method are summed in the following notes:

(1) The teacher directs and students "act" in response - "The instructor is the director of a stage play in which the students are the actors" (Asher, 1977:43).

(2) The imperative mood is the most common language function employed, even well into advanced levels. Interrogatives are also heavily used.

(3) Whenever possible, humor is injected into the lessons to make them more enjoyable for learners.

(4) Students are not required to speak until they feel naturally ready or confident enough to do so.

(5) Grammar and vocabulary are emphasized over other language areas. Spoken language is emphasized over written language.

2.8 The Natural Approach

The outcome of Stephen Krashen’s views about L2 acquisition was the development of *The Natural Approach* (Krashen and Terrell, 1983). Their approach advocated a silent phase
in which the teacher was the only provider of a significant amount of comprehensible input, and they believed in the beneficial delay of production until speech emerges.

Some other important underlying principles are that students listen to the teacher using the target language communicatively from the very beginning. Meaning is considered as the essence of language and vocabulary (not grammar) is the heart of language; errors, at early production stages, are not very important unless they drastically hinder communication. The teacher, being the source of input, creates in the language course varied and interesting communicative activities including games, role-plays, dialogs, group work and discussions.

During their learning within this approach, learners go through three generic stages:

1. Preproduction: to develop their listening skills.
2. Early Production: students are faced with the language and make many errors. Correction is based on content and not structure.
3. Extended Production: it promotes fluency through a variety of more challenging and complex activities (open-ended dialogues, discussions, etc.).

The Natural Approach was abundantly criticized, particularly for the idea of comprehensible input and the recommendation of the silent stage which ends only when students feel ready to emerge into oral production (Gregg, 1984). Its opponents (Dulay et al., 1982; Gregg, 1984) said that students’ speech might emerge at different times, and it is hard to determine which forms of language input will be "comprehensible" to the students. Thus, the teacher would find it particularly difficult to manage the classroom. Even though, the Natural Approach led naturally into the generally accepted norm for effective language teaching: Communicative Language Teaching.
2.9 Communicative Language Teaching

The progress of foreign language teaching ideology is mirrored in all the methods described so far. They had their ups and downs; they have been modified or even gave birth to new methods. In the mid-eighties, the field of “approaches to foreign language teaching” gave birth to what we now identify as the Communicative Language Teaching approach (CLT). Teachers’ qualifications became important, motivations for learning were highlighted and the needs of individual classrooms and students themselves started to be questioned.

The early 90s saw the expansion of approaches emphasizing communicative properties of language and real world simulating tasks. Contrarily to earlier methods, the Communicative Approach expanded the creation of communicative competence, and teaching students how to use the language was considered to be at least as important as learning the language itself.

Brown (1994:77) pertinently describes the "march" towards CLT:

*Beyond grammatical discourse elements in communication, we are probing the nature of social, cultural, and pragmatic features of language. We are exploring pedagogical means for 'real-life' communication in the classroom. We are trying to get our learners to develop linguistic fluency, not just the accuracy that has so consumed our historical journey. We are equipping our students with tools for generating unrehearsed language performance 'out there' when they leave the womb of our classrooms. We are concerned with how to facilitate lifelong language learning among our students, not just with the immediate classroom task. We are looking at learners as partners in a cooperative venture. And our classroom practices seek to draw on whatever intrinsically sparks learners to reach their fullest potential.*

From this quote we can notice the importance given to the "use" of English as it was for the "usage". In fact, learning the language itself is the basis of any type of communication, but not practicing that language means that our learning is almost useless. Involving learners into the language contexts (speaking or writing the target language in real situation) would lead them to apply what they have been learning into the classroom; thus, they will achieve successful communicative goals.
For his part, David Nunan (1991:279) lists five basic characteristics of Communicative Language Teaching:

(1) An emphasis on learning to communicate through interaction in the target language.

(2) The introduction of authentic texts into the learning situation.

(3) The provision of opportunities for learners to focus, not only on the language but also on the learning process itself.

(4) An enhancement of the learner's own personal experiences as important contributing elements to classroom learning.

(5) An attempt to link classroom language learning with language activation outside the classroom.

Not going beyond the scope of this work, the different types of learning associated with the CLT approach are: Interactive Learning, Learner-centered Instruction, Cooperative and Collaborative Learning, Content-based Learning, Task-based Learning. In other words, some manifestations of the CLT approach can be found in the previously named learning types, namely the use of the target language in real-world communicative tasks.

3. ESP Evolution

Although English is just one of a wide range of languages being taught in the world, it remains the most promoted tongue in the majority of world countries. Currently, it remains the one language that has the authority, especially in the domain of international communication. It is now the “established language of science and business in the world” (Čepon, 2005).

English Language Teaching (ELT) and General English (GE) have as main branches what we know as English as a Foreign Language (EFL) and English as a Second Language (ESL). These ones include, in their side, a widely demanded branch named ‘the teaching of English
for Specific Purposes’ (ESP). Making of ESP a subdivision of language instruction is a
decision mainly based on a scientific approach to the study of specialized language varieties
(Barber, 1962).

During the 70s, in the U.S., doctors, lawyers and business professionals rang the alarm for
problems they faced with communication in their work. In fact, professional contexts
highlighted the linguistic breaches and miscommunication between medical personnel and
patients. As the number of non-native speakers entering the professions in English-speaking
countries grew larger, there has been a greater demand for teachers of ESP. this gave birth to
English for Science and Technology (EST), which “grew out of analyses of scientific research
articles and other scientific texts” (Van Naerssen and Eastwood, 2001). Besides, Barber’s
research results influenced the need for a specialized language for science and technology
rather than just technical and specialized vocabulary.

Slavica Čepon, in her research paper “Business English in Practical Terms”, notes the
emphasis on Specific, rather than Special purposes:

*The term English for Specific Purposes was common earlier but is now thought to
suggest special languages, i.e. restricted languages which constitute only a small part
of ESP. In practice, the acronym ESP is used without having to clarify what it stands
for. The very term emphasizes purpose or purposefulness. In other words, it implies
that the use of English is specific, and associated with professions, institutional
procedures and occupational requirements. (Čepon, 2005)*

Although, it gained enough renown in the whole ELT field during the last decades, especially
for syllabus designers, an exact definition of ESP and its belonging to ELT are not clarified
yet. Barber (1962) had noted that making of ESP a subdivision of language instruction is a
decision mainly based on a scientific approach to the study of specialized language varieties.
The general agreement is that ESP is “clearly a type of ELT” (Robinson, in Coleman 1989:
396). Some maintain that it does not exist and that its subdivisions are nothing but “degrees of
general English” (Kennedy and Bolitho 1984: 135). In addition, Strevens (in Tickoo 1988: 1),
goes in the same direction by defining ESP as “…a particular case of the general category of special-purpose language teaching”.

3.1 Phases of ESP Development

ESP has undergone five main phases of development: (1) Register Analysis, (2) Rhetorical Discourse Analysis, (3) Target Situation Analysis, (4) Skills-Centred Approach, and (5) Learning-Centred Approach.

3.1.1 Register Analysis:

Register analysis came into light mainly in the 1960s and early 1970s when syllabi for EST were established through it, i.e. according to the features of grammar and vocabulary of the language used in a given specialty. It was particularly associated to the work of Streves Halliday, McIntosh and Streves (1964), Ewer and Latorre (1969), who introduced A Course in Basic Scientific English as a typical example of the syllabus based on register analysis, and Swales (1971). The major principle of register analysis is that the English needed in one scientific field constituted a specific register different from those of other fields of science, or General English. Its aim was the identification of the grammatical and lexical features of different scientific registers. ESP, in this phase, focused on language at the sentence level.

3.1.2 Rhetorical Discourse Analysis

With the development of Discourse Analysis, ESP entered a second phase of development typically known as Rhetorical Discourse Analysis. To explain its fundamental assumption, Allen and Widdowson (1974) said that “…the difficulties which the students encounter arise not so much from a defective knowledge of the system of English, but from an unfamiliarity with English use…” (in Hutchinson and Waters 1987:10). They argued that in order to meet the learners’ needs, the ESP course has to be mainly based on the knowledge of how
sentences are combined and used to produce different types of communication because rhetorical patterns of text organization differ from one area to the other. Although this view was not given clear consideration earlier (Swales, 1985), some research about the discourse of subject-specific academic texts were used to make observations about discourse in general (Widdowson, 1978). After that, a significant consideration was given to the understanding of how sentences combine through discourse to produce meaning and further researches about rhetorical discourse analysis were meant to "identify the organizational patterns in texts and to specify the linguistic means by which these patterns are signaled. These patterns would then form the syllabus of the ESP course" (ibid.)

The main proponents of this movement were Henry Widdowson in Britain and the so-called Washington School of Larry Selinker, John Lackstrom and Mary Todd-Trimble in the United States. A Discourse Approach by Louis Trimble (1985) is also representative of this approach.

3.1.3 Target Situation Analysis

As its name indicates, this area aims at analyzing the possible situations in which the target language is used. By considering learners’ reasons for learning a foreign language, ESP courses are meant to provide learners with the maximum facility of acting appropriately in a target situation. The ESP course first identifies the target situation and then analyses its linguistic features. This will help designing a syllabus which provides learners with a clear image of the use of the language they are learning.

Usually referred to as “needs analysis”, a detailed explanation is given by Munby in his Communicative Syllabus Design (1978), in which learners’ needs are described in terms of communicative purposes, settings, means, language skills, functions, structures, etc.. Munby’s contribution to syllabus design brought fame to the approach of needs analysis, which consists
in studying the students’ needs via questions related to themselves and the language. This analysis is needed to limit the content to what learners want the foreign language for and avoid teaching the whole of it. It was at the centre of syllabus designers’ attention, especially ESP specialists. The concept of individual needs is of a dominant importance in teaching an ESP course because the teacher’s task will be facilitated when they know what learners need the language for.

Munby has worked on a model to explore every aspect of learners’ needs. It is a detailed and complex work in which he focused on the aspects of communication and the assumptions about the roles of language and the learner in the target situation. His attention was directed to the purpose, the channel of communication, the sociolinguistic aspects, pragmatics, and this means that culture and communicative purpose are very important in his model.

Munby's model consists of the following:

- Communication Needs Processor (CNP): made up of nine variables that ‘affect communication needs by organizing them as parameters in a dynamic relationship to each other’ (1978: 32). They are indispensable for the successful building of the course, and they consist in: the participant, purposive domain, setting, interaction, instrumentality, dialect, target level, communicative event and communicative key. These variables relate to the language and the learners’ communicative requirements.

- The interpretation of the results gathered through the CNP in terms of micro- and macro-functions. It helps us decide which of three alternative ways of processing the activities and the syllabus content is appropriate:
  - specification by focusing on micro-skills
  - specification by focusing on micro-functions
  - specification by focusing on linguistic forms
3.1.4 Skills-Centred Approach

Based on the generalization commitment of cognitive linguistics, which seeks the general principles of language phenomena, the skills-centred approach holds that "underlying all language use there are common reasoning and interpreting processes, which, regardless of the surface forms, enable us to extract meaning from discourse" (Hutchinson 1987:13). In other words, the Skills-Centred Approach attempts to consider not the language itself but the thinking and reasoning processes that underlie language use, which help students get the meaning from discourse and not from the surface forms. In this respect, it is needless to focus on specific registers because the underlying processes are not specific to any subject register.

3.1.5 Learning-Centred Approach

The fifth phase of ESP is said to have emerged out of the shortcomings of the preceding phases. Advocates of the Learning-Centred Approach argue that, previously, there were only descriptions of language use and not of the processes of language learning. So, this fifth phase of ESP is concerned with the question of what it really means to know a language.

The approach was at the centre of many investigations conducted by Hutchinson & Waters (1980, 1981, 1983, 1987, Hutchinson 1988). They define it as:

*ESP is not a matter of teaching ‘specialised varieties’ of English. The fact that language is used for a specific purpose does not imply that it is a special form of the language, different in kind to other forms. Certainly, there are some features that can be identified as ‘typical’ of a particular context of use and which, therefore, the learner is more likely to meet in the target situation. But these differences should not be allowed to obscure the far larger area of common ground that underlies all English use, and indeed, all language use. (Hutchinson & Waters 1987:18)*

Learning is determined by the target needs (the contextual necessities and lacks) and the learning needs (what learners need to do in order to learn), and Hutchinson & Waters argue that the general development of *competence* in the learner is prior to the information that they
deduce from the target situation. This competence is a combination of both the ability to acquire and perform the knowledge as quoted in: “...what we really want to discover is not the competence itself, but how someone acquires that competence” (Hutchinson & Waters 1987:73).

3.2 English for Business/Economics

Going deeper into ESP would reveal to us the ‘realm’ of English for Business Purposes (EBP) or Business English (BE), which represents the right arm of ESP. Nowadays, with the spreading demand for English as an International Language (EIL), EBP/BE became “almost an industry in itself” (Čepon, 2005). This unequaled demand is spreading because EBP/BE is a part of English for Professional Purposes (EPP) which itself belongs to English for Occupational Purposes (EOP) and the later being one of the two principal divisions of ESP (the other one is English for Academic Purposes: EAP). The relationship between all of these can be seen in "Tree of ELT" (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987), in the following Figure:
Thousands of websites offer services for BE courses online or make promotional offers and advertise for ‘real’ specialized and private schools. University students of Marketing, Finance or others are increasingly interested in learning the English jargon of their specialty. In this respect, the field of specialized publications was revealed to be very helpful through the proliferation of BE course books and teaching/learning materials. All of these societal developments (in the outside world) have played the major role in expanding BE, but the “pedagogical demand” for it is linked to “…a particular kind of learners, often adults, who already had both grammatical knowledge of English, and also a specific purpose in learning English” (ibid.)

EB is considered part of ESP because of some elements common to all fields of the ESP approach, namely needs analysis, syllabus design, material selection and development, etc. Thus, BE also utilizes particular language corpora and requires a particular language for particular channels and contexts of communication. The main purpose of teaching this branch of the English language is to prepare learners to work in the field of business. This approach is, therefore, described as needs-directed; it focuses on learners’ needs and views the successful use of the language in terms of a successful outcome of business transactions.

3.3 Business English Vs. General English

The borderline between BE and GE is not yet clearly set. It goes without saying that they have much in common; linguistic structures may be the major factor that comes to unite them. Also, it is argued that most BE teachers have initially been trained for GE teaching; thus, they possess no relevant expertise in the field of BE. Next, BE owes its main influence to ELT/GE as pointed out by Brieger (1997:3): “BE, which appeared on the ELT stage as a course programme and learning objective in the late seventies, has been shaped by a range of influences from both the ELT and the non-ELT world”. Ellis and Johnson (1994) also have
made us know that the mid-70s and 80s ELT/GE development are those that provided BE with its functional key language lists.

Next, and while admitting that learners’ needs are equally important in GE and BE teaching, the purpose of needs analysis is the subject matter of one major distinction between the two branches. For GE, needs analysis serves the assessment of the existing language knowledge and language needs of learners; however, the purpose of needs analysis in BE is rather to define the language properties required by the job that learners intend to do in the long run. This difference is “in theory nothing, in practice a great deal” (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987: 53). There are, of course, many other factors that highlight the distinction between BE and GE. As mentioned earlier, learners’ needs in GE are not given an immediate and imperative consideration as in BE, where the fact that language is used for a predetermined end is the key characteristic of this division. BE instruction will always aim at and relate to learners’ professional language needs; thus, BE courses come to have completely different aims than those of GE courses. Besides, BE aims at developing the specialist language knowledge and communication skills, not only the general knowledge and communicative abilities (Brieger, 1997). These skills are the major focus of a BE syllabus to allow learners foster business performances as: holding meetings, making presentations, writing reports, etc. The same is for mastering the use of formulaic functional language to make appointments, business lunches, discuss recommendations, give opinions, show agreement, discuss plans, etc.

3.4 Learners’ Motivation

Two main variables play a major role in second language learning; these are motivation and attitudes. The most known research works about motivation in L2 are those of the Canadian psychologist R.C. Gardner. In fact, Gardener (1985:10) defines motivation as a term
“referring to the extent to which the individual works or strives to learn the language because of a desire to do so and the satisfaction experienced in this activity.” He highlights two different kinds of motivation in a second language learning situation:

- **Instrumental Motivation:** in this one, the learner wants to learn a language to fulfill immediate goals, such as getting a job or succeeding in an examination etc. His/her motivation is of an instrumental kind.

- **Integrative Motivation:** it is the drive that makes students learn a language to communicate and integrate with people from another culture who speak the same language; it is called integrative motivation.

Most researchers agree that motivation plays a vital role in the learner’s achievement; it is often attributed with the capacity to override other factors, such as language aptitude, to affect achievement in both negative and positive ways.

Although its importance is widely recognized, its meaning is still elusive. According to Dornyei (1998: 117), “motivation has been widely accepted by both teachers and researchers as one of the key factors that influence the rate and success of second/foreign language (L2) learning.” Both General English and ESP courses essentially consider the understanding of the processes of language learning. Allowing for student-specific needs, various advantages of ESP courses result in greater time efficiency, relevance and more cost-effectiveness than General English. It is therefore claimed that ESP teaching is more motivating than General English. If the students are highly motivated, greater subject specificity is possible and conversely low motivation is likely to create a focus on less specific content.

Several researchers (e.g., Crooks & Schmidt, 1991; Dornyei, 2001) criticized Gardner's theory for its emphasis on the social aspects of motivation rather than on the role of motivation in the classroom. They argue that Gardner, as a social psychologist, was concerned with the effect of social variables on learners' motivation. This is not the case with language
teachers who are more concerned with the effect of the syllabus, lesson plans, and activities that the students need in the classroom. In addition, Crooks and Schmidt (1991) argue that the empirical evidence is not clear enough to support that integrative motivation is a cause and second language achievement is the effect. Moreover, Gardner’s "psychological closeness" is "at best opaque and at worst spacious" (Abdesslem, 2002: 5). Despite these criticisms Gardner’s model of motivation and attitudes continues to be the most influential theoretical framework used to account for the differences between language learners in terms of their motivation and attitudes.

Motivation to study a second/foreign language can be either intrinsic or extrinsic. ‘Intrinsic’ motivation means the urge to engage in the learning activity for its own sake and ‘extrinsic’ motivation means motivation that is derived from external incentives. To know which among the two is predominant with the learner is crucial but also important for teachers. Learners who are intrinsically motivated learn faster than learners who need external incentives to get motivated. Their learning is more likely to become mechanical learning in comparison to self-motivated learners. Self-motivated or intrinsically motivated students with high aspirations and goal orientation show better results. From a research paper made by Al Lockett and Monica C. Jones (2005), students who are intrinsically motivated:

- Earn higher grades and achieve higher test scores, on average, than extrinsically-motivated students (Dev, 1997; Skinner & Belmont, 1991)
- Are less disruptive and better personally adjusted to school (Skinner & Belmont, 1991)
- Employ metacognitive strategies that demand more effort and that enable them to process information more deeply” (Lumsden, 1994, p. 2)
- Are more likely to develop self-efficacy and feel confident about their ability to learn new material (Dev, 1997)
- Are more likely to engage in "tasks that are moderately challenging, whereas extrinsically oriented
students gravitate toward tasks that are low in degree of difficulty” (Lumsden, 1994, p. 2)
- Are more likely to spend more time on task and complete assigned tasks (Dev, 1997; Smaldino, 2002)

3.5 Learners’ Attitudes

We are including this factor because it has a great influence on learners’ motivation. Literally, an attitude is the way of feeling, thinking or behaving towards something or someone. Webster’s Revised Unabridged Dictionary (1913) defines ‘attitude’ as “a complex mental orientation involving beliefs and feelings and values and dispositions to act in certain ways”, while Collins Cobuild Student’s Dictionary explains that, “Your attitude to something is the way you think and feel about it”. Here, we are concerned with language attitudes, which Cristal (1992) defined as “…the feelings people have about their own language or the language of others”. All definitions comprise the word ‘feel’ or ‘feelings’; thus, we can resume attitudes as being emotional reactions or the degree of liking and disliking. Attitudes are also linked to a person’s values and beliefs, affective and emotional reactions, and behavioural tendencies related to the object of the attitude.

When we talk about the language learning classroom, we will have to consider the teacher, the textbook, classroom activities, peers, etc. The learner’s attitudes towards all of these influences his/her desire to learn. Attitudes, then, play an important role in the language learning classroom. As Krashen (1985) has proposed, attitudes can act as barriers or as bridges to learning a new language; they have positive and negative effects on learning and even on success. Positive attitudes, for instance, are very likely to produce the enjoyment of the course and the development of more efforts to learn. However, learners cannot manage to understand the input, may get bad marks at examinations and even be expelled from school just because their unwillingness to learn, particularly foreign languages, which they may consider useless in their future professional life. That is why language teachers should
establish the appropriate environment for learners to manifest positive attitudes towards the foreign language.

Agreement is generalized when it is stated that attitudes (together with others such as motivation, personality, etc.) affect the level of proficiency achieved by learners (Gardner, 1980, 1985; Oxford & Shearing, 1996), although the way they affect varies from a situation to another (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991). It is also agreed that positive attitude facilitates learning, and if the learner is reluctant to learn or does not have a positive attitude, he/she does not produce any result. An individual’s perception of the class, perception of the teacher, peer group, syllabus and personal awareness for future needs effect hi/her attitude to language learning.

4. Syllabus Types

“Syllabus” and “curriculum”: two poles of a dichotomy, about which definitions have diverged and still do. Different views to explain what a syllabus is are held by various linguists and specialists. Stern (1983: 434), for instance, holds that curriculum is a general term that covers “the entire instructional process” while syllabus, for him, means a list of content to be taught in a course. Yalden (1987:86) advocates that a syllabus is an instrument to link learners’ needs and aims to activities that take place in the classroom. Willing (1988, in Nunan 1988) as well, surveys the class and asks them which aspects they like best. Breen (in Nunan 1988) says that ‘syllabus’ has a broader sense and means the expression of belief, i.e. the psychology of learning, how a class is taught, and even the social development of learners. Munby (1978, in Nunan 1988), in another view, records in a syllabus the actual ability of learners, the purpose from learning the target language and situations expected in the course. Nunan and Burton (1985, in Nunan 1988) rather focus on the students and what type of program will suit each individually.
Different types of learning exist; and thus, they have to be delicately considered in syllabus construction. Gagne (1965: 58-58 in Brown 2000: 92) identifies eight types of learning: Signal, stimulus-response, chaining, verbal association, multiple discrimination, concept, principle, and problem solving. And, for Brown (1995: 142) there are seven common syllabuses: Structural, Situational, Topical, Functional, Notional, Skills, and Task or activity-based. He quotes Johnson (1978: 46 & 1981: 34) to point that there are simply different ways to organize a course and teachers are only expected to use their professional judgment to combine or adjust them. Various types of syllabuses, then, can be designed to serve different needs, and the most known ones are explained as follows:

4.1 The Linear / Spiral Syllabuses

The concept behind the "cyclical" or "spiral" syllabus is that chunks of language are gradually learnt by experiencing them alternatively in different contexts, i.e. there is an essential repeated experience of the same features of language in different combinations to express different meanings. This reflects the natural process of learning a language whereby the same things keep turning up in different combinations with different meanings.

In the past, language courses were not presented that way; they were rather "linear" in a way that new points were sequenced along in a line and each point was fully employed before moving on to the next. All the learning points were isolated and they were presented one after the other in a given order. They required a great deal of practice before moving on to the next item. Linear syllabuses’ materials were mainly based on grammar and failed to account for learners’ progress in multi-focal directions (Rutherford 1987). Spiral syllabuses have more pedagogical and psychological advantages, but they are more difficult to organize. This is the reason why linear syllabuses are more readily found.
4.2 The Lexical Syllabus

The lexical syllabus is mainly based on a detailed analysis of a carefully selected corpus (general or specific) of language reflecting the discourse of the target language community. The analysis in question may provide the syllabus designer with lists of the most frequently used words accompanied by their meanings and information about their typical grammatical and lexical environments, i.e. the collocations and patterns that words occur in. A lexical syllabus, in this case, includes grammar. The words and their contexts have notional and functional aspects but the organization principle is lexical, and this syllabus can offer a good deal of text explanation and a more considerable coverage of the language of the target discourse situation than other syllabus types. This syllabus, subsuming the Structural one, focuses on the commonest words as well as patterns of the language (Willis, 1990).

Besides, with its inventory of words (and their collocations, meanings and typical patterns), the lexical syllabus remains far very clear with easily identifiable patterns to allow learners recognize what each word or phrase stands for. Still, a lexical syllabus has one big failure when it comes to large lists of items for each meaning of one word. Such a syllabus, then, would have a length and a size only manageable by a devoted text-book writer.

4.3 The Structural Syllabus

Also known as the traditional syllabus, it is organized along grammatical items giving primacy to language form. The structural syllabus holds the theory that functional ability arises from structural knowledge. Structural patterns, organized according to such criteria as structural complexity, difficulty, regularity, utility and frequency, are the basic units of learning. It makes an abundant use of highly controlled, tightly structured and sequenced pattern practice drills. It deals with Semantics and sentence types such as statements, questions, interrogatives and grammatically defined types such as simple, compound and
complex sentences are seen. Morphology can also be found in structural syllabi such as singular, plural marking; determiners, articles, prepositions, gender markers and so on. In a structural syllabus, Grammar constitutes a familiar and frequently expected content, and according to it, grammatical concepts such as nouns, imperatives, plural, gerund are simply better defined than functional ones and also easily measured. Wilkins (1976) redefines the language content of the structural syllabuses through the following items:

- The notions or concepts the learners need to talk about,
- The functional purposes for which language is used,
- The situations in which language would be used, and
- The roles the learners might possibly play.

One other feature of the structural syllabus is its supposed generative aspect. Having learnt paradigms and pattern sentences, learners are supposed to be able to use this knowledge to generate their own sentences and express their own meanings. However, students generally spend years at schools learning the grammar of the foreign language and finally are unable to generate anything personal. Willis (1996) argues that the potential is there if the right conditions are provided.

4.4 The Notional-Functional Syllabus

Also described as “the semantically-based syllabus”, it stresses the communicative properties of language where the central concern is the teaching of meaning and the communicative use of patterns; it emphasizes what speakers communicate through language and derives its content from an analysis of learners' needs to express certain meanings. Wilkins (1976) wanted to identify the meanings that learners might need to express (the notions) and the communicative acts they would wish to engage in (the functions). Yalden (1987), also, says that these syllabuses are concerned with functions (e.g. agreeing, denying,
persuading …) and notions (e.g. time, concepts …). Notional-Functional Syllabuses are content based and are devised from theories of language use.

Initially, this seems a far better way of organizing a syllabus. Learning how to order a meal, how to ask for direction is obviously useful; this type of syllabus has its benefit in that even if one leaves the course after a long while one could still use what one has learnt in practical situations. It is, of course, something unexpected from a traditional grammatical syllabus (where the past tense is often ignored for a long while and theoretical uses of would appear even later; learners need to complete the whole course before they are able to do very much at all with the language).

It is also referred to as the Situational Syllabus in which the primary unit of organization here is a non-linguistic category, namely the situation, and the underlying assumption is that language is related to the situational contexts in which it occurs. The designer of a situational syllabus attempts to define the potential situations that the learner may be faced with (for example, a restaurant, an airplane, or a post office) because they will be the bases of language content selection and presentation.

The situational aspect of these syllabuses is based on Hornby’s situational method of using real activities performed in the classroom to emphasize getting things done rather than language laws. He disagreed with Chomsky and linked linguistic theory with communicative competence. He judged language in terms of possible, feasible, and appropriate (Yalden, *ibid*).

One problem with the notional functional syllabus is that it is often taught using a phrase-book approach which, in itself, is not generative. If you know the suitable phrase for a given situation you will go ahead successfully, but if it is more complex and you feel you are in need for a 'kit of grammatical rules' that helps you combine phrases and generate new
meanings, you will certainly have a communicative failure. So, a generative ability urgently needs it places within a notional/functional syllabus.

4.5 The Process Syllabus

The Process Syllabus is an approach to syllabus design sometimes thought of as ‘task-based’ or ‘procedural’ (McDonough & Shaw 1993:60). It focuses on the language learning process and the contributions of the learner to it (Breen 1987: 159). It takes into account decisions and alternative procedures, activities and tasks for the classroom group. It addresses teaching and learning explicitly and makes possible the interrelationships between subject matter, learning and the potential contributions of a classroom. The provided framework is one in which a predesigned content syllabus is publicly analyzed and evaluated by the classroom group, and the content is designed in an on-going way. In other words, this syllabus accepts the evolving nature of competence and adapts as it emerges gradually. In some cases, learners are encouraged to choose for themselves, but with guidance, which ways to follow through loads of activities and materials, motivated by their own interest.

A similar approach was based on tasks in Prabhu’s (1987) procedural syllabus consisting of: information, reasoning, or opinion, gap activities. Materials were not completely pre-constructed but were merely prompts for tasks that developed from the learners themselves.

4.6 The Procedural Syllabus

Advocated by Prabhu, its fundamental assumption is "that structure can best be learned when attention is focused on meaning." This syllabus is a substitute to the linguistic syllabus because it provides conceptually graded tasks grouped by similarity, the tasks and activities being planned in advance but not the linguistic content. White (1988: 102) adds that in this syllabus the focus is on the task and that it is learning-centred instead of learner-centred.
The emphasis here is on meaning rather than form. The learner is preoccupied with understanding, working out, relating, or conveying messages, and copes in the process, as well as he can with the language involved. There is no syllabus in terms of vocabulary or structure and no presentation of language items.

For Candlin (1987: 6) there is a mutual planning between learner and teacher, which leads to language learning, content, and actions explored and accomplished. Learners bring their past experiences to class and together figure out what it is they will do (Breen 1984: 54). Breen’s levels include decisions for classroom language learning, alternative procedures, activities, tasks, and on-going evaluation. Genuine communication and personal commitment occur as opportunities arise in class.

This syllabus answers the question of how language is to be learned; it is more concerned with the methodology in terms of “processes of learning and procedures of teaching” (White 1988: 94). The procedural syllabus seems to have been well examined and differs slightly from process syllabus which is organized around the learners’ preferences and negotiations. Candlin (1984: 34) argues that each syllabus is individual and cannot be predetermined or imposed.

4.7 The Relational Syllabus

The relational syllabus was proposed by Crombie (1985) and reported briefly in White (1988:78). It is based on items such as "notional relations such as cause-effect, or discourse relations, such as question-reply, or clause structure...." White (ibid). Like grammatical and notional/functional syllabuses, it just comprises certain parts and is not meant to cover all aspects of the whole linguistic system.
4.8 Other Syllabus Types

There are some other types of syllabuses not universally known but which are common in some countries like the United States, the United Kingdom or others. The following are just briefly introduced examples:

4.8.1. The Content-Based Syllabus

Content-based instruction allows learners to acquire language through the study of a series of relevant topics and each topic is exploited in a systematic way, as outlined in Mohan's "knowledge framework", (in Nunan, 1988:49-50). It is believed that if the teaching techniques are adjusted in a way to make students comprehended the content material as it is presented in the new language, both content and language acquisition do occur. The content-based instruction learning courses embrace a full range of communicative competence, including structural components (for grammatical competence), sociolinguistic, discourse and strategic competence. A general reading of literature or other content material of the target language can also be seen as a type of content-based learning. The content syllabus might be supplemented with traditional (form-focused) activities, such as vocabulary development, spelling, specific and intensive writing activities.

This syllabus is fully described in Mohan (1986) although considered too messy to be derived from any theory (White 1988). In analyzing this kind of syllabus, critics were mainly focusing on two criteria: coverage and accountability mainly summarized in some questions:

- Is it sufficient to produce a syllabus that is merely a list of topics?
- How will teachers know which particular items of language to focus on more closely?
- Which items will, in the long run, be of more use to the learner?
- Are Mohan and others (who design content-based "immersion programmes") relying, like Prabhu (1986), entirely on natural acquisition happening, with no overt focus on language form?
- If so, how do we ensure that the topics and texts chosen will give a sufficiently balanced exposure to the language that is representative of the target situation?
- How can adequate and balanced coverage be assured?
- Are topic always interesting for learners?

4.8.2 The Task-Based Syllabus

There has been a lot of debate on what a task exactly is, but all the definitions have a common characteristic: they suggest that tasks are concerned with communicative language. In other words, they refer to undertakings in which learners comprehend, produce and interact using the target language in contexts while focusing on meaning rather than form. Some of these definitions are:

- Nunan (1988: 159) defines a task as “a unit of planning/teaching containing language data and an activity or sequence of activities to be carried out by the learner on the data.”
- According to Long (1985), a task is “a piece of work undertaking for oneself or others, freely or for some reward […]. In other words, task is meant the hundred one thing people do in everyday life, at work, at play and in between.”
- According to Kramke (1987), “The defining characteristic of task-based content is that it uses activities that the learners have to do for language learning. Tasks are distinct from other activities to the degree that they have non-instructional purposes.”
- According to Nunan (1989), “A piece of classroom work which involve learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is principally focused on meaning rather than form. The task should also have a sense of completeness, being able to stand alone as a communicative act in its own right.”
According to Richards, Platt and Weber, “An activity or an action which is carried out as the result of processing or understanding language […] for example, drawing a map while listening to a tape […]. Task may or may not involve the production of language. A task usually requires the teacher to specify what will be regarded as successful completion of the task […].”

Task-based Syllabi grew from Prabhu’s assertion that “structure can best be learned when attention is focused on meaning” (Yalden 1987: 65). The courses under task-based learning are series of complex and purposeful tasks that students perform using the language they are learning without focusing on it. Tasks are defined as activities with a purpose other than learning the language, but, as in a content-based syllabus, the performance of the tasks is approached in a way that is intended to develop second language ability. Language learning is subordinate to task performance, and language teaching occurs only as the need arises during the performance of a given task. The language skills are improved as learners use language in specific settings. The selection and grading in this type of syllabuses is ‘roughly tuned’ in terms of task difficulty and successful task completion is decided by teacher and students together (White 1988: 45-47; Long & Crookes 1993: 12).

Task-based teaching differs from situation-based teaching in that while situational teaching focuses on teaching the specific language content that occurs in the situation (a predefined product), task-based teaching has the goal of teaching students to draw on resources to complete some piece of work (a process). Learners draw on a variety of language forms, functions, and skills, often in an individual and unpredictable way while completing the tasks. They will also have the chance to come across particular structures in different contexts. The tasks that can be used for language learning are, generally, tasks that the learners actually have to perform in any case. Examples include: applying for a job, negotiating compromises,
talking with a social worker, cooperating, filling in a credit card application, getting housing information over the telephone, and so on.

Task-based language teaching is concerned with communicative and cognitive processes. It requires students to apply cognitive processes of evaluation, selection, combination, modification, or supplementation (so called “higher-order thinking skills”) to a combination of new and old information, which allows language form to be learnt through language use.

4.8.3 The Cultural Syllabus

Stern (1992) introduces the ‘cultural syllabus’ to be incorporated into second/foreign language instruction. There have been different views to define the concept of culture: Seelye (1984:26), in refusing to define it, calls it ‘a broad concept that embraces all aspects of the life of man’, and Brown (1994) calls it the “glue” that binds a group of people together. For a better understanding, Stern (1992:208) suggests that writers ‘have tried to reduce the vast and amorphous nature of the culture concept to manageable proportions by preparing lists of items or by indicating a few broad categories’. Stern keeps on by discounting such lists as presented by Brooks and Chastain as providing only ‘cultural tidbits’. Nostrand’s (1978) emergent model is praised by Stern as an attempt to overcome this, as is Seelye’s observation that all of mankind have the same needs, and that different groups will satisfy these needs in different ways, as this gives a viewpoint for studying culture. However, Stern also implies that although both Nostrand’s and Seelye’s work give a viewpoint, they are difficult to be put in practice. Hammerly (1982) suggests a mix of anthropological culture and classical culture. He highlights three areas, i.e. information culture, behavioural culture and achievement culture. Stern believes this to be valuable, but claims that it does not solve the problem of the range of cultural topics.
Believing in the fact that there is a consensus on the objectives of teaching culture, Stern (1992) indicates that aims should be:

- A research-minded outlook
- The learner’s own country
- Knowledge about the target culture
- Affective goals; interest, intellectual curiosity, and empathy.
- Awareness of its characteristics and of differences between the target culture
- Emphasis on the understanding socio-cultural implications of language and language use

4.8.4 The Skill-Based Syllabus

Its content relies on learners’ particular skills in using the language. Skills are what learners are expected to be able to do for them to be competent in a language, relatively independently of the situation or context in which the language use may occur. In other words, a skill represents the way of using language that combines structural and functional ability but exists independently of particular settings or situations. Examples of reading skills may include skimming and scanning; writing may include writing memos or reports; speaking skills may involve giving instructions or personal information, and listening may consist of extracting specific information and so on. The skill-based syllabus combines various linguistic competencies (pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, and discourse) into generalized types of behaviour, such as listening to spoken language for the main idea, writing well-formed paragraphs, giving effective oral presentations, etc.

These syllabi have as a chief principle the development of learners’ abilities and competence in a foreign/second language and a secondary purpose of learning information incidentally available while applying the language skills. The ability to use language in some
particular ways is partly dependent on general language ability, partly based on the user’s experience and the need for a given skill. Efficiency and relevance of instruction are major strengths of skill-based syllabus.

4.8.5 The Objective-Based Syllabus

Also known as "Learning-centred Syllabus", it is described by Danielle Mihram (2003) as:

1. A reflective exercise that addresses the question: What do students need to know in order to derive maximum benefit from this educational experience?

2. A systematic sharing of knowledge (learning content) and an understanding of how knowledge can be comprehended and shared in different ways.

3. A change in focus that affects the students’ role: accepting responsibility for their own learning (this can be difficult for students who have been educated as passive learners).

4. It provides a clear statement of intended learning goals and student learning outcomes.

5. It answers questions such as: What do you want your students to learn? (What are the learning outcomes which you expect from the course?) - What assignments, classroom activities, and pedagogical approaches will help your students master the identified knowledge, skills, or attitude changes? - How will you determine that students have accomplished what you set out to teach them? (How will you evaluate their achievements?)

6. Requires substantial reflection and analysis in the planning stage.

7. It includes goals on content, process, and product.

8. It allows the instructor to engage into a scholarly approach to the knowledge and research relating to the course.

9. It engages students in the discovery of knowledge.
(10) Because it is a “learning tool”, it reinforces the intentions, roles, attitudes and strategies of the instructor.

(11) It is a “learning contract”.

(12) It clarifies the mutual responsibilities of both the teacher and the students in successfully meeting course goals.

(13) It allows students to achieve some personal control over their learning process.

Conclusion

Developing a syllabus undoubtedly requires some knowledge of what learners want and need to learn. The second focus ought to be directed towards a good method map designed according to what suits the learner and the learning environment. We will insist on using a method blend rather than a single method because, as explained earlier in the current chapter, no method is better than the others, and each has its pros and cons. That is why a selection of the best approaches each method could afford would be nothing but beneficial to a group of learners certainly not having the same expectations neither capacities.

We have been explaining the most influential types of syllabi used in the domain of ELT, and our conclusion is that, similarly to teaching methods, a syllabus should not be employed independently of other syllabus types. In other words, one type may be dominant, but since learners’ needs and expectations vary, different types of content would be integrated to hit two birds with one stone. Skill-based, task-based, notional, structural – could all these exist each on its own into one course? Obviously, no; that is why approaches to needs analysis, learners’ motives to learn and attitudes toward learning, toward the teacher, toward the language and learning environment have seen the light. As Hutchinson and Waters (1987:51) state “it is wise to take an eclectic approach, taking what is useful from each theory and trusting also in the evidence of your own experience as a teacher”. The various points of
ELT/ELL studied in this chapter as well as our own experience present important insights for the implementation of our course.
Chapter Two: Discourse Analysis

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Chapter Two: Discourse Analysis

Introduction

It remains difficult to give a single and comprehensive definition of ‘discourse’ since its introduction to modern science in general to applied linguistics in particular. It has been associated with various and more or less broad meanings. The disagreement of linguists lies in the fact that some use it in reference to texts while others argue that it designates speech. The later is, for instance, illustrated by the following definition: "Discourse: a continuous stretch of (especially spoken) language larger than a sentence, often constituting a coherent unit such as a sermon, argument, joke, or narrative" (Crystal 1992:25). Nunan (1993), as well, discussed the divergence of views and the interchangeable use of the terms ‘discourse’ and ‘text’. While for some linguists one term may substitute the other, for others ‘discourse’ only means language in context and ‘text’ is any written record of a communicative event. Accordingly, discourse represents a blend of language, individuals producing it and the context in which it is used because the communicative event may involve oral or written language.

1. Discourse Analysis Historical Development

Broadly speaking, discourse analysis is a linguistic study observing the use of language functions and forms produced both in spoken interaction and in writing. It also identifies the linguistic characteristics of different genres necessary for recognizing and interpreting them in relation to the cultural and social factors that consolidate its comprehension. Carter (1993:23) defines it as the branch of applied linguistics dealing with the examination of discourse and attempting to find patterns in communicative products as well as their correlation with the circumstances in which they occur, which are not explainable at the grammatical level.
The starting point of discourse analysis was Zellig Harris’s study of the relationship that exists between sentences which, afterwards, stood for a whole branch of applied linguistics (Cook 1990:13). This study was brought to light not only because of linguistic research, but also because of researches conducted in a variety of disciplines - sociology, psychology, anthropology and psychotherapy (Trappes-Lomax 2004:133). Thus, discourse analysis takes different theoretical perspectives and analytic approaches: speech act theory, interactional sociolinguistics, and ethnography of communication, pragmatics, conversation analysis, and variation analysis (Schiffrin, 1994). Although each approach stresses different aspects of language use, they all view language as social interaction.

During the 1960s and 1970s, more researchers dealing with pragmatics significantly contributed to the development of this study. Text grammarians and The Prague School of Linguists, through focusing on the organization of information in communicative products, did influence the study as well by indicating the connection that exists between grammar and discourse (McCarty 1991:6).

Recent researches have been focusing on the application of discourse analysis to second language teaching and learning. Hatch (1992), McCarthy (1992), McCarthy and Carter (1994), Riggenbach (1999) and Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000) provide detailed introductions to discourse analysis and a special attention to the needs and experiences of language teachers.

1.1 Discourse Analysis and Second Language Teaching

Discourse analysis has also been applied to foreign language teaching and learning; its integration to the field may facilitate the process in a way that teachers could improve their task by scrutinizing actual language use both in and out of the classroom. The fact is that learners cannot really develop their communicative competence using a restricted contact with
the language, few opportunities for interacting with native speakers and a limited exposure to
the variety of functions, genres, speech events, and discourse types that occur outside the
classroom. Given all these restrictions, teachers have to exploit further opportunities for
student participation through a classroom research based on some discourse analytic
techniques. For instance, a process of record-view-transcribe-analyze may help them
understand their personal teaching behavior or even allow them to study the interaction
patterns inside the classroom and see how these patterns support or hamper opportunities for
learners to practice the target language. This technique may also allow them to observe their
students in various classroom activities, such as student-to-student interactions during a role-
play task and during a small-group cooperative learning activity. Given that teachers use
communicative tasks to evaluate learners' proficiency, a better understanding of the influence
of specific activities on learners' discourse would likely lead teachers to use a greater variety
of tasks in order to gain a more comprehensive picture of students' abilities and help them
chose the appropriate tasks or communicative activities likely to encourage interaction and
provide opportunities for students to engage in talk.

Discourse analysis developed to be used in classroom investigation in order to comprehend
cross-cultural linguistic patterns that may be lead to communicative difficulties. The instance
is that some learners may engage in verbal communication while someone else is taking a
turn-at-talk. For some linguistic groups, this discourse behaviour can be interpreted as a signal
of engagement and participation while other speakers may view it as a disruption and
imposition on their speaking rights. Similar situations make of discourse analysis an
important tool for making apposite changes in instructional practices. Finally, a significant
role of discourse analysis is that it may constitute a fundamental element of programs of
professional development, which include classroom-based research, for all teachers with the
overall aim of improving the teaching process (Johnson, 1995).
1.2 Discourse Analysis and Second Language Learning

In foreign language learning, learners are expected to acquire not only the linguistic properties of it, but also the discourse competence that governs sociolinguistic and interactional proficiency. They need to view the language from different angles and understand it at all levels (Riggenbach, 1999; Young and He, 1998). Comprehending the socio-cultural patterns of the target language would help them get the difference between it and their first language, and thus have less communication difficulties and misunderstandings.

One major trouble for second language learners is their narrow exposure to almost all the interactive practices and real world exchanges using the target language. In this case, it seems vital to reveal for them different discourse patterns in different texts and interactions. Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000), McCarthy and Carter (1994), and Riggenbach (1999) view that the best way to include discourse is to allow the students themselves to study language, that is, to make them discourse analysts. Their exploration of language use would result in a better understanding of the discourse patterns of a given genre or speech event as well as the sociolinguistic factors that contribute to linguistic variation through different contexts. For example, students can study speech acts in a service encounter, turn-taking patterns in a conversation between friends or other aspects of speech events. Riggenbach (1999) suggests a wide variety of activities that can easily be adapted to suit a range of second language learning contexts.

One discourse feature that learners may get to analyze, as an activity, is known as backchannels, which are brief verbal responses that an interlocutor uses while another is talking. Examples of such activities may be: ‘mm-hmm’, ‘ok’, ‘I see’, ‘yeah’, and ‘oh wow’; still, non-verbal forms (such as head nods) are also included. Research in this respect brought evidence of the variation in the use of backchannels within different languages. There was a distinction not only in the frequency but also in the type of backchannels, their placement in
the ongoing talk and their interpretation by the participants (Clancy, Thompson, Suzuki, & Tao, 1996). To understand the variation, students, through video sequences, can collect, analyze, interpret data themselves and compare to discourse features found in other speech events. Through this discourse approach to language learning, students will be able to investigate the interactive, concrete side of language and not only be bound to the grammatical units presented in textbooks.

In sum, the first application of discourse analysis to foreign language instruction would be for teachers not only a research method to understand their own teaching practices but also a tool for studying interactions among language learners. The second is that learners can benefit from using discourse analysis to explore what language is and how it is used to achieve communicative goals in different contexts. Thus discourse analysis can help to create a second language learning environment that more accurately reflects how language is used and encourages learners toward their goal of proficiency in another language.

2. Discourse and Context

According to Cook, language cannot be analysed in isolation; there is a need to link it to the communicative context in which it is used. It is clearly explained in the following:

Although the main focus of discourse is on language, it is not concerned with language alone. It also examines the context of communication: who is communicating with whom and why; in what kind of society and situation; through what medium; how different types and acts of communication evolved, and their relationship to each other.(Cook: 2001)

He also argues that “…discourse analysis views language and context holistically” and defines context as:

(1) Substance: the physical material that carries text.

(2) Paralanguage: the meaningful behaviour accompanying language.

(3) Situation: the properties and relations of objects and people in the vicinity of the text.
(4) Co-text: the text preceding or following the one under analysis.

(5) Intertext: text which the participants perceive as belonging to other discourse, but which they associate with the text under consideration, and which affects their interpretation.

(6) Participants: their intentions, interpretations, knowledge, beliefs, attitudes, relationships and feelings.

(7) Function: what the text is intended for.

The context and the language used in it are interrelated and act in a meaningful and unified way. The role of discourse analysis is to describe this interaction through the human cognitive processes and the features specific to a given culture. Taking context into account is a fundamental matter for the study of language because no communicative act exists without specific participants, paralanguage and function.

3. Discourse and Communicative Purpose

Communication provides individuals with an access to a huge amount of information, and the Communicative context determines what each individual is supposed to say, at which moment, in which place, to which participants, the norms of interaction between them, about which topic and for which purpose. All these functions help learners of the foreign language achieve their general, social communicative purpose (giving or asking for instructions, inquiry, invitation, apology, request, etc) (Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2000 : 274, 238).

The identification of the communicative purpose is also the leading way to any sort of genre analysis. It is all about studying the goal of the text, as this constitutes the rationale for the genre. It is important because it helps determine the structure of the discourse and constrains both the content and how that content is expressed. To understand the rational
under the study of the communicative purpose, we must have a concise definition of the genre and its place within the study of discourse.

3.1 Defining Genre

‘Genre’ is a term borrowed by discourse analysis from literary studies. It has been used in rhetoric and literary theory to refer to a distinctive type of text. Then, it has been extended further than its traditional use in literary contexts to include all purposeful uses of language. It was defined by Swales (1990: 58) as ‘a class of communicative events which share some set of communicative purpose’:

*These purposes...constitute the rationale for the genre. This rationale shapes the schematic structure of the discourse and influences and constrains choice of content and style...In addition to purpose, exemplars of a genre exhibit various patterns of similarity in terms of structure, style, content and intended audience.*

Genres generally refer to social practices that have evolved to enable us achieve our goals (Martin 1985; Painter 2001). Our daily lives are marked by a wide range of situations which involve conventional and frequent patterns of language use. Without these, our interactions would be random and disorganized. The social groups and cultures we belong to help us identify the basic expectations of various situations and make us able to respond using the appropriate genre.

Genres are found in literary works (poetry, prose, drama, etc.) or in modern media (films: action, romance, thriller; TV programmes: documentaries, game-shows, etc.). A given piece of discourse may represent various genres at a time. For example, in the words ‘movie’, ‘story’ and ‘action’ we can have one piece of discourse with the three genres altogether. And to identify a genre, we should take into account both verbal and non-verbal forms of communication. Movies, for instance, may or may not include a verbal communication, but in both cases the explanation varies from a spectator to another as well as from a movie to another. The same is found in the domain of economics, especially in the world of
advertising. Some ads may or may not include language, but interpreting them depends on each customer’s view.

The examples stated above are to explain the importance of genres in communication. Also, the participants’ distinguishable ways of identification make that discourse analysis is in need of the context to describe the text. In speech, Cook (2001) argues that identifying a genre may depend on “whether the language is shouted or sung, whether it is beamed down from a satellite on to millions of television screens or whispered in darkness to one person through the grille in a confessional”. Then, in writing, it may depend on whether it “…is scribbled in pencil, embossed in gold…or flanked by linking instructions and icons on the World Wide Web” (Cook, 2001). He adds that a genre’s description is largely linked to its social function just like when a society is analyzed through the genres people use, and “changes in genre are indicative of rapid social change”.

Genres are, then, the core identification of the communicative purposes. Their analysis is meant to explain socio-cultural, institutional and organisational constraints upon communication, and to identify conventionalised regularities in communicative events.

3.2 Genres and Learning

The study of genres and their role in language instruction has primarily been theorized in terms of learning a first language. According to Bakhtin (translation 1986), learning genres is a fundamental part of language development- it is our ability to predict the compositional structure and length of genres that enables us to communicate. Few works have been devoted, however, on developing a genre-based theory of second language learning, though functional linguists such as Lock (1996) and Melrose (1995) have sought to lay the groundwork. Lock argues that learning a second language means gaining progressive control over the systems of options in the new language, i.e. learning which options to select to make which meanings in
which contexts. Beginners have very limited options (a few structures, some lexical items, some unanalysed chunks), but advanced ones have developed a greater range of options and are able to make more delicate distinctions of meanings appropriate for different contexts. Thus, learning new genres is seen as extending the learner’s meaning-making potential.

Linguists view that language has to serve various purposes, as there are different types of occasions for using it, i.e. language serves different functions according to concrete situations. This functional approach to describing language has its roots in the traditions of Firth (1957), who viewed language as interactive and interpersonal, as a way of behaving and making others behave. Halliday (1985) believes that language is what it is because it has to serve certain functions. In other words, social demands on language have helped to shape its structure. He provides one of the best expositions of language functions, using the term “function” to mean the purposive nature of communication and outlining various different functions of language.

4. Discourse as a Specific Input

There is a discourse type proper to each field, and it also includes a whole constellation of genres. We often find a variety of closely related and overlapping genres, sometimes within but often across discourse communities, some of which may include: promotional genres, reporting genres, introductory genres, academic genres, letter genres, textbook genres, e-mail genres, etc. For instance, within the field of law, there is the discourse of lawyers and judges, and it involves such genres as sue cases, judgments, contracts, agreements etc. Public administration also has its typical discourse revolving around government documents, political communication, news reports, policy statements, international treaties, etc. As for mass media, it is a large spectrum of editorials, News reports, review articles, advertisements, sports reports, letters to the editor, etc.
In recent years, ESP and professional communication have been influenced by the developments in the analysis of professional discourse, which allies text and context and favours an integration of the discursive practices of various professions in the context of their typically preferred disciplinary practices. The objective of all these areas (ESP, communication, discourse analysis) is to develop a deep understanding of how different professionals achieve their disciplinary as well as institutional goals. Based on research about genre analysis, this presentation will argue for an integration of discursive as well as disciplinary practices of professions within and across professional cultures in order to develop a shared understanding of the acquisition of professional expertise in specific ESP contexts, which will serve all the three areas of specialist application.

With the observation and the identification of the discursive structures of a specific input, learners find it easier to comprehend the content and the existing relationships within it. For instance, if learners have to be involved in a discussion group of native speakers or English speaking foreigners, the analysis of discourse in this context will offer them insights as to the transactional and interactional nature of the group. In the classroom context, teachers may provide students with samples of miscommunication between native and nonnative speaking learners to prepare them to communicate more effectively in a professional setting. If we take the example of intonation in oral discourse, Halliday (1985, cited in Clennell, 1999:119) argues that native speakers of English change the pitch of lexical items within an utterance as they follow a system of hierarchical prominence or tonic stress, and Clennell (1997:117) sees that a successful use of discourse intonation is the key to effective cross-cultural communication. So, if a non-native speaker of English fails to identify this prominence they can easily misunderstand the propositional content of an utterance and themselves give inappropriate messages.
Various language issues are involved in the study of ESP, among which typical ones are grammar in ESP, vocabulary in ESP or discourse analysis. There has been a growing interest in genre as a powerful means of analyzing and understanding texts in cross-disciplinary areas. The concept of genre evolves with a new perspective on the nature of language, which views language as a functional tool for achieving particular purposes. As a result a genre-based approach to language learning has gained an important place in language learning and teaching. A focus on genre analysis provides learners with the opportunity to acquire the specific relevant knowledge that they can use in undertaking oral or writing tasks in their profession.

Genre, as a communicative act within a discourse network, represents the repertoires of social responses in recurrent situations and is used to package speech and make it recognizable to the demands of the situation (Berkenkotter and Huckin, 1995). Genre analysis refers to the study of the structural and linguistic regularities of particular genres or text types and the role they play within a discourse community (Dudley Evans and St John, 1998). In ESP, genre analysis began with Swales’ (1981, 1990) work on the introduction to an academic article. He (1990) analysed the development of the concept genre in the fields of folklore studies, literature, linguistics, and rhetoric. In the field of Language for Specific Purposes (LSP) there has been growing interest in the socio-cultural functions of disciplinary genres. Howe (1990; 1993) focuses on the “problem question” in law and analyzed the features of scripts from criminal law, public law, contract law, and tort. Bhatia (1993) has analyzed legal cases from two aspects- communicative purpose and structural interpretation. Maley (1985) and Bowles (1995) also provided their versions of law report analysis from a structural perspective.
The analysis of discourse in general, and genre in particular, situates texts within textual and social contexts, underlining the social nature of the production and reading of texts. As well as locating texts within specific cultural contexts. Besides, this analysis offers a chance to see synthesis, looking at similarities and differences across works. Bhatia (1997) holds that there are at least four distinct, though systematically related, areas of competence that an ESP learner needs to develop in order to get over his or her lack of confidence in handling specialist discourse. Genre analysis, thus, is an indispensable and feasible means employed in the analysis of different discourses of professional communication for specific purposes.

5. Discourse in Economics

English for Business Purposes (EBP) has become an increasingly important, even dominant, area of ESP; the work of discourse and genre analysis provides a fuller understanding of how specific texts, both written and spoken, work within this discipline. The discourse of Economics and Business encloses various systems of genres, such as, memos, reports, case studies, letters, proposals, financial plans, memoranda, e-mails, etc.

As explained by Royce (1999), Economics’ discourse was, recently, at the centre of an increased interest; both economists and applied linguists made of it a target field of research and a whole “body of work” that focused on their “academic backgrounds” as well as the evolution of language teaching and discourse analysis. Such a work was beneficial in determining how “economists use language to express themselves” and helped resolve issues that learners encounter while learning the discourse of Economics.

5.1 Analysis of the Economics’ Discourse

Research in this specialized discourse has been stimulated mainly by the preoccupation of economists about the kind of discourse they exchange between themselves and that between them and non-economists. As far as the former one is concerned, they came to conclude that
“the ways they communicate their ideas in economics do not accurately correspond to the ways they actually “do” economics”. A leading economist, arguing for “a new methodology of economics”, suggests that economists should review the way they use their own discourse (Donald McCloskey 1983, 1984, 1986, 1990; in Royce, *ibid.*). He studied that discourse from two perspectives, which he coined as "official and unofficial" (relating to the scientific method) and “explicit and implicit” (1986:5), concluding that econmists tend to use the unofficial, implicit rhetoric of economics. He, thus, found out that “the rhetoric of economics should be examined by those economists who use it, suggesting that the quality of their argument would be at a more sophisticated level if they were more aware of the grounds on which they were arguing” (Royce, *ibid.*).

The study of economics’ discourse was not limited to economists but to researchers in applied linguistics, too. Some of them (such as Dudley-Evans 1990, 1991, 1993; and with Hewings 1987a, 1987b, 1990) conducted useful works relevant to the analysis of the rhetoric of economics with McCloskey. The debate between those researchers and economists has spread “a growing awareness that opportunities have been created for establishing common ground between language specialists and economists” (Royce, *ibid.*). Other studies in the same respect also included the historic side of economics’ rhetoric, as viewed by Adam Smith (Bazerman 1993; Brown 1993), Francis Edgeworth and Alfred Marshall (Henderson 1993), and John Maynard Keynes (Rotheim 1988; Anuatti 1991; Favretti 1991). Royce’s work (1995) includes: (1) an analysis of the lexical or syntactic aspects of economics discourse, (2) a study of the discourse of economics beyond sentence level and (3) the analysis of economics discourse for pedagogical purposes (*op.cit.*:138).
5.2 Visual Information in the Discourse of Economics

Information in the discourse of economics may be presented in the form of texts or “pictorial formats”, which are more expressive and more useful in simplifying data while making reports, observing money flows, analysing trade activities or else. Visual information in this type of discourse helps locate pieces of information, makes data or economic indicators clearer and helps retain information; it may be understandable without the associated text (although this relationship is important but not well investigated), and it comes in various forms: graphs (including: production possibilities frontier (PPF), time-series graphs, multicurve diagrams, etc.), infographics, drawings, charts (bar, line, pie, column, scatter, area), tables, etc..

Economists use the scientific approach to deal with economic problems, which leads them to use extra-linguistic features (mainly mathematical equations ranging from simple algebraic expressions to more complicated formulae). Their rhetoric is highly quantitative because they test hypotheses and their validity, and then communicate their findings, in the form of statistics, through models and reports.

In a classroom environment, lessons that are exclusively text-based are most likely to be boring and monotonous. Besides making learners understand the nature of the economic activity that the data represent, visuals break the monotony and make lessons more interactive. Mead and Lilley (1974) believe that students of economics should learn the most common and complex forms of language before getting to the simpler skills needed to understand the rhetoric of economics, and that a better understanding of these relies on the use of visual materials. Some of the commonly used forms in economics’ discourse include: the conditional (Lipsey, 1996, in Mead & Lilley, ibid.), comparatives and superlatives, connectors, etc.; while visuals include: charts (useful to show: the different components of economics and how they interact under particular market situations, the distribution of income
among families, etc.), graphs (for instance: to measure economic output in terms of available factors of production), maps (to show the imports and exports of a given country), diagrams (to show the relationship between demand and supply), tables (to demonstrate the monthly cost of oil per household), etc.

5.2.1 Visual Information as a Literary Device

One of the most frequently used literary devices in the language of economists is figurative, and it is: metaphors. McCloskey (1986) argues that the scientific nature of the discourse of economics does not prevent it from being a rhetorical discipline that uses analogy and metaphor (such as: *invisible hand*, *depression*, *galloping inflation*, *sharks* referring to greedy investors, *healthy growth in jobs*, *laying the cards on the table*, etc.). With Henderson (1986), they agree upon the metaphoric nature of visual information, and its importance in making the complex abstract content of economics easier to understand and retain.

Royce observed that non-experts may be unable to decipher the information contained in supply-and-demand diagram for the reason that "...elementary supply and demand diagrams are in fact iconic metaphors i.e. they are like a map of a town that does not exist....or they are like maps of all possible towns of a certain type" (1999). Besides being important for understanding the content of an economics’ subject, metaphors can also be problematic if the “student is required to extend his or her understanding beyond the given example”. For instance, the interaction of supply and demand determines the market price, and in order to understand a diagram analysing real a world market, “the notion of price itself must be seen as a metaphor and applied to all sorts of phenomena not normally seen as a price, e.g. income and wages as a price for labour” (Royce, *ibid.*).

McCloskey and Henderson are not applied linguists, but economists. The way McCloskey defined visual information as a literary device lacks legitimacy for he was unable to determine
the functional relationship between visual and verbal modes. However, the awareness he raised about the importance of visual information in the rhetoric of economics’ discourse acknowledges the need for analytical tools to investigate that area.

5.2.2 Visual Information in Syllabus Design

Visual information is part of the teaching syllabi in economics’ discourse classes. This means that visual information has been given attention by instructors and course designers. Treating this kind of information might help deal with learners’ problems in comprehending the complicated discourse of economics. In the EAP domain, for instance, Hewings’ and Henderson’s (1987) works refer to their use of graphs, tables, and flow diagrams to help learners read bank articles and understand the information structure of the reading passages (op.cit:167). Schleppegrell (1985), also, discusses the importance of using authentic materials that require the use of tabular information for a better understanding of reading passages. As far as reading comprehension is concerned, De Escorcia (1984) provides tasks where learners are required to convert textual information into schematic forms. In the University of Birmingham's economics’ education and ESP/EAP courses, students are not only required to develop linguistic competency but also understand mathematical system through tabular information (Houghton and King’s, 1990).

The importance of visual information is also acknowledged in the work of Allen and Pholsward (1988). They revealed that the main difficulties that students encounter while reading in economics consist of: (1) grammatical structures (conditionals, passives, etc.), (2) rhetorical functions (hypothesis, prediction, etc.), and (3) the use of visual data (schematic forms, tables, graphs, etc.).
Although the mention of visual information in some works seems to be brief, its importance in economics texts is acknowledged, and its use in course plans is revealed to help learners get a better understanding of the specialised texts.

**5.2.3 Teaching Materials and Pedagogy**

Jordan (1978) analysed the program developed at the University of Manchester and made a report investigating problem areas that students encountered in studying economics’ discourse. The main difficulty was understanding figures that consisted of tabular information, segmental diagrams and mathematical codes (1978:181). In another report, he talked about the choice of methods and materials designed in a teaching program to meet the needs of 32 overseas graduate students of economics (Jordan 1984, in Royce 1999). These materials included visuals that students had to work on in oral communication tasks (pair works, role plays and problem solving), and which Jordan refers to as “describe and draw” (1984:84). In such a program, students develop the ability to talk about visual information and the accompanying text.

In other works, Royce describes the structure of teaching materials and pedagogical techniques meant to fulfill the needs of students and assist them with the discourse of economics (1984, 1993, 1994).

**Conclusion**

This chapter has given a brief overview of the various significant contributions to the analysis of economics discourse by applied linguists over the last decade, by grouping them into three broad categories, Micro-studies, Macro-studies and Educational Studies. It has also attempted to show that this interest in economics discourse has not been confined to applied linguists, but that members of the economics discourse community have also been concerned with the nature of their own means of communication. It has been an area of lively debate, as
the reactions of economists and applied linguists to Donald McCloskey's The Rhetoric of Economics (1986) illustrate.

The central focus of this chapter, however, has been an effort to show that although there is clear evidence of recognition of the importance of visual forms of communication in economics discourse in the literature by applied linguists, there is also clear evidence of a general lack of a rigorous treatment, a lack which betrays a need. Some of the studies reviewed here have treated visual information linguistically in a limited way, such as Tadros' (1985) analysis of advance labelling in linguistic prediction in economics textbooks. Many others have touched on visual information only briefly, well within the confines of the purpose of their studies, whether they are an exploration of some syntactic aspect of economics discourse, a discussion of student problems, or a report on a syllabus. The overall picture, however, is one of a need to examine and account for visual information in a more rigorous way, to ascertain just how the various visual modes utilised make and project their meanings, and more importantly, to describe, explain and account for the semiotic connections between them and their verbal co-text.
Chapter III: The Study

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2. Methodology / Tools
3. Students’ Questionnaire
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   4.1 Teachers’ Qualifications and Experiences
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      4.2.1 Conceptions of Learning Needs and Objectives
      4.2.2 Determining the Needed Skills and Capacities
   4.3 Teachers’ Implementation of the Course
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Chapter III: The Study

Introduction

The current chapter is dedicated to the case study and the findings obtained with the investigation tools. The objective of this case study is to design an appropriate syllabus for Commerce second year students, at the University of Constantine, through the investigation of learners’ and teachers’ views and expectations. Hence, a descriptive section is devoted to the sample population and research method and tools. Two descriptive and analytic sections are devoted to data presentation and analysis of students’ and teachers’ questionnaires.

1. Population/ Sample

The participants in this research are the students and teachers of the Department of Commerce in the University of Constantine. The first group of population we have investigated is a sample of second year students in Commercial Sciences and Economics, ranging from 19 to 23 years. The number of the more or less regularly attending students is 360, and those who participated in our data collection are 120 second year students. These are assumed to be in the same level since they received English courses in relatively identical public Algerian institutions during an average of six years (in middle and secondary school). They would, thus, provide a homogeneous sample as far as cultural background and instructional input are concerned. Currently, they are taught English as a subject matter within the whole curriculum and during four years of academic studies.

In addition, the whole number of English teachers working in the Department of Commerce is 9, and those who accepted to help us gather information are five teachers. They are employed in the department for different levels of instruction but have all experienced teaching the English course for students of the second level.
2. Methodology and Research Tools

The present study is an attempt to investigate the global teaching/learning situation of the English course in the Department of Commerce, University of Constantine. The reason why it is conducted is to, finally, design an English course that meets the overall objectives and learning needs. The present study is based on quantitative data collection technique, and for gathering the necessary information about the situation in question, we have used two questionnaires for both groups of participants: students and teachers. This collection is supported by personal observations and experience with Commerce students in general. The whole data is important in this study because it was a direct exploration of the participants’ expectations from and criticism towards the course. It is, then, our core consideration for the improvement of the main limitations which hinder successful achievements of both teachers and learners.

The first questionnaire was administered to the students with the aim of investigating their needs, their attitudes, their expectations from the course, etc. The collected information is impartial since the participants’ answers were anonymous. There are four sections within this questionnaire, arranged in multi-option question patterns. The first one was meant to gather personal information about the participants, i.e. their identity and personal characteristics. The second concerned their learning experiences and motivation as far as the English course is concerned. The third part highlighted the learners’ proficiency level, and the fourth enclosed their attitudes towards the course, their perceptions, their lacks and their expectations from the course, the teacher and the institution.

The second questionnaire was destined to teachers. It focuses on several aspects of their attitudes towards the teaching/learning of English, and it was mainly designed for use in the process of establishing an ESP course. Three chief divisions form the skeleton of this questionnaire. The first one supplies us with essential information about the participating
teachers’ qualifications and experiences, be them in the domain of BE or GE. The second is concerned with their visions about the course. They have been providing us with ESP data, i.e. learners' needs from the Business course and the skills they are expected to acquire to achieve the learning objectives. Third part focuses on teachers' implementation of the course, their various contributions to the current teaching/learning process (choice of materials, use of textbooks, classroom management, etc) and their suggestions for the amelioration of the learning environment.

3. Students’ Questionnaire

The first questionnaire was given to Commerce students (cf. Appendix 1). It is made up of 23 questions gathered under four major sections. Its aim is to collect data about their personal characteristic, motivation and attitudes towards the language and its role in the curriculum, proficiency level, learning preferences and different expectations from the course. All the information is converted into numerical data to facilitate the interpretation of the findings. At the end of this part, we will provide a summary of these findings and further expectations to be made for the design of a relevant syllabus.

All the questions related to the aim of this study and the responses are presented below:

3.1 Students’ Identity / Personal Characteristics

**Question (1):** it was meant to determine students’ age categories. The results are gathered in the following table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>16.66%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>42.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>09</td>
<td>7.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>09</td>
<td>7.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>01</td>
<td>0.83%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 1: Students’ age*
Table 1 displays the different age categories present in the sample. One can notice that their age ranges from 19 to 23 years old, with only one exception of a 28 years old participant. The differences shown in the table have several dimensions and this will be explained in the discussion section. Others have attended their primary school at a very young age (16.66% of the participants), and others have probably changed the field of studies for a reason or another.

**Question (2): Students’ Gender.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>35%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>65%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 2: Students’ gender*

Learners’ gender may play some decisive roles in the process of learning. For instance, as far as learning styles are concerned, some students may find it more appropriate to group with class-mates of the same gender because it facilitates their interaction. More, from a socio-cultural perspective, it may affect the learners’ objectives, their needs and their expectations from the course.

From the data collected in the questionnaire (Table 2), the leading majority of learners are females, with 65% of the sample, and only 35% male learners. We assume that this element of the gathered information must be taken into account in order to better understand the participants’ motives and attitudes.

### 3.2 Students’ Learning Experience and Motivation

**Question 3:** How long have you been studying English?
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years</th>
<th>Number of students</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>89.16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-7</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8.33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9-12</td>
<td>03</td>
<td>2.5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 3: Number of years of English studying*

Knowing how many years have participants spent in studying English is an important matter because it helps us get an idea about their actual level and needs. Few years ago, learners couldn’t study English until they get to the middle school. They had it during the two final years of middle studies, but never during the first one. It is the case for the majority of Algerian learners, who are now young graduates, and also the case for the majority of my sample of the population.

In fact, from my data analysis, I could divide the participants’ answers into three categories (see Table 3). In the first category, it is the greatest number of participants who have learnt English for 5 years; these constitute 89.16% of the whole population, and 5 years is just the maximum for one who was taught English within the ancient curriculum and who passed one’s academic years with no failure or repetition.

In the second category, 10 participants said they learnt English for 6-7 years. These are subjects who had found difficulties in getting their baccalaureate. In this instance, they had one or two additional years at the secondary school. Thus, they have been learning English for more than 3 years at the secondary stage. They make 8.33% of my sample.

The last category is made up of the minority of subjects that could choose to learn English at primary school. Among these, some have also had some presumed conditions of failure during the secondary school. They have learnt English for 9-12 years starting from primary school, and they represent 2.5% of the sample.
**Question 4:** Do you like the English language?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Numbers</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>80%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 4: Attitudes towards the language*

If you like one subject or one field or whatever, you will devote enough energy and time to bring it to perfection. It is the case for foreign languages; a positive attitude of the learners towards the English language makes them eager to know more about it and leads them to enjoy the lectures. If they like it they will want to learn it because they are conscious about its importance (cf. Learners’ attitudes, Chapter I).

Table 4 –above- displays participants’ answers as whether they like English or not. 80% of positive answers take the lead over 20% negative ones. It is of a great importance to consider such a question because it will determine learners’ interest and motivation. This matter will either be confirmed or discarded in the following questions.

**Question 5:** If you answered “No” to the previous question, say why.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reasons</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I don’t understand it</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>79.16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I don’t need it</td>
<td>01</td>
<td>4.16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Other: It is difficult</td>
<td>01</td>
<td>16.66%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

  - I have a weak level
  - I didn’t have a good teacher at middle school

*Table 5: Reasons for their negative attitudes towards the language*
In fact, participants had to justify their negative answers. We have provided them with three possibilities (see Table 5), either choosing the first or the second or giving a free answer. As displayed in table 5 above, 79.16% of the respondents said they don’t like English because they don’t understand it; the interpretation of such a behavior has several dimensions. Let us consider the third possibility of answers, which is closely related to the first one. Four individuals said they don’t like English because they find it difficult, they have a weak level or they didn’t have a good teacher at middle school. As I mentioned above, the interpretation of this, correlates with the first findings. In other words, having had an incompetent teacher for the elementary level implies a misunderstanding of the courses and a difficulty in grasping the language. Thus, this troublesome blend will lead to a negative attitude to the language itself.

**Question 6:** Are you interested in learning English?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Numbers</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 6: Students’ interest in learning English*

A slightly higher percentage than that of Question 4 for participants who answered “Yes” to the question of whether they are interested in learning the language or not. Over 84% against 15% who are neither interested nor like the English language.

**Question 7:** What do you need English for?

This is probably the most important question to ask in the domain of ESP because it will tell us a lot about students’ needs.
Students’ choice | Number | Percentage  
--- | --- | ---  
1st choice: a-  
b-  
c-  
d-  
e-  
f-  
g-  
h-  
  | 46 | 38.33%  
  | 01 | 0.83%  
  | 08 | 6.66%  
  | 41 | 34.16%  
  | 03 | 2.5%  
  | 18 | 15%  
  | 04 | 3.33%  
  | 00 | 0%  
1st choice: a-  
b-  
c-  
d-  
e-  
f-  
g-  
h-  
  | 29 | 24.16%  
  | 08 | 6.66%  
  | 06 | 5%  
  | 26 | 21.66%  
  | 13 | 10.83%  
  | 19 | 15.83%  
  | 18 | 15%  
  | 01 | 0.83%  
1st choice: a-  
b-  
c-  
d-  
e-  
f-  
g-  
h-  
  | 09 | 7.5%  
  | 20 | 16.66%  
  | 13 | 10.83%  
  | 11 | 9.16%  
  | 15 | 12.5%  
  | 21 | 17.5%  
  | 22 | 18.33%  
  | 09 | 7.5%  

*Table 7: Why do students need English?*

This question investigates the role of English teaching in any domain of specialty; commerce and economics are our present interest. We asked the participants to answer by order of importance. The choices we have provided both relate to short-term as well as long-term objectives. Also, we took into consideration academic and professional perspectives in addition to personal interests and concerns.

Students of commerce may need English for several reasons, and asking them to supply a simple choice would leave them somehow confused. They may choose one answer at the expense of their real global needs; that is why we proposed multiple and varied choices. We
have taken into consideration each participant’s answer so as to clearly determine what choice takes priority over another.

Not to get confused by numbers, order and statements, we decided to gather responses into three categories (see Table 7). Category “A” rallies all the answers that participants selected as a first important need. Within it, 38.33% of the subjects say they need English for their future job. In fact, this majority considers that the foreign language is mostly needed for reinforcing one’s chances of getting a relevant employment in a national or a multi-national company. Next, 34.16% of the participants think they mostly need English to get a deeper knowledge of it for their present studies. Third important answer that participants chose as first is learning English for a better communication. Indeed, 15% of them see that first of all they need to learn the language to master the speaking skill and the art of conversing with others. This seems to be a long-term objective if we take into consideration the professional life and the talks they will probably hold with employees.

These were the three prominent answers that participants gave as a first choice. They gave less consideration to the other answers (as a first choice) with 6.66% for ‘English to live abroad’, 3.33% for ‘English for internet and computer usage’, 2.5% for ‘English to read foreign documents and books’, and just one answer, if none, for ‘English to travel’ and ‘English for watching foreign TV programmes’.

The second category of findings gathers the answers that participants gave as second most important choice, i.e. what second essential reason they need English for. This time, only 24.16% of the students said as a second choice they need English for job. The rest have had different answers and divided views because about 21% of them said they need it to get deeper knowledge of the field, 15% admit it is important for communicating with natives or non-natives, 15% need it for computer usage and surfing on the Web, 10.83% have to learn it for reading purposes, 6.66% think it is secondly important to travel around the world, 5%
agree that it is important for settling down in a foreign country and only 0.83% think of learning it just for entertainment as watching English speaking TV shows.

The third category highlights students’ selections for third more important reasons for learning English. The fact is, 18.33% of the respondents focus on the matter that English is useful when dealing with computer. The language is imperative in this instance because a great part of the articles they may find in the internet is written in English. Because it is an international language, it is privileged for the translation of economic reports and updates; thus, providers of the information expect the greatest number of internet users to master the language.

Next 17.5% of the subjects think, in a third position, that they need to learn English more for improving their communicative competence than any other reason. Whether in 1st, 2nd or 3rd position, I agree that this is an important reason for learning English for students of commerce because they are very likely to deal with English speakers both in the short run and in the long-term.

Nearly an equal number of students picked as a third choice ‘English for travelling’. 16.66% of the whole respondents chose this probably because they think of travelling not for leisure but to study abroad. In this case, learning it for such a reason is a justifiable claim.

For 13-15 students (10% and 12.5% respectively), English is important to consult English books or documents and for settling down in a foreign country. Finally, between 7% and 9% of the remaining participants would choose for a third position ‘English for job’, ‘English to watch TV programmes’ or ‘English for studies and deeper knowledge’.

To sum up the whole findings and the different answers, the three first important reasons to students of commerce for learning English are: employment, studies and internet. And if we
have to consider another essential need of learning the foreign language, it is ‘fluent communication’ - an important fact for successful studies and ambitious employment.

### 3.3 Students’ Proficiency Level

**Question 8:** What are your weaknesses in the foreign language?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Students’ weaknesses</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Grammar</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>12.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spoken language</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>41%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Written language</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>10.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocabulary</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>10.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understanding courses/succeed in exams</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>10.8%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 8: Students’ weaknesses*

In an era of developed technologies and means of communication, students are getting more and more aware of the importance of mastering the oral skill in a foreign language. The majority of respondents recognize their weaknesses from a communicative point of view.

As indicated in table 8 above, they think they need urgent support to improve their speaking and convey a comprehensible message in English. At the same time, about 14% of them admit their lack of knowledge in the empire of words – Vocabulary, while 12.5% think are weaker at grammatical aspects. Equally considered, writing, reading and courses’ comprehension are other parts of the foreign language that participants admit their weakness in, with about 10% of votes for each.

To sum up, we have to bear in mind that since all answers got more or less consideration, the course has to be equally designed for a blend of levels and a great number of heterogeneous students who think they are ‘bad’ at a skill or another.

**Question 9:** What do you think your level in English is?
Participants have been asked for a self-evaluation of their level of proficiency in the English language. I think that making them evaluate themselves and determine their own level will allow them have a clear view about their real needs from the course.

The results in Table 9 show that the majority of the participants (52.5%) think they are at a medium stage and possess the average capacity of understanding what they are or have been taught. Those who represent 30% of the sample are not satisfied of their level and evaluate it as a weak one. I presume that these participants anticipate a course that would help them consolidate their knowledge in more or less language skills. As the percentage decreases, participants estimate that they are either too bad or are sufficiently good at the foreign language. Numbers reveal that 11.66% of the subjects consider themselves as being very weak at English language skills and need the maximum from the course while 5.83% of them are pretty satisfied of their “good” level and may need a reinforcement of their specialized language. The interpretation of these findings is straightforward. It is obvious that the English course has to focus on all the aspects and skills of the language because levels and needs vary from a student to another.

**Question 10:** Do you speak English:

```
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Number of students</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>07</td>
<td>5.83%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>52.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weak</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very weak</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>11.66%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
```

*Table 9: Participants’ present level*
After considering participants’ level in the English language and their weakest points, they have been asked to evaluate their English speaking abilities. No one of the participants claimed he/she has very good spoken English because the results show 0% of answers for this choice (see Table 10). However, 9.16% of them think they have good spoken English, which means that they can easily make themselves understood by their interlocutors. Still, this remains a minority.

The majority of respondents, with 52.5% of the answers, said their spoken English is satisfactory. In other words, it is more or less comprehensible when an ordinary conversation is engaged in. Then, 22.5% of the subjects clearly stated that they speak bad English. This may be due to grammatical mistakes and lack of vocabulary knowledge or fear of taking the initiative to practice this skill. Last but not least, 19 participants, representing 15.83% of the sample said they don’t speak English at all. I presume that they are not motivated for this; thus, they don’t feel the need for engaging in a conversation or making efforts to answer their interlocutors.

**Question 11:** What do you think is your level in writing?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Students’ answers</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very good</td>
<td>05</td>
<td>4.16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfactory</td>
<td>05</td>
<td>42.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bad</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not at all</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8.33%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 11: Students’ level in the writing skill*
The writing skill is very important for the students. First, they have to master it to deal with the different writing activities in their examinations. They will obviously be required to answer comprehension questions or write topics specific to their field, which both require a good knowledge of grammatical aspects and writing rules.

In the answers to this question (see Table 11), only 4.16% of the respondents think they are excellent at the skill while 8.33% say they don’t practice it at all. Then, 20% of them think they write badly, and 25% say they are good at it. The remaining 42.5% of the participants believe that a reader gets the point when dealing with their writings; they say that their pieces of writing are comprehensible and satisfactory. In this case, the minimum of the message they intend to transmit is supposed to be enough.

The above findings don’t coincide with the short test I had administered to the students at the very beginning of the academic year as an introductory session. In fact, students had to write short comments about their choice for this domain and their expectations from the course. The writings were more or less comprehensible, but their mistakes intolerable. This is an important matter and a must-be-taken-into-account prior to the design of the various tasks that make the syllabus.

**Question 12:** Do you read documents written in English?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answers</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>37.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>60%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No answer</td>
<td>03</td>
<td>2.5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 12: Reading English documents*

As their needs and expectations differ in the domain of studies, students’ hobbies and interests also are not the same in their everyday life. As it is indicated in Table 12, the majority of respondents (60%) said “No” for this question. They do not read English
documents, and probably because uninterested or do not have enough time to do so. Others are interested in reading English literature, and represent 37.5% of the respondents. These documents may include handouts provided by the teacher, specialized books or magazines, internet articles or e-mails, short stories or novels.

Reading English-written documents is very important for students because it helps them acquire the needed vocabulary and the necessary style to improve their writings. We will see in the question below what are the reasons that justify students’ interest in reading and what may be the documents they focus on.

**Question 13:** If "Yes", specify.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Students’ answers</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. For leisure</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>26.66%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. For studies</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>64.44%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Both</td>
<td>04</td>
<td>8.88%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 13: Learners’ readings*

The students who gave positive answers to the previous question were asked to give more precision to their answers (Table above). About 64% of them said that they read English documents that have a close relation with their studies. This means: commerce or economics’ related books, articles, handouts, magazines, etc. Those who represent about 26% of the answers say it is just at their leisure. I assume that these kinds of readings may not always coincide with what they need in their field, but at least provide them with useful vocabulary or style for their varied writings. Leisure-time readings may include internet articles, magazines, short stories, etc. About 3% of the respondents read English documents for both purposes, but they represent the minority of answers. Students, then, need to be more motivated and aware of the importance of the skill in their studies.
Question 14: When one talks to you in English, do you understand:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Students’ answers</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very well</td>
<td>05</td>
<td>4.16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Well</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>22.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A little</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>66.66%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nothing</td>
<td>08</td>
<td>6.66%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 14: Students’ understanding of spoken English*

It is important to know the students’ level of understanding of spoken English to favour a 100% English course. Obviously, the teacher will explain everything in the foreign language and the students won’t ask for translation. But, if they know only a little about the language, they will find difficulties in getting what the teacher means. This latter will, then, abandon for a while the foreign vocabulary and find other means of explanation.

In the table above, four levels of understanding of the spoken language have been proposed. The greatest majority of respondents, with about 66% of answers, admitted they get just a little of what their interlocutor says. This means that 80 students among 120 get more or less confused and do not grasp the total meaning of the discourse they are faced with. I assume that this is due (in the case of the classroom) to the lack of communicative exchange in the classroom and the passivity of students in front of the new vocabulary specific to their field.

If we go downwards with percentages, 22.5% of the students say they understand ‘well’ what they are being told. These are expected to answer back the teacher’s questions, if motivated enough, using a simplified language and the appropriate vocabulary. In the opposite case, unmotivated and uninterested students will make no effort, neither to understand nor to answer in a spoken form. It is the case for 6.66% of the respondents, who affirmed they don’t understand anything from what they are being told. This is a minority in
my sample; still, they need to get involved in the course at least to understand what is being talked about.

To understand what the English speaker is saying and answer with a more or less similar vocabulary may seem a “luxury” to the latter respondents, but it is what the rest of them assume they are able to do, with about 4% saying they understand very well what a speaker is saying. Thus, they are expected to formulate full answers and convincing arguments.

3.4 Students’ Attitudes to and Expectations From the English Course

**Question 15:** Why are you in the English course?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answers</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. You are obliged</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>19.16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. You want to succeed in your studies</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>41.66%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. You will need it after studies</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>19.16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. You like the language</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 15: Reasons why students are in the course*

There are of course different reasons for students to attend the English courses; this is an important fact to determine whether they are really interested in the lectures or it is just a matter of an imposed course they have to deal with within others (see Table 15). About 19% of the students reveal they are in the course only because they have to. This may be due to several reasons. First, the administration and teachers take into account their attendance; thus indirectly ‘push’ them to be in class even if they are not interested in learning the language. Second, the absences that teachers count for each student are taken into consideration for probable support of students’ bad marks at the end of exams or the academic year. These students may, through lectures and teacher’s motivation, turn to be interested in the course and enjoy the tasks and activities.
About 41% of the respondents say they are involved in the English course to succeed in their studies. This also may be an indirect reason of attending the course as well as a personal conviction of students who are aware of the utility of it to achieve their short-term or long-term objectives.

Those who aim at a long-term objective represent about 19% of the respondents. They revealed that they are in the English course because they will need it after studies; it means that they want to gain the knowledge presumably required for their future occupation or for leisure purposes. The remaining 20% of the subjects are in the English course simply because they like the language. It is a good motive for them to learn the different aspects of it and acquire all the skills for better application in their studies and after.

**Question 16:** How often do you participate in class?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answers</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Always</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>22.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Usually</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>16.66%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rarely</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>21.66%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>19.16%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 16: Students’ participation*

Students’ participation in the classroom means they are involved in the course and attentive to the teacher’s explanation and activities; this is not the case for about 19% of the participants, who declare they never participate (Table 16). If one gets to ask them why, the answers will obviously be because they don’t understand what topics are being discussed in the course or simply because they more or less understand the topic raised, but don’t dare to speak for fear of making mistakes or be in the wrong way.

Frequencies of participation vary from a group to another. A little more than 21% of them rarely participate; 20% of them do it sometimes; about 16% reveal they usually make
themselves involved in the classroom interaction while 22.5% say they always discuss the topic, ask questions, answer the teacher’s and get to write on the board.

**Question 17:** Why do you participate in class?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answers</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Because you want to participate</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Because the teacher asks you to participate</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>55%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. No answer</td>
<td>06</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 17: Reasons for students’ participation*

This question has been asked in order to get more details about students’ will or reticence to interact in the classroom. Whatever the frequency of their acts, participants had to justify their reasons for participation (Table 17). Over half of them (55%) said they do it because the teacher asks them to. These may be direct demands addressed to randomly selected students or the result of the instructor’s continuous advice to them for getting involved to practice their communicative skill and critical thinking. 5% of the participants remained indifferent to the question, while 40% assumed they voluntarily participate during class. These include the few participants who like the language and are interested in learning it.

**Question 18:** Why don’t you participate?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answers</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>You don’t master the language</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>22.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You are afraid of making mistakes</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>61.66%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You don’t like speaking in class</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>15.83%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 18: Reasons of no participation*
There are cases in which there is no action in class but the teacher’s. The context of the course, including the type of language used and the complexity of the topic, make that students don’t feel interested in the discussion (see Table 18). To the question of why students might not participate, 61% said they get reticent for fear of making mistakes and falling into embarrassment. Students are not aware that this has very few chances to happen because they all are new in the domain of ESP, and have similar levels in English. At the same time, 22.5% of them think they are weak at the different linguistic skills and don’t master the language enough to engage into a debate or just ask for further explanation. And the remaining respondents (15.83%) prefer to remain quiet because they don’t like speaking in class at all and would wish not to be asked by the teacher.

**Question 19:** What do you expect from the English course?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Learners’ expectations</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Improve their general knowledge of the language</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>43.33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learn specialized vocabulary</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>25.83%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learn about grammar</td>
<td>02</td>
<td>1.66%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Improve their writing</td>
<td>01</td>
<td>0.83%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gain communicative skills</td>
<td>07</td>
<td>5.83%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gain reading skills</td>
<td>05</td>
<td>4.16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Get good marks at exams</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>11.66%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No answer</td>
<td>08</td>
<td>6.66%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 19: Learners’ expectations from the course*

The table above represents participants’ wants and the kind of English course they anticipate. The findings show that 43.33% of the participants expect from the course an improvement of their general knowledge of the language.
It means that these students are not satisfied of their level in all the language kills. The second position is held by learners having ‘specific’ thoughts; they represent 25.83% of the sample. These participants wish to have a course based on a specialized vocabulary: the commercial vocabulary. These are present expectations that pave the way for future occupations. Third important matter for the students has to do with exams. Indeed, 11.66% of them wish to have an English course totally related to their exams and which helps them get good marks to pass the present level. Next is a minimum of 5% of the contributors who anticipate a course dedicated to the communicative skills and which would help them get the point when addressed in spoken English. Then, about 4% only, expect the reading skill to dominate the course. They want to improve theirs to be able to read and understand documents and textbooks related to their field of specialty. Finally, 0.83% of the respondents wish to improve their writing skill while 1.66% would like to focus on grammar. The remaining 6.66% of the sample didn’t provide any answer. The interpretation of these results is quite obvious. The course has to be varied and covering all the aspects of the language because students too, have different levels and needs.

**Question 20:** What is your learning strategy?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Students’ answers</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Independently (in class)</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>15.83%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independently (out of the class)</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>17.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In pairs</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>9.16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In groups</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>11.66%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>With the teacher (privately)</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>45.83%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 20: Learning strategies*
Every one of us has his/her learning styles and preferences in acquiring and retaining information. Apart from visual, verbal, inductive or other ways of assimilating language, there are various learning environments into which a given learner has more or less compatibility to learn. Whether into the classroom or out of it, alone or in groups, every single learner will gain a maximum knowledge if put in the appropriate context of learning.

Our informants, as shown in Table 20, have their own choices which can be categorized as follows:

- About 15% prefer learning on their own, into the classroom. These find it more productive to solely analyze the data, try to get the general picture of the provided information and the most suitable answers to each issue.

- 17.5% other respondents also enjoy learning by their own, but outside the classroom. This is most probably to avoid noise and massive whispering of thoughts. Those learners would then prefer rehearsing the course, and the potential problems related to it, at home or in the library or other environments or peaceful and meditative concentration on the content of the course.

- Only 9% of the participants think they better understand the lessons if they work in pairs. Whether inside or outside the classroom, students find it useful to discuss the main problematic areas with their mates; they wish to share their views to enrich their knowledge and improve their skills.

- Others (11.66%) find it much better to learn in groups because of the multiple and varied ideas that might emerge from each learner.

- Nearly half the learners, representing 45%, cannot better learn than with the teacher. They mean a complete concentration on his/her explanation in the classroom, but also a probable private guidance from the teacher to better transmit the information to them.
Whatever the differences or the preferences, there should be a constant correlation between the students’ learning styles and the teacher’s methods of instruction to facilitate the process of learning and make it enjoyable inside and outside the classroom.

**Question 21:** Are you satisfied of the present teaching of English at your department?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Numbers</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No answer</td>
<td>05</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 21: Students’ satisfaction of English learning*

There are always things to improve as far as the teaching of the foreign language is concerned. The causes of deficiency may differ from a context to another; thus, it is important to get views about that from both the learners and the teachers (see Table 21). Concerning the participants, it is a majority that is satisfied with the current teaching of English in the department of commerce, with 63.33% of the answers. Apparently, they seem not to complain about that, while some 36.66% of the remaining ones say they are not satisfied. The causes of such an attitude will be discussed in the next question.

**Question 22:** If “No”, why?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answers</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of students in class</td>
<td>03</td>
<td>6.81%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time allocated</td>
<td>08</td>
<td>18.18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching method</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>38.63%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type of tasks</td>
<td>06</td>
<td>13.63%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Absence of textbooks</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>22.72%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 22: Students reason of unsatisfaction*
As mentioned earlier, 44 participants are not satisfied with the current teaching of English in the department of commerce, and the table above shows the various reasons for their decision. About only 6% of the 44 unsatisfied respondents reveal themselves as bothered by the number of students in the classroom. In fact, this matter has always been and continues to be problematical in the Algerian schools and universities, and it hinders successful learning of any subject whatsoever.

Actually, the view is not shared by all the participants but it would be easier both for the instructor and the students to conduct the process of teaching/learning with 20 students rather than 40 per class.

Going upwards, 13.63% of the respondents are not satisfied with the type of tasks and activities they practice. I assume that this is due to the fact that these activities do not match their requirements. Some students may recurrently deal with some aspects of the language they already master, and thus, unsatisfied with the kind of activities the teacher had planned for the course.

Another cause of the unsatisfactory English teaching at the department of commerce is the time allocated for the module: 1 hour 30 minutes, only, per week. About 18% of the respondents say it is the real reason of their disappointment, and the main obstacle to reach a considerable level in the foreign language. In fact, 1h30 is a so modest duration dedicated to the course. It is absolutely insufficient to present the course- especially if the material presented is a complicated commercial text or article-, to practice the different types of skills that learners solicit and to summarize the topic for a better individual revision. The problem has to be seriously reviewed by the administrative body to avoid that students get lost in an intensive and boring instruction.
One other problematic area is the absence of related text-books with models of economic or commercial topics being discussed and explained in a simplified language. It is the reason of unsatisfactory views for 22.72% of the subjects. These would have wished to get some references to look at in order to locate the English course somewhere in their field, and prepare the minimum information not to get lost in the teacher’s explanation.

Last but not least, the teaching method remains the major headache for about 38% of the students, who said are not satisfied of the current English teaching. These participants confess a desire of change of the teacher’s way of presenting the course: a so important issue to be considered along with each learner’s style of learning.

**Question 23**: How many hours a week and how many years do you want to study English?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hours</th>
<th>Number of students</th>
<th>percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>01</td>
<td>09</td>
<td>7.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>06</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>02</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>23.33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>03</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>04</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>11.66%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>05</td>
<td>04</td>
<td>3.33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>06</td>
<td>06</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>07</td>
<td>01</td>
<td>0.83%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>03</td>
<td>2.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No answer</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>20.83%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 23: Number of hours per week*

Both groups of students, satisfied and unsatisfied of the teaching of English at the Department of Commerce, have expressed varied wishes concerning the amount of time per week during which they want to study English. Although it has been an open question, participants’ answers are ranging from 1 to 7 hours a week. Some have given “exaggerated” answers saying that 10 hours a week for English language learning would be an ideal practice to improve their level. These represent just 2.5% of the sample. The table above shows
different propositions of the respondents. Within the diverse answers, 20-30% of them see that an average of 2-3 hours a week is so reasonable to have a good practice. A little group representing 5-7% of the sample has chosen a minimum of 1 or 1.5 hour a week.

In a serious consideration of their weak level and their urgent need to practice several aspects of the language, a fourth category from the sample of the population, representing 3-11% of the whole, express wants for 4-6 hours/week of English learning is nothing but a beneficial practice of their little knowledge and an opportunity to gain more. To interpret these findings we have to point out that, students at present study English for 4 years, but only 1.5 hours/week. This explains their choice of that amount of time to study the language. In other words, learners who feel they need more lectures want 4-6 hours/week of English language practice. The rest of the participants, who represent about 20% of the sample, gave no clear answer. They have left blank spaces, a fact that doesn’t give us an exact idea about their present level and how much learning they require to reach their objectives. (Table 23)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years</th>
<th>Number of students</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>01</td>
<td>06</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>02</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>21.66%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>03</td>
<td>04</td>
<td>3.33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>04</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>38.33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>08</td>
<td>02</td>
<td>1.66%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>03</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For life</td>
<td>08</td>
<td>6.66%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No answer</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>20.83%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 24: Number of years.*

As for the number of years during which learners wish to learn English, answers are more or less distinguishable. They think they should study it at least for 1 year and at most for 10 years. The question is meant to determine the approximate duration within and beyond the
academic training to gain the knowledge that leads to a successful professional career (see Table 24)

Again, an important category (about 20%) gave no answer for this question; thus, it is quite ambiguous to determine their present level and a compensation of their eventual weaknesses. On the other hand, about 6% of the respondents have gone so extreme saying they need a life-long practice to improve their level. Learning, of course, is an extended process, but to consider that English language practice has to last all that period in order to have a minimum useful knowledge is just exaggerated.

About 1 - 2.5% of the participants consider 8-10 years as the needed period to master the required knowledge for a good achievement of the short-term and the long-term objectives. The number of participants supporting 4 years of English studies took the greatest share with 46 individuals representing about 38% of the sample.

4. Teachers’ Questionnaire

The second questionnaire was designed for English teachers working at the department of Commerce for the 2007/2008 academic year (cf. Appendix 2). The data collected is intended to provide us with information about the teachers, their opinions about the learners’ needs, the importance of particular language skills, the course content, the applied methodology, and their suggestions.

The analysis of the data would help us have a clear idea about the course administered to the concerned students because the instructors’ views are equally important in determining the content the students may need.

4.1 Teachers’ Qualifications and Experiences

Nine teachers of English are employed at the Department of Commerce of the University of Constantine, but only five of them accepted to answer the questions.
**Question 1:** Would you please specify your degree?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answers</th>
<th>Licence</th>
<th>Magistère</th>
<th>Ph.D</th>
<th>Other</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 25: Teachers’ degree*

The results displayed in the above table show that all the questioned teachers hold a BA degree; thus, employed just for temporary vacancies. We must precise that the majority are young graduates who have obtained their diploma recently and have been postulants in the department for acquiring teaching experiences.

**Question 2:** Have you benefited from any training before starting to teach?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teachers’ answers</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 26: Teachers’ training*

In the second question, we have asked the teachers if they had benefited from any kind of training before they start. Four of them did not get accustomed to the task before they apply for the job while only one teacher answered “Yes” to our inquiry.

**Question 3:** If “Yes”, how long, and where?

As mentioned previously, only one teacher said he/she has been trained. The training took place in a secondary school for a period of 3 months.

**Question 4:** How long have you been teaching English?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teachers</th>
<th>Period</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>6 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>7 months</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>7 months</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>7 months</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>3 years</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 27: Period of English language teaching*
The above question allowed us to have more information about the respondents’ teaching experiences. In fact, one of the teachers already has a six-year familiarity with the profession. This may seem a short period but should never be neglected for determining the capacities that the teacher may have gained depending on the matters he/she has been teaching up to now. Another one has been in the domain for 3 years – less sufficient, but may serve to diagnose how the instructor handles the content, the classroom, students’ motivation, etc. The three remaining teachers got newly acquainted with the profession. They started during the 2007/2008 academic year, and reached a 7-months teaching period by the time I distributed the questionnaire.

**Question 5:** In which department have you been teaching?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teachers</th>
<th>Dept. Of Commerce</th>
<th>Dept. Of English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 28: Teachers’ experiences in different departments*

Now, to have a bit of knowledge about the topics and the students our participants have been dealing with, we have asked them to indicate in which department they have worked. Three teachers answered that they taught both at the Department of English and the Department of Commerce. This makes us think that they have been exposed to the general aspects of the language as well as the specific ones.

The two remaining teachers experienced their abilities only in the Department of Commerce at the beginning of their career, and this represents a domain quite different from the one they have been involved in during their undergraduate studies.
Question 6: How long have you been teaching English in the Department of Commerce?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teachers’ answers</th>
<th>7 months</th>
<th>1 year</th>
<th>6 years</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 29: Teachers’ experience in the Department of Commerce

Again, determining how long have these teachers been working with Commerce students may help us establish a link between their actual experience with specialized matters (and learners) and the appropriateness of these matters with the real needs of those learners.

In fact, only one teacher spent a long period (6 years) dealing with the specificity of English at the department of Commerce while one teacher has had a one-year-involvement in the same field. As mentioned earlier, the three remaining respondents have just integrated the circle of ESP teachers, with 7 months service in the Department of Commerce.

4.2 Teachers’ Visions of the English Course (ESP data)

In this section, we expected the teachers to provide us with some information about the learners’ needs and objectives. These data are not taken for granted; they just represent instructors’ views from past experiences or from what they have been noticing in their ESP classroom environment up to now.

4.2.1 Conceptions of Learning Needs and Objectives

Question 7: What do you think are the learners’ needs?

‘English for communication’ is one teacher’s answer, believing that the main reason of teaching the foreign language to students of Commerce is the satisfaction of communicative needs. Two other teachers hold the same view. They said that commerce students need English courses to help them communicate with lesser obstacles and fear. They also argued
that learners must get access to specialized English references (books of commerce edited in English) because they would help them for future communications with foreigners.

The fourth teacher must have noticed students’ weaknesses in some aspects of the language, and thinks that what the learners are in need of grammatical, syntactic and phonetic lessons. This view points out learners’ poor level at the basic elements of the language, which is a pretty serious matter at this stage of studies. Students should have developed this problematic elementary area of language learning to concentrate more on the specificity of the language at the present stage.

The last teacher thinks that learners mainly need to be prepared for research work. He/she said that students have to master the language skills to be able to make research. In other words, they need to talk, to write and to read texts for a better collection of information and acquisition of knowledge. Research in this case concerns both the short-term objectives (during the present and coming academic years, for the sake of English lessons and exams) and the long-term objectives (further concern in post-graduate studies or, simply, for occupational ambitions).

**Question 8:** What do you think are the short-term objectives of English language teaching for students of Commerce?

The teachers expressed varied opinions on what they thought the short-term objectives of the course would be. Two of them view that these objectives consist in helping learners understand the lectures and answer exams’ questions. This means that what they would be taught in the English course should only facilitate obtaining good marks for academic success. A third participant holds the same view, but believes that getting good marks serves the students just to compensate the other subjects. The fourth teacher thinks that English courses have been introduced to students of Commerce to help them enrich their knowledge of
technical commercial matters. According to her, the main objective of the course is to make learners acquire the maximum amount of terminology relative to the field.

The fifth participant believes that in the short-run students will study and get to know aspects of the language that will help them in their specialty. This may enclose all the previous ideas since vocabulary knowledge and academic success are part of the speciality.

**Question 9:** What do you think are the long-term ones?

Widely speaking, all the answers converged to the use of English for occupational objectives, and teachers’ answers will give us a clearer idea about that. A first one, in considering a possible long-term benefit from English courses for students of Commerce, is convinced that they would use it in the field more than any other language. That is obvious since they are taught English and not another language. It is world widely taught in different institutions, but also mainly used for business communications and reports. Thus, what they learn in the current courses would, for a long-term, serve them in dealing with foreign companies and countries as far as commercial exchanges are concerned.

Equal views are held by a second teacher believing that the long-term objectives of the course are to help learners ‘communicate with foreigners’, and a third one saying it would help them ‘communicate effectively with foreign or native speakers in the same field’. Then, the main focus is on communicative abilities, which may concern oral transactions, written receipts and invoices, business negotiations, etc. It is clear that any possible future career will turn around successful communicative skills.

The fourth and fifth teachers have argued in the favour of job opportunities for future commerce graduates. They think that in the long-term, English courses will make learners get additional linguistic or other capacities in order to obtain a good job, and make them able to use the language in the potential occupation whenever it is needed.
4.2.2 Determining the Needed Skills and Capacities

**Question 10:** What are the capacities or language skills they need most to achieve their short-term objectives?

To achieve their short-term objectives, students will seek to master some language skills more than the others. In other words, their outcome in the short-run will have particular characteristics of some precise abilities. Teachers, in trying to foresee those objectives, will give their estimations about what particular capacities students are obliged to master in order to come to the sought results. It was clearly indicated in the question that teachers should classify by order of importance the skills which the learners need to improve for a better achievement. The results obtained are gathered in the table below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teachers’ answers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>1st Choice:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listening</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speaking/Communicative skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>2nd Choice:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listening</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speaking/Communicative skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>3rd Choice:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listening</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speaking/Communicative skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>4th Choice:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listening</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speaking/Communicative skills</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 30: Language skills needed to achieve their short-term objectives*

The analysis shows that two teachers agreed that students are most of all in need of a better speaking ability to achieve their short-term objectives. Whether speaking inside or outside the
classroom, learners have to focus on improving their communicative abilities through interactive tasks and activities.

One of the short-term objectives mentioned earlier is: getting good marks for academic success. Besides, a communicative skill, in the case of Commerce students, seems to be mainly needed in the long-term. If teachers think that such a skill is already indispensible, it is to refer to its actual use for knowledge collection. In other words, students need good speaking abilities to request any kind of information or knowledge from their teacher or peers because those information and knowledge will in fact serve them achieve the short-term objectives. The remaining skills are absolutely needed, too, but they did not receive a major consideration by the teachers.

The second important skill to master, according to the respondents, is the listening skill. Of course, a successful communicative exchange also relies on a good input stage for an appropriate interpretation of the facts. All in all, a skilful receiver of the information will also be a good provider whatever the output is. Finally, the respondents decided to classify the Reading skill as a third important one in achieving short-term objectives, while in the third rank they have placed writing as a less needed one. See Table 30.

**Question 11:** What are the capacities or language skills they need most to achieve their long-term objectives?

For this step, teachers had to point out the order of importance of the most needed skills to achieve the long-term objectives (Table 31). Also, in this case, teachers gave major importance to Speaking as a first needed skill and Listening in a second rank of importance. Then, Writing was classified in a third position of importance; and finally, Reading as appears in table 30 below. As mentioned earlier (in Question 9), teachers think that the most important long-term objective of the current English course in the Department of Commerce is related to learners' future occupation. Speaking is considered the major skill to be mastered to achieve
the long-term objectives because of the amount of oral communications that might occur in a professional setting. It might happen even before they get emerged into work as they would have to deal with appointments while applying for a job. Otherwise, they would have to deal verbally with foreign businessmen, and oral English would be indispensable in such cases. Just for the same reasons, Listening is a skill that has to be mastered to guarantee a complete understanding between the native and non-native English speakers involved in the field of Commerce. Though, ranked after, Writing and Reading are also important for Commerce learners in order to be successful in a professional context because office work would require a lot of devotion to written documents, too.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teachers’ answers</th>
<th>1st Choice:</th>
<th>2nd Choice:</th>
<th>3rd Choice:</th>
<th>4th Choice:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reading</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writing</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listening</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speaking/Communicative skills</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 31: Language skills needed to achieve their long-term objectives

4.3 Teachers’ Implementation of the Course

This next section gathers data related to the current English course in the Department of Commerce (2007/2008 academic year). The participating teachers provided us with information regarding the programme supplied by the department and its relevance to
learners’ requirements. They also have been pointing its deficiencies and their personal efforts
to overcome the different difficulties related to tasks, materials available, etc. The results and
discussions are divided into sub-sections below.

4.3.1 Course Content

Question 12: Is there a programme provided by the department?

According to the findings, all the teachers answered “Yes” because the institute provided
them with a more or less detailed document about what they think is a more appropriate
content for the English course of the students of Commerce. The content proposed was, of
course, not the same for all levels. For instance, first year students had to study a more or less
elementary course to acquire a basic knowledge about the language. All the chosen topics
were about grammatical and syntactic aspects (types of sentences, parts of speech, etc.) while
a conclusive part was dedicated to an introduction to Commercial English. (cf. Appendix 3)

The content designed for second year students was mainly based on specialized texts
supposed to provide the learner with more technical terms. Teachers had to design the
appropriate activities for each theme to help students improve their written and oral
expression (cf. Appendix 4). According to these samples, whatever the background and the
current level of each student, the content they proposed covers all the useful elements of the
language that students may need in the first, second, third or fourth year to achieve their short-
term as well as long-term objectives.

Question 13: if “Yes”, does it cover learners’ needs?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teachers</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 32: Teachers’ views about the covering of students’ needs.*

Having a ready-designed programme may be beneficial for teachers who wish to see their
efforts (of searching for a relevant content) reduced. However, for students, it may be
handicapping or even useless if they do not contribute to it by expressing their wishes, their weaknesses, their aptitudes, their levels and, most of all, their needs.

The majority of teachers think that the programme designed by the department’s decision makers does not meet learners’ needs (Table 32). This may be deduced from students’ constant demand of some aspects of the language not included in the annual courses’ plan, or simply by their inability to understand the course, participate in the classroom and enjoy the lecture.

**Question 14:** If “No”, what is it lacking?

To consolidate their views, respondent answered that a pre-study of the students’ level is very important in the designing of the English programme. They think that taking this factor into consideration will certainly help cover their needs. Another teacher thinks that students need, before all else, a clear focus on grammar and communication. These are, according to the respondents, the main missing tasks which are decisive for the learners’ final results and acquired knowledge. A third participant views the programme as too general to cover learners’ needs and thinks that specified information will limit the difficulties or ambiguities of the presented topic, and thus help the learner understand the essence of the course. The fourth, and final, teacher, in disapproving the appropriateness of the programme to the learners’ needs, thinks that it is mainly due to the lack of a certain methodology that may help students learn. This methodology would be the characteristic of successful guidance and continuous motivation.

**4.3.2 Teachers’ Innovation**

**Question 15:** Do you bring modifications to the established programme?
Teachers may fully adopt the content or adapt it to certain contexts depending on their competence or will to fulfil a successful academic result. The latter case is the one of four teachers who admitted that they bring some modifications to the programme they have been supplied with (see Table 33). This change occurs because the same teachers argued that the course designed by the institution does not meet learners’ needs. Thus, they view that it is important to make, by themselves, the content relevant to the students’ requirements.

**Question 16:** If “Yes”, what kind of changes do you make?

There are several kinds of modification that teachers may make. Whether adding or omitting certain elements from the syllabus, all the actions are tolerated to present a relevant course and motivate the students. Hence, one of the teachers answered that the change he/she brings consists of the administration of exposés to students in order to help them express their view points, and thus improve their communicative skills. This kind of research work is not determined by the department, but teachers are free to design whichever task related to the content or to the field; they view that this is the most appropriate way to make students learn technical terms and get involved into a relevant commercial conversation. The same teacher said that he/she also introduces translation activities or additional explanatory data for the learners to acquire terminology.

Another teacher preferred adding extra information, which students may not be asked about during the tests, but is useful to consolidate their understanding of the presented topic. The same respondent said she applied occasional deletions of elements he/she could not find information about for lack of time or resources.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Yes      | 4  
| No       | 1  

*Table 33: Teachers’ modifications of the programme*
Furthermore, one participant, in noticing students’ low level in the basic knowledge of the language, presents extra lessons of grammar. In the case of second year students, there are no exclusively grammatical courses, but teachers design them because they find difficulties in presenting more advanced topics. In addition, the concerned teacher chose to omit some topics from the programme because the time allotted to the English course does not allow coverage of the total number of subjects. He/she takes this decision on the basis of a personal research about what topic has got priority over another.

According to the above-mentioned answers, we can notice a constant change into the content. At the beginning, it seemed that teachers only add supplementary tasks or content, but there is also a process of complete deletion in what the decision makers thought is the most appropriate programme for the students of Commerce.

**Question 17:** Do you use any specialized textbooks?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teachers</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 34: Teachers’ use of textbooks*

According to the results shown on Table 34, the majority of teachers do not look for specialized textbooks to collect the most relevant information to the course; some of them have different sources while others try to use appropriate publications. This is the case for two of the current participants.

**Question 18:** What are the references you use?

Unexpectedly, the respondents did not precise the references of books they use, but just said that they practice from general publications about Economics and Business and make use of Grammar books, the Oxford dictionary, etc.
4.3.3 Teachers’ Choice of Materials and Exercise Types

**Question 19:** What kind of activities do you involve learners in?

All the answers pointed out a main focus on the four skills of the language. Because the teachers have noticed the weak level of the students in different contexts, they decided to provide them with every type of activities. Speaking, Writing, Reading, grammar activities, interactive games- all these were on the scene in different contexts to strengthen learners’ knowledge about elementary English and to introduce topics more specific to their field.

**Question 20:** If you deal with Reading, what kind of tasks do your students perform?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teachers’ answers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reading for gist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Summarizing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paraphrasing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guessing from context</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intensive reading for details</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 35: Reading tasks*

There exist various tasks for the reading skill. The current respondents who deal with it mainly present lessons that highlight the “reading for gist”, “summarizing”, “guessing from context” “paraphrasing”, and “intensive reading for details” activities. They depend on the content of the material presented and on the abilities, within the same skill, that the learners need to develop.

Respondents do deal mainly with the “reading for gist” task. It is more useful to get students concentrated in a silent reading for a global understanding of the topic because teachers can discuss it with them only if they have an idea about the subject. Summarizing is also frequently used, but mainly to collect the most important elements that have been presented in the previous course. Students need such a task in their later revisions for exam preparations. The third task, mainly dealt with, is “guessing from context”. It consists in the
teacher’s introduction of the topic through cues and exemplifications. It seems very useful because it is the student himself/herself who is trying to find the answer. He/she unconsciously tests his/her own comprehension about the topic, and even compares the possible answers to see which most fits the teachers’ cue. (Table 35)

**Question 21:** If you deal with Speaking, what kind of tasks do your students perform?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teachers’ answers</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Repeating</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Role plays</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oral presentation</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Answering verbal cues</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interactive conversation</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 36: Speaking tasks*

Because Speaking seems to be an important skill for these students, either for the short-term or for the long-term achievements – as expressed by the respondents above, teachers thought it is vital to introduce a related task or activity about it in almost each lesson. Here, as well, teachers ticked several answers because they might deal with more than one type of tasks. The collected data (in Table 36) show a major focus on the oral presentations that students make in the classroom. This concerns the research works that some teachers propose to the students to help them express themselves easily before an audience (an ability needed for the long-term objectives) and, if they did it and discussed the subject successfully, they get good marks for additional evaluations (to reach the short-term objectives).

As mentioned in the previous question, answering verbal cues is commonly used in classroom teacher-student interactions because it is a good technique to raise students’ motivation and to ensure their involvement into the subject. Interactive conversations may consist in answering teachers’ questions about the material after a silent reading,
comprehension questions at the end of the explanation, or any other kind of relevant exchange. Some teachers may also make use of “repeating” tasks but they are not frequent and even not used at all levels.

**Question 22:** If you deal with Writing, what kind of tasks do your students perform?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teachers’ answers</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dictation</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Word order</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentence combination</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Copying texts word for word</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Making lists of items, ideas, reasons, etc</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 37: Writing tasks*

Writing takes a big share of classroom tasks, and again the participating teachers have selected more than one answer (see Table above). The most used task is dictation. Because of time constraints, teachers prefer dictating rather than using the chalk board. This technique may be problematic because students have spelling problems and the majority of them, for various reasons, do not stop the teacher when misunderstanding a word. The instructor may write unusual words on the board for or without learners demand, but this is not sufficient because of learners’ possible embarrassment, lack of time, or the teacher thinking they may deal alone with terms he/she thinks learners are familiar with. Despite the occasional inappropriateness of this task and the teachers not checking the correctness of students’ writings, dictation remains a very used activity with the students of Commerce.

Other types, that teachers said they deal with, vary from sentence combination to copying texts from the chalk board and making lists of items. Some respondents also deal with reordering jumbled sentences, writing letters (of application for a job) and answering comprehension questions.
**Question 23:** If you deal with Grammar, what kind of tasks do your students perform?

As mentioned earlier in this work (Students’ Questionnaire, Question 8), students of Commerce show some grammatical deficiencies, and sometimes solicit extra grammar lessons from the teacher. Except for students of first year (who already have this kind of lessons programmed for their first academic year in the department), teachers have to choose and design additional grammatical content by themselves (see Table 38). They present activities about punctuation, parts of speech, verb-subject agreement, filling in the blanks, describing, tenses, synonymy, homonymy, and many others. Their choices are based on learners’ weaknesses at a given aspect and the appropriateness of the task to the specialized material.

**Table 38: Grammar tasks**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teachers’ answers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Punctuation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spotting the parts of speech</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verb-subject agreement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Filling the blanks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Describing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tenses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Synonymy and homonymy</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Question 24:** Do students solicit extra knowledge or practice?

As mentioned earlier in this work (Students’ Questionnaire, Question 8), students of Commerce show some grammatical deficiencies, and sometimes solicit extra grammar lessons from the teacher. Except for students of first year (who already have this kind of lessons programmed for their first academic year in the department), teachers have to choose and design additional grammatical content by themselves (see Table 38). They present activities about punctuation, parts of speech, verb-subject agreement, filling in the blanks, describing, tenses, synonymy, homonymy, and many others. Their choices are based on learners’ weaknesses at a given aspect and the appropriateness of the task to the specialized material.

**Table 39: Students’ solicitations**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teachers’ answers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Only one teacher confirmed that students ask for additional pieces of knowledge and further practice about the previous or present lessons (Table 39), but it is not the case for all the students because a great number of them are not very motivated and hardly deal with the
“official” programme. In case students request extra knowledge, it would concern grammatical or conversational features. As mentioned in the analysis of question 16, teachers bring modifications that relate to students’ needs from the course even if they do not personally ask for that. It is simply reflected by their incapacity to give appropriate answers or get involved into classroom discussions.

**Question 25:** If “Yes”, please precise.

Unfortunately, the same teacher, who confirmed that students solicit extra knowledge, did not give further explanations about the matter, and did not provide us with types of tasks or information that students ask for.

**Question 26:** Where do you get teaching materials from?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teachers’ answers</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Internet</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Books</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Magazines</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 40: Teaching materials*

This question inquires about the teachers’ sources of teaching materials. As indicated in the table above, they use more than one source, and this is the reason why each respondent has ticked more than one answer. The mainly used source is the Internet because they have access to a wide range of websites and a tremendous number of articles, reports, texts and definitions relevant to the commercial field. The second important source of material selection is specialized and grammar books which may be available at the department’s library or are personal possessions of the teachers. They also said that they may select texts or even paragraphs from related magazines. These usually include commercial reports or explanatory notes and articles from which the instructor selects and modifies reading extracts to be used in the classroom.
Question 27: How do you use the materials?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teachers’ answers</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. As they are</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Bring some changes</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 41: Materials use

Teachers may choose to use the material as it appears in the original source, but it may not be beneficial for the students. A non-modified –authentic- material may not totally fit the lesson’s objectives or may cause confusion in the students’ comprehension of new information that requires certain background knowledge in the field. It may be too long to be presented; it may contain complicated data, unusual terms or a complex style. This situation is problematic for students’ comprehension as well as teachers’ embarrassment in front of loads of questions that overstep the preparations he/she had made for the lesson. Accordingly, the participating teachers answered unanimously that they do bring modifications to the material they choose to present in each topic.

Question 28: If you chose answer (2), what kind of changes do you make?

The modifications that teachers may bring to the material vary according to its content or its relevance to the course. To the present question, respondents answered that they summarize (the text), modify terms (use easier words), simplify the language or join similar parts taken from various resources. All the means are allowed to present a simple language and assure a total comprehension and a successful practice of the designed material.

4.3.4 Difficulties in Classroom Management

In this sub-section, we have gathered teachers view points about the major difficulties they face in the English course. Their answers have varied between course density, classroom management or teaching procedures, and they are summarized in the following tables.
Question 29: Do you think the time allocated is sufficient?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teachers’ answers</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 42: Time allocated to the course*

The majority of teachers agree on the insufficient time allocated to the weekly English course. The time limit of 1h30 per week, to present a lesson, is too short because they could neither deal with all the topics nor help learners improve their abilities in all the skills. Others might also have presented some lessons hastily not to leave some topics uncovered by the end of the academic year.

**Question 30:** If “No”, what do you suggest?

Teachers did not give a lot of propositions, but they mainly agreed on a 3hours/week session. This would double the time and help them present the lesson with more devotion.

Question 31: Where do you find difficulties in managing the class?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teachers’ answers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Students number</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivation/interest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consciousness &amp; awareness</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 43: Managing the class*

Managing the class with tact is a successful way to present a good lesson, but this may not be an easy task to every teacher. Our participants find difficulties with classroom management in various aspects; the most important one is students’ motivation and interest in the classroom. In fact, negative attitudes of the students towards the language lead them to loose interest in learning it. This has gone worse with the concern that the department gives to the lecture. The time they allow for the weekly session and the separated exam schedules of the
course are indirect factors that influence students’ behaviour and make them believe that the course is “neglected” even by the institution.

The second obstacle the teachers face in presenting the lessons is students’ number in the classroom. They view that forty students per class do not facilitate their task and even cause problems of misunderstanding for more advanced peers.

Finally, an additional matter that hinders the good advancement of lectures is students’ lack of awareness and consciousness about the importance of the course. Because they are not yet faced with or convinced by the utility of the language for their objectives, especially the long-term ones, they do not give enough consideration to the content presented to them.

Teachers, in some additional notes, also highlighted the inappropriateness of the designed programme to students’ levels. They think that their level is very low in comparison with the content they are supposed to deal with; thus, with the negative attitudes they may hold, they will not make the necessary efforts to understand the advanced and specific knowledge they are supposed to have.

**Question 32:** Do you use translation if your students do not get to the point?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teachers’ answers</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 44: The use of translation*

Translation has always undergone serious debate about whether using it or not in the language classroom. Some teachers, whatever the institution they work in, do not support the recourse to translation to make students understand. In the case of the department of Commerce, the majority of teachers translate words, expressions or whole meanings whenever students find it hard to get to the point; however, in other cases some students do
not appreciate easy and immediate explanations through translation, and prefer a typical English course whatever the hardships they may face.

**Question 33:** If “No”, what other means do you use to consolidate your explanation?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teachers’ answers</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dictionary</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Synonyms/antonyms</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Words in context</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diagrams</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drawings</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gestures</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 45: The means used for explanation*

There are many pedagogical means and activities which facilitate students’ understanding of the course. These may be the means of teachers who do not like translating the information, but also additional techniques for those who do translate in the language course. If teachers want to get rid of translation, they make use of all the possible synonyms or homonyms of the words to simplify the information; they use words in context, diagrams or even paralinguistic features or illustrations to draw a virtual image of the meaning they want their students to get. This seems to be more appropriate than simply translating the information because it makes learners search for it by themselves; thus, learning new words will be possible without providing their equivalents in other languages.

4.3.5 Teachers’ Suggestions

**Question 34:** What are your suggestions to improve the situation of English language teaching in the department of Commerce?

Teachers are not satisfied with the current situation of English language teaching at the Department of Commerce. Below are their suggestions to improve this situation and better
help the students acquire the sufficient knowledge in order to achieve both their short-term and long-term objectives:

- Publishing specialized books about commercial simplified texts and data. Getting more references would help students have a clear view about their needs from the language.
- Making coordination between the Department of English and the one of Commerce to exchange teaching experiences in the domain of ESP.
- Giving more time to the course (3h/week).
- Encouraging students to participate in the classroom even if they do mistakes, and giving them more opportunities to practice Speaking and Reading.
- Giving the module equal attention as the other ones not to make students keep it apart.

5. Summary of the Findings

The results obtained and analyzed in the previous sections are clues that would help us decide about the design of the English course for students of Commerce. What follows is a summary of the findings from both questionnaires.

5.1 Students’ Questionnaire

- Background:

  Students that have been participating in the data collection have many similarities as well as differences, as far as learning is concerned. For around 80% of them, the learning background is the same. Belonging to the same generation, having studied under the same programme and with the same textbooks – all these factors make us believe that their background knowledge is almost equal.

- Attitudes:

  The same percentage of answers was directed to positive attitudes towards the language. Not taking account of the difficulties of the language, those learners manifested their interests
in learning it for the sake of better qualifications for a future job, improving their level of understanding or being better skilled for flawless communication. Students who have shown a negative position have justified their view by a failure in understanding the language (very probably for their bad experiences in the learning process).

- Proficiency:

This area will be particularly useful for us because it mirrors their weaknesses, thus, the linguistic practices they are mostly in need for. The majority of learners are aware of their deficiencies when it comes to communication, especially when it is spoken. In fact, a whole myriad of errors and distortions of the language is not a good “spectacle” when students are required to give oral answers; that is why a great deal of speaking should integrate the course.

Next spot that we should cast some light upon is “vocabulary” for learners’ failure in communicating is partly due to a lack of word “luggage” (the other reasons being shyness, lack of interest or ignorance of the answers). Not to segregate other students’ needs, Grammar tasks would also be reconsidered in chapter 4.

5.2 Teachers’ Questionnaire

- Qualifications:

The teachers having participated to our data collection hold the same degree: a Bachelor of Arts. This means that all of them have been studying English for four years at the university and the knowledge they have acquired is the one of General English. This means that they did not undergo particular, detailed or specialized studies of English in any domain whatsoever. Besides, the majority of them did not benefit from any kind of training before they integrate the teaching profession. They neither have been trained to teach GE nor ESP (which is kind of “handicapping” for students who want to improve their knowledge of the English language in relation to their domain of expertise).
Experience:

As mentioned in the previous point, graduates have become teachers without getting trained before being involved in the tough profession. This fact is a disadvantage for both instructors and learners. The majority of our participants are novice professionals while two of them have a 3-years and a 4-years experience. This experience may have become a “plus” as they got used to the domain of Commerce and Business; still, the academic results and achievements of learners could be much better if the teaching/learning situation gets to be improved.

We have also inquired about the departments in which our participants have been teaching. Three of them have been practicing in both departments: English and Commerce. Thus, depending on the months/years accumulated, they have gained more or less familiarity with their job, their category of students (GE or ESP learners) and an overview of the content to be presented for each.

Assumptions:

“Communication” is omnipresent in the outside world as well as academic institutions. Teachers of English in the Department of Commerce think that the most important thing that students have to master is communicating in English. Spoken or written communication? Teachers did not precise, but we assume that both are similarly important because learners are very likely to face both contexts – be this in the classroom or outside.

Next, teachers have pointed out that learners need specialized English references, i.e. books of Commerce/Finance/Marketing/Banking, etc. edited in English. The complexity of language, of course, would vary as learners move to more advanced levels. Also, teachers are not satisfied with the students’ level in the general aspects of the language, i.e. grammar, syntax and phonetics. At such an advanced level of studies, teachers do not expect learners to have poor grammar or even poor English vocabulary, and it is quite problematic because the
course density is not sufficient for instructors to restart with elementary English courses or improve students’ knowledge of basic English and present to them new/advanced information needed in their field of expertise. In this case, learners’ personal efforts are much needed to compensate their deficiencies.

The short-term objectives, according to teachers, are summarized in: (1) obtaining good results after exams and (2) acquiring a technical knowledge about the field of Commerce. For the long-term objectives, teachers believe that English is the language that these students will mostly be in need for after they graduate. They argue that the content of the courses would be indispensable in the job market, especially in the private sector where companies deal with foreign trade or when the company itself is foreign. Another long-term objective in learning English would be the ability to communicate with foreigners, especially for students who aim for further studies abroad.

We have asked these teachers also about the capacities and language skills learners need in order to achieve these objectives. Their opinions were directed towards the Speaking skill, and they argued for interactive tasks inside the classroom in order to improve this skill. Then, in order to convey a meaningful and correct message through speaking, individuals should also have the capacity to decode and analyze information of their interlocutors. For a successful proceeding of this latter operation, learners have to deal with a good amount of listening practice. Last but not least, teachers have given a secondary importance to Reading and Writing as the skills needed to achieve the short-term objectives. To achieve the long-term ones, teachers have classified the four skills in order of importance consecutively as: Speaking, Listening, Writing and Reading.

- **Implementation of the Course:**

In the fourth section of data analysis of the teachers’ questionnaire, respondents have provided us with some information concerning the current English course in the Department
of Commerce. The fact is that decision-makers have already designed a programme for the course, but the majority of teachers think that it does not support learners’ needs. This lack of appropriateness sometimes makes learners solicit extra knowledge originally not included in the course plan. Due to this, teachers have decided to bring their own modifications in function of the time allocated to the course. These adjustments are rather linked to the type of practice they administer to their students. Instances of this are: asking learners to prepare projects, designing translation exercises, deleting some sections of the lesson that teachers could not present (for lack of resources), making students practice more grammar rather than focusing on specialized content of the course.

The lack of sources has led teachers to concentrate their research for teaching materials on the Internet. Whether for full texts, definitions or technical vocabulary, teachers do not hesitate to have a look on the Web for the multitude of information available there. Few teachers, however, said they use some publications (books, magazines, articles, etc.) that relate to Economics or Business to extract specialized knowledge and grammar, and they consult grammar books or dictionaries to present linguistic data.

Because of time limitations, teachers cannot deal with all the tasks related to each skill. For Reading, they mainly make students read for gist and do not ask them to paraphrase or read intensively for details. For Speaking, tasks may be varied but not frequent enough for a better practice. Most of the times, students answer verbal cues or teachers’ questions after reading a text, make oral presentations of projects that teachers ask them to prepare or discuss the material with the teacher. Other tasks -such as: repeating, dialogues or so- are very rare if not inexisten. Concerning Writing, tasks are wide-ranging, too. The majority of teachers use dictation when they prefer not to use the chalk board, but this does not seem to bring effective results because students are so numerous and the instructor could not check the writings of each. Thus, mistakes persist, especially if students are indifferent. Less frequent writing tasks
are: sentence combination, items’ listing, text copying, etc. Finally, and considering learners’ weak level, teachers do deal with Grammar activities of different types in almost all lessons. These activities, by order of regularity, are: filling the blanks, checking the synonyms and homonyms, punctuation, spotting the parts of speech, verb-subject agreement, tense practice and describing.

As mentioned above, the main provider of teaching materials is the Web. All the participating teachers said they use this source, but only few of them have additional ones – mainly books and magazines. As for how the selected material is actually used, some may use it as it is and others may modify it. Bringing the material into the classroom without adjustment may be revealed to be complex for learners. If it contains a lot of specialized information at once, the shortness of time would not make it possible for learners to figure out all the meanings. However, if the material is modified according to the requirements of the course, the students’ level and amount of time available for its presentation, it will facilitate the explanation of the content and even provide the possibility for repetition if students do not grasp the meaning immediately. Besides, it will also avoid the teacher’s embarrassment as to the definition of all the uncommon or technical words. The most useful changes that teachers make are the simplification of the language used in the material and the summarization of the text.

- Course Specificities:

For this section, teachers have been first asked about the course density and they think that the time allocated for it is not enough to present all the content relevant to second year students of Commerce. In fact, they dispose of 1h30 per week and neither teachers nor students are satisfied of this. Teachers, to overcome the difficulties of the teaching/learning situation of the English course in this department argue that a minimum of three hours a week would be appropriate to improve the situation.
For the difficulties that teachers encounter in the classroom, four teachers out of five have pointed out the lack of interest of students. Personally, I have been teaching at that department as well and I have been observing this deceptive behavior right from the beginning of the course. A considerable number of students are not aware of the importance of gaining further capacities in the English language, and even after explaining the necessity of the course, they remained indifferent. They may hold deep reasons for this lack of concern, but it is probably due to their poor background knowledge or to the fact that they have been oriented to this field only by a matter of circumstances.

Another important difficulty that teachers face in the classroom is the students’ number. Personally, I do not think that the problem is learners’ discipline but rather the time that the instructor needs to explain to each group of students what they have not understood when the explanation was directed to the whole class. Unfortunately, teachers can do nothing to reduce the number of learners because this is the administration’s duty.

We have also been interested in knowing whether teachers have recourse to translation during the lessons, and four of them have been affirmative in this matter. In case students disapprove the use of translation (which is very possible), teachers employ other means of explanation such as: diagrams, words in context, gestures, synonymy, etc. in fact, these should help, and teachers would not be obliged to translate.

Finally, and the most important point that we have come to is teachers’ suggestions to improve the situation. They have been proposing important solutions, which are listed in the analysis of question 34.

6. Discussion of Results

The purpose of this dissertation was to investigate whether the design of an appropriate syllabus was necessary for students of Economics and Commercial Sciences to study a
specialized form of the English language and gain accurate and fluent communication needed in their future professions. The findings of our study indicate that they do.

The questionnaire was indispensable because it helped us collect information that determines the students’ weaknesses and what they expect from the course. The age of our participants ranged from 19 to 23 years old, and this tells us quite a bit about how many years they have been studying English. This difference, as has been shown previously in (Table 1) can be explained by a presumed failure of some students in the secondary level of studies or even in the first year of university studies. In this concern, our questionnaire also inspected students’ former exposure to English before attending university, and more than 89% of them studied it at school for 5 years. Lubega (1979) pointed to the importance of exposure in the English learning and the gaining of the right level of proficiency. The majority of our participants have been taught according to the same program and for a similar period (Table 3), and the majority again (Table 6) showed an interest in learning it, but only about half of them think they have a modest level. A minority studied English for a couple years more, and they might surpass the others for a supplementary knowledge they might have gained in the additional years of English learning, but a longer experience with the language does not necessarily guarantee a better level.

Of those who had a negative opinion about English (20% of the respondents), most of them said they do not understand it while others believed they do not need it, which creates a lack of interest in class. We believe this is a crucial point in our findings because the needs of the learners play an important role in the design of an appropriate syllabus in the field of English for Specific Purposes, as found by Chostelidou (2010).

The first impression that one gets, having compared the responses in (Table 04) with those of (Table 06) is that the number of students interested in the English course is slightly higher than the number of students who said they like the language. This means that among those
who don’t like the language, some are still interested in it. We assume that those who said they don’t like it and hold the view of indifference towards it are not aware of its importance in their field, and those who changed their view from dislike to interest seem to care about the utility of English in their potential future career. Since some students seem to be uninformed about the importance of English in their field of study, we believe it is important to expose them to its use worldwide, in almost all domains, through the reading and discussion of short articles or watching of brief documentaries and reviewing of other students’ opinions. Thus, providing technology (audiovisual media) in the classroom could be very helpful.

Students were also asked to give their opinions about what they needed English for. Many agree that it is essential for them to learn it better because they would need it in for their vocation while many others believe it is compulsory for them to study it well in order to succeed in their current studies. Whether to succeed in the English module itself or to collect all the possible information about their field in the target language, the data shows that those learners expect a lot from the course, and this means that the syllabus should be redesigned appropriately to meet their expectations. This supports and adds to the findings of Chostelidou (2010) who made similar observations in the study of a group of accountancy students.

Dealing with a class of approximately forty students in a specialized English course requires a well-prepared instructor. Ideally, young graduates get special training to integrate the domain of teaching, and it might happen in different institutions depending on where the teacher wants to practice: public schools, private schools, universities, etc. This is, actually, an important stage of transition from the theoretical knowledge acquired as a student to the practical one, which the “new” teacher has to apply in order to start an educational career. Unfortunately, the large majority of graduates do not undertake such training. The challenges would shrink if instructors receive pre-on in-service training on aspects of ESP and gain a
fundamental knowledge in business and economy, and this would help them adapt with ease to both a GE and an ESP context, as explained by Maleki (2008), citing Robinson (1991).

6.1 Limitations of the Study

Although this investigation confirms the hypothesis of the utility of designing an applicable syllabus for students of commerce and economics, it has certain limitations as any first study of a novice researcher. The sample consisted of 120 students and only 5 instructors, and it is a very small proportion of the whole population of second year economics students and ESP instructors in the country. Also, the questionnaire was designed to inspect the participants’ attitudes and expectations, but it seems not to provide enough information about their actual level. It might have provided more detailed results if it were supported by two tests or surveys administered before and after the academic year. This study relied on information collected from a sample of a population that experienced the previous school system, and the findings cannot be generalized regarding some aspects of the research. For instance, the former exposure to the language varied from a participant to the other, and one of the causes of this was that some of the students had followed a curriculum different from that of their classmates. Since the collection of our data, the public school system has changed and has been unified through the country. This means that, from now on, students will unanimously study English for 3 years in middle school and 3 years in high school, regardless of their years of failure.

6.2 Suggestions for Future Research

- Since our data collection was confined to a very small sample, a study on a larger one would justify an appropriate generalization of the findings.
- In the case of the department where I taught and conducted the data collection, a course design was already set by the decision-makers and was available in the
administration. It was ready to be handed to any instructor ready to take commands in an ESP/EFL class. A potential avenue for a future study in this domain would be to conduct a parallel research about what motivated them to design it that way and whether the learners’ needs and expectations were explored beforehand.

- ESP teacher training is important in this domain, but it was not at the center of our research. A touch on this area is left to investigate to reveal the imperative importance of employing specialized instructors in this field of study.

- As mentioned earlier in this research, students have a prejudiced opinion about the course because it is not given equal importance as other subjects by the department’s administration. Planning the English exam out of the general schedule of the rest of the subjects and giving it less credit makes the students lose interest in taking class seriously. Any future research in this respect should try to bring some light on where students’ negative attitudes come from and how to make them more attentive and curious about the course.

**Conclusion**

Chapter 3 presented the main findings of responses received from the students and teachers that were surveyed. The point behind this investigation was to determine the English language learning needs, attitudes, beliefs and opinions of the students of Commerce, and teachers’ perceptions, beliefs and suggestions. The interpretations of the results mainly lead to the conclusion that the leading aim of the English course in the school curriculum is to guarantee learners’ involvement in a future professional career. Students’ deficiencies are obvious, and it is clear that they need to learn the four main skills of language as well as revisit notions of grammar and vocabulary. Moreover, they need a supportive classroom environment to feed
their active participation by introducing varied activities like role play, dialogues and projects, pair and group work.

The following chapter, considering the details of the previous areas, will be aimed at designing the most appropriate course to solve the main problems of the teaching/learning situation in the Department of Commerce. The content of the course is not a solution on its own; thus, decision-makers, teachers and learners have to review their role in the improvement of such a situation.
Chapter IV: Pedagogical Implications and Recommendations

Introduction

1. Syllabus Considerations

2. Stages of Syllabus Design
   2.1. Needs Analysis
   2.2. Content Selection and Specification
   2.3. Activities and Exercise Types

3. Unit/Lesson Implementation
   3.1. Unit 1
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4. Pedagogical Recommendations

General Conclusion
Chapter 4: Pedagogical Implications and Recommendations

Introduction

The thorough analysis of the data collected from students and teachers as well as suggestions of the related literature allows us to adjust an ESP course syllabus to the students of Commerce. It will fit their demands as emphasis will be placed on tasks and activities that will benefit learning. As they will use the language in a specific situation, we have to consider their own needs, the demands of their institution (i.e. the department imposing limited schedules and semestrial exams), and the demands imposed by their future professional life. This final chapter is an account of pedagogical implications and recommendations for teachers and decision-makers to review the actual difficulties of the learning/teaching environment. If the current scheduled courses cannot be modified by teachers, then teachers have to foster students’ skills by having recourse to more effective methodologies and encourage learners to plan strategic ways according to the appropriate aims. All of these would help learners transfer the knowledge they have gained from the course to new situations and use their new skills in real life communication. The whole framework will act as a remedial course/syllabus which promotes communicative abilities and foster language proficiency.

1. Syllabus Considerations

The Department of Commerce of the University of Constantine has been providing English teachers with a programme made up of headlines constituting the major sections of it. Then, the number and type of activities, the texts, the questions and all the details related to each lesson were left to teachers’ random selection and presentation. The programme of second year students (cf. Appendix 2) is, in fact, made up of subject-specific sections to allow learners grasp the maximum essentials of their field in the foreign language. However,
something that seems to have been marginalized is the actual level of learners and their problem-solving aptitudes or not while dealing with technical information using a language in which they are not able to communicate. According to the teachers who participated in the questionnaire and my personal experience, students are in a great need of communicative abilities. Their language deficiencies are the major cause of their incapacity to communicate, but the lack of textbooks has also favoured this weakness.

The syllabus we are trying to design is destined to second year students of Commerce. It focuses on the improvement of the learners’ ability to use English orally and in writing, and the specialized vocabulary to prepare them to be able to successfully deal with professional requirements when they graduate. To develop this syllabus, we will base our decisions on the data provided by the questionnaires, my personal experience of English language teaching to students of Commerce and the theoretical works done in the field of language teaching, ESP and discourse analysis.

The syllabus’ role is to provide some kind of security to both students and teachers. There are many different types of syllabi which can be used, but there are some basic principles and questions that syllabus designers or teachers should ask themselves before developing a specific one. These interrogations mainly include:

- The kind of students that are in the course (number, background knowledge, motivation, etc.);

- The outcomes that are expected from students, i.e. what they should be able to do as a result of the instructional programme.

- The syllabus types in order to find the most likely one to lead to the outcomes desired.

- The main goals for the course;

- The learning activities that can be used to meet these goals;

- The best teaching strategy to structure the learning activities.
Answering these questions is the leading way to decide which type of syllabus best fits the course. The possibility and practicality aspects of a particular syllabus to be developed and implemented are also of great significance while processing the issue. To put in more tangible terms, in making practical decisions about syllabus design, one must take into account all the potential factors that may affect the teachability of a specific syllabus. By beginning with an assessment and investigation over each syllabus type, keeping track of the choice and integration of the different types according to local needs, one may find a principled and practical solution to the problem of suitability and efficiency in syllabus design and implementation.

2. Stages of Syllabus Design

The process of designing a language syllabus requires the consideration of: needs analysis, content specification and syllabus organization.

2.1 Needs Analysis

Language learning/teaching is governed by a set of objectives and needs. Some learners may not have a specific purpose for learning a foreign language, and they attend the course just for fun or to pass an exam. Nowadays, the situation is different because of Globalization and the unanimous view that English is the language of technology, medical sciences, international exchanges, political relations and business.

Richterich (1972) defines language needs as: “the requirements which arise from the use of a language in the multitude of situations which may arise in the social lives of individuals and groups”. The requirements of our current group – students of Commerce- have been analyzed and with the data collected we should be able to determine the most valuable functions to teach in order to achieve the learning objectives. Van Ek (1976) views that language learning objectives must be geared towards learners’ needs integrating the following components:
- the situations in which the foreign language will be used, including the topics to be dealt with;
- the language activities in which the learner will engage;
- the language functions which the learner will fulfill;
- what the learner will be able to do with respect to each topic;
- the general notions which the learner will be able to handle;
- the specific notions which the learner will be able to handle;
- the language forms which the learner will be able to use;
- the degree of skill with which the learner will be able to perform.

Though determining needs has nothing of an exact science, our procedure of formal data gathering has given us insights of what the actual problem is and helped us clarify what learners want from the course. Hence, in attempting to satisfy their language needs and communicative target situation they will face, we can draw the following list of objectives to be achieved by students of Commerce:

- Extending learners’ academic skills and increase their knowledge and understanding of introductory economics.
- Expanding vocabulary and phrases associated with fundamental Business concepts and activities.
- Learning about and practicing office procedures in a professional area (understanding telephone messages, news reports, conversations in business settings, etc.).
- Learning to communicate effectively in job interviews as well as business settings.
- Understanding a variety of texts, such as business reports, documents and newspaper articles.
- Practice writing resumes and business-related letters or e-mails.
- The choice of materials, the multiplicity of activities and the variety in teaching procedures would help develop students’ interest in economics’ issues and raise their awareness about the relevance of English to their field.

### 2.2 Content Selection and Specification

Learning a foreign language generally serves to perform a large number of functions in different settings. The impracticality of attempting to predict all the possible situations in which students might use the foreign language has led syllabus designers to determine some criteria for the selection of the functions to be taught and which would be particularly useful in the most frequent contexts and topics that learners would be dealing with. After having determined learners’ needs, we are able to decide upon the content of the syllabus. Its inventory will mainly be drawn from lists of specific topics but also specified through checklists dealing with communicative functions and discourse skills.

Our selections will follow the view that: “From the objectives, elements of the subject matter are focused upon, for example, particular structures, sets of functions, or a range of communicative events” (Kaur, 1990). Besides selecting commerce-related topics that would enrich students’ technical English vocabulary, we are also aiming at improving their general skills with grammatical, syntactical and phonetic practices.

Trim (1973) describes syllabus specification in terms of:

- the behavioural input-output chain;
- the language which can be used in a wide range of context;
- the taught language which is appropriate to the interest of learners and the situations in which they might possibly use their linguistic knowledge.

Shaw (1976) sees it to be concerned with:

- How much we can teach or how much can be learnt by the learners in question?
Which items should be included?

His selection is based on students’ level and duration of the course. These are good indicators of how much should be included and how difficult the content should be (Kaur, 1990). What is common to these two views is going to be our procedure of selection:

- Determining learners’ previous knowledge and present level.
- Deciding about the amount of content to be taught.
- Checking the functional register and job tasks they should perform.
- Assuring interactive communication through an interesting and motivating context.
- Checking the coverage of grammatical items.

To select the most appropriate content to Commerce students’ needs, we shall provide the following lists of topics related to their field, functions and demands that they would face in their jobs and language structures most likely to appear in the texts and activities they will be dealing with.

a) List of Topics:

- Marketing Essentials
- Oil Industry
- Sales Talk
- Banking Products and Services
- Business Planning
- Production, Distribution and Consumption
- Types of Business Ownership
- Wages and Salaries
- Trade Unions
- Standard of Living
• Supply and Demand
• Financial institutions
• Revenue and profit
• Solving unemployment
• Causes of inflation
• Introduction to International Trade
• Effects of privatisation
• Exports and imports
• European Monetary Union
• Introduction to brands
• Distribution
• Buyer Behaviour
• Market Analysis

b) List of Functions

• Answering questions at job interviews.
• Answering phone conversations, making sales calls, giving oral instructions.
• Taking/leaving notes and messages.
• Writing e-mails.
• Filling in forms.
• Attending sales meetings.
• Discussing and revising sales techniques.
• Product presentation and promotion.
• Attending a marketing training seminar or a trade show.
• Starting a speech or meeting.
• Negotiating transactions.
• Writing reports.
• Writing business memos and letters.
• Writing complaints.
• Entertaining clients.
• Explaining technical processes.
• Investigating problems, evaluating alternatives, proposing solutions.
• Gathering information, drawing up surveys and questionnaires.
• Communicating with colleagues and superiors, making short individual speeches or team presentations.
• Discussing an investment or the setting up of a business.
• Booking for a business trip.
• Making insurance procedures.
• Keeping and compiling records of deposits.

c) Language Structures

• Definite & indefinite articles
• Sequence words (First, Then, Afterwards…)
• Word order
• Prepositions
• Tenses (simple, continuous & perfect)
• Conjunctions, quantifiers, numerals, possessives
• Pronouns
• Pronominal & adnominal demonstratives
• Genitive, adjective & relative clauses
2.3 Activities and Exercise Types

Besides the aspects differentiating BE from GE stated previously in Chapter 2, the distinction also lies in the choice of teaching materials, listening and reading texts and vocabulary activities. For example, the sentence “I have filled the tabular information of the invoice” in a BE exercise will be more instructive than “I have completed the exercises of the lesson” because it has a GE grammatical structure but a business-specific vocabulary. Teachers of BE are first of all teachers of English. In a Marketing course, for example, they will just ask questions about the learners’ field of expertise or present -in English- some specialized information they have been searching for, unless they conducted Business studies before becoming English teachers. Questions like: “Can you explain the major principles of Marketing?” will be first and foremost directed on measuring learners’ grammar, pronunciation problems and vocabulary gaps. Then, it will lead them to two achievements: practicing their expert knowledge of their own field and gaining the linguistic competence that enriches their English fluency.

Learners aiming at a future occupation within a multinational company already have the first half of what could qualify them to the job. The second half –as English is becoming the international language of Business- will be gained once they acquire the necessary linguistic data from their English course. Presenting the particularities of a new product during a meeting of an international trade needs a moderate handling of the speaking skill. Thus, oral
practice activities in the classroom, through dialogues, role-taking and oral projects, are revealed to be “vital” for a successful qualification to this potential occupation.

Skillfulness also applies to teachers as researchers to prepare their lessons. In fact, they need to consider the course both through a teaching and a learning process because they will be faced with a great deal of interesting new information very likely to serve them with the coming generations of learners. Their personal research will help them get used to the field and feel much less intimidated by the status and expertise of the learners.

Examples of activity types are cited in, but not limited to, the following list:

- Reading out series of numbers (hotel room, telephone or fax, etc.), measures, dates, prices, scores, temperatures, decimal formulas, fractions, percentages, time, etc.
- Writing down numbers after listening
- Ordering sentences/steps/procedures
- Selecting the appropriate idea to complete a definition/description
- Word combination (e.g.: Market Research, Advertising Concept, Marketing Mix…)
- Matching components to the corresponding description
- Grouping/classifying words/phrases under major headings/categories
- Completing/substituting/replacing sentence pairs
- Noun formation
- Word building
- Sentence formation
- Brainstorming basic information related to the field
- Contextual guessing
- Improvising a phone conversation (pair work)
- Gap filling
- Multiple-choice exercises
• The odd one out activity
• Word search puzzles
• Crossword puzzles
• Making lists of products/services
• Verb forms and tense practice
• Turn-taking and asking questions
• Defining the grammatical similarities of sets of sentences
• Defining the grammatical differences between sets of sentences
• Choosing the right words from lists to complete forms
• Describing graphs (vocabulary practice)
• Explaining acronyms
• Recognizing numbers

3. Unit/Lesson Implementation

The next step after deciding about the most appropriate syllabus or syllabus combination is the translation of decisions into actual units. To illustrate the above mentioned ideas, we provide here two model units/lessons that instructors can use for teaching or as a model for designing their own lessons:

3.1. Unit 1

Objective: To practice and expand vocabulary and phrases associated with fundamental marketing concepts and activities.

Warm-up: Ask students to brainstorm a basic definition of marketing. Suggest that marketing is a general heading with 4 subheadings. Check and discuss their familiarity with the meaning and function of sales, promotion, advertising and PR.
What is Marketing?

Marketing, in economics, is a social and managerial function that is concerned with the flow of goods and services from producer to consumer. In traditional understanding, it may be defined as the allocation, circulation and sale of goods. Marketing is associated with the process of researching, developing, promoting, selling, and distributing a product or service. In a modernized capitalist economy, where almost all production is directed for a market, such activities are just as vital as the production of merchandises.

The practice of marketing is almost as old as humanity itself. Whenever a person has an item or is capable of performing a service, and he or she seeks another person who might want that item or service, that person is involved in marketing. A market was originally simply a gathering place where people, with a supply of items or capacity to perform a service, could meet with those who might desire the items or services.

Such meetings embodied all the aspects of today's marketing methods, although in an informal way. Sellers and buyers sought to understand each other's needs, capacities, and psychology, all with the goal of getting the exchange of items or services to take place. Open markets throughout the world, with buyers and sellers mingling are today's example of this basic activity.

Most companies today have a customer orientation. This implies that the company focuses its activities and products on customer needs. Generally there are two ways of doing this: the customer-driven approach and the product innovation approach.

In the consumer-driven approach, consumer wants are the drivers of all strategic marketing decisions. No strategy is pursued until it passes the test of consumer research. Every aspect of
a market offering, including the nature of the product itself, is driven by the needs of potential consumers. The starting point is always the consumer. The rationale for this approach is that there is no point spending funds developing products that people will not buy. History attests to many products that were commercial failures in spite of being technological breakthroughs.

The next big thing is a concept in marketing that refers to a product or idea that will allow for a high amount of sales for that product and related products. Marketers believe that by finding or creating the next big thing they will spark a cultural revolution that results in this sales increase.

In a product innovation approach, the company pursues product innovation then tries to develop a market for the product. Product innovation drives the process and marketing research is conducted primarily to ensure that a profitable market segment exists for the innovation. The rationale is that customers may not know what options will be available to them in the future so we should not expect them to tell us what they will buy in the future. Many firms, such as research and development focused companies, successfully focus on product innovation. Many purists doubt whether this is really a form of marketing orientation at all, because of the ex-post status of consumer research. Some even question whether it is marketing.

For a business marketing to be successful, product, pricing, promotion and distribution must reflect the wants and desires of the consumers in the target market. Trying to convince a market segment to buy something they don’t want and is extremely expensive, would only cause failure. Marketers should engage in marketing research, both formal and informal, to determine what consumers want and what they are willing to pay for. By doing so, it would give them sustainable competitive advantage.
Text Understanding:

1. Answer the following questions:
   a) What is Marketing about?
   b) What is the main focus of companies nowadays?
   c) Why could products or services be a commercial failure?
   d) What is the principal view underlying the product innovation approach?
   e) How could Marketing drive a business to success?

2. Search in the text for words meaning the same as:
   Money – Confirm – Advances (N) – Goal - Underlying principle

3. Search in the text for words meaning the opposite of:
   Random – Success – Separated – Dispersing - Low-priced

4. Underline the words that can be combined with ‘market’, and write the possible combinations:

   overseas - service - leader - survey - upscale - country
   developing - competence - potential - business - share

   ....................... market....................
   ....................... market....................
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5. Match the following marketing components to the right description.

The ‘Marketing Mix’ consists of the 4 P’s:
* Product where the customers can buy it
* Promotion one that meets the customer need
* Price to encourage the customer to buy it
* Place one that makes company profit and keeps the customer satisfied

6. Place the following words and phrases under the right marketing heading. Some of the ideas might belong to more than one category.

- media - to announce - press release - special offer
- billboards - discounts - banners - to call on (customers)
- to sponsor - free samples - reputation - coupons - campaign
- to display – negotiation - internet - follow-up to - bargain
- press conference - to endorse – commercials

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7. Finish the sentence pairs/ groups using the noun form of the underlined verb.

* We will **announce** our marketing plans at the meeting tomorrow.

We will make an ______________ about our marketing plans at the meeting tomorrow.

* He wants to **bargain** with the customer.

He wants to offer a ______________ to the customer.

* Rolex **sponsors** the Wimbledon Tennis Tournament.

Rolex is a ______________ of Wimbledon.

Every year Rolex gives its ______________ to Wimbledon.

* Shops can **display** new products.
Shops can set up special ____________ for new products.

* Famous sports stars often **endorse** sports clothing and accessories.

__________________ from famous sports stars helps to sell sports clothing and accessories.

8. **Match at least one of these time clauses with each of the sentences in a) to j):**

when I joined this company  a) I didn’t have a lot of experience
in the 1990s                  b) My boss uses a laptop
the other day                c) I was looking for a different job
during a meeting             d) I worked for my present company’s major competitor
recently                    e) I have been working on this project
since January                f) I last made a conference call in English
hardly ever                  g) I’m flying to Munich
by Tuesday                   h) I’ll finish this report
never                        i) I was caught making personal phone calls
for a year                   j) I’ve had a lot in my in-tray
in a fortnight’s time
this week
 ------------------------

3.2. Unit 2

**Objective:** Students will enrich their vocabulary knowledge and improve their understanding of the text. They will also practice listening, words in context and definitions.

**Warm-up:**

1. What is money? How is it used?
2. How much money do you have right now in your wallet or bag?
3. What do you think is the average amount of money most college students carry?
4. Do you receive an allowance from your parents? Is your allowance more or less than your friends' allowance?
5. Do you have an ATM card or credit card? Do you buy things with cash or do you use credit?

Money

Money is something that is accepted as a form of payment for products or services, or for the payment of obligations. It is a medium of exchange that allows individuals within and between different cultures to cooperate.

Without money, trade would have to be conducted through barter, where traders would exchange the things that they wanted more for things that they wanted less. The problem with barter is that it is difficult and time-consuming to determine the value of specific items. Additionally, most forms of barter cannot be broken down to buy things of lesser value, nor is it easily transportable. Money solves these problems of barter.

Money is simply a common medium of exchange that everyone agrees upon, and, thus, they accept it as a form of payment for their goods and services. Money has 3 basic properties that make it desirable to use it as a medium of exchange: (1) a means of payment, (2) a unit of account, (3) and a store of value.

It is an accepted unit of exchange for goods and services or for the satisfaction of obligations, such as debt, because it is standardized into specific units with specific values; hence, it is much easier to access its value and can be readily exchanged. It is divisible into smaller units to make smaller payments, or large amounts of money can be carried with much less burden than carrying the equivalent value of barter.

Because money is standardized into specific values, it can be used to price goods and services, and allows the easy comparison of prices. Because the value of money is determined
by general agreement, the condition of the money is irrelevant to its value. For instance, if a farmer wanted to buy a cow and offered a horse in exchange, then obviously, the seller of the cow would want to examine the condition and age of the horse, since that would determine the value of the horse; likewise for the seller of the horse. When money is offered, only the amount matters, not its condition.

Prices provide information for consumers and producers that allocate economic resources to the most desirable uses. Items in demand command a higher price, which induces sellers to provide more of that item. Conversely, items in lower demand have a lower price, and, thus, sellers will allocate fewer economic resources to provide that item.

Money must keep most of its value in time; otherwise, people would not accept it for payment. This means that money has to be relatively scarce and that the supply of new money must either be difficult to produce or tightly controlled. Any increases in the money supply must be gradual and expand with the economy. Otherwise, the increase of the total quantity of money will reduce the value of money, which is a direct cause of inflation.

The currency itself must also be durable; otherwise it would eventually lose its value as money as it decays or disintegrates, and, thus, people would not keep it.

-----------------------------

Text Understanding:

1. Check the correctness of the following statements:

a) Barter is a way of making money.

b) Money is accepted to exchange products as well as services.

c) The more a product is demanded the higher the price for it.

d) Goods that are not very demanded have higher prices.

e) A currency never loses its value.
2. Select the correct synonym:
Scarce → rare / common
Tightly → strongly / slowly
Conversely → on the contrary / equally

3. Select the correct antonym:
Goods → worse / products
Burden → load / benefit
Otherwise → if not / also

4. Read out the following numbers:
-5° C 0044 1323 891105
2-0 (2-1) 8.50 ($8.50)
0.234 (2.234) 709
2 2/5 (1 1/2) 2/ 3/ 1903 (2/ 3/ 1933)

5. Listen and choose what kind of number is being said:
(3-4, 3.14, 1980, 250 £, 671002354, 120, 3/5, 37°C)

a. A date
b. A (hotel) room number
c. A fraction (e.g. 3/4)
d. A decimal (e.g. 0.165)
e. A telephone or fax number
f. A sports score
g. A price
h. A temperature

6. Pair work: say these numbers
12,520,000 people 07:35 - Thurs. 31/7/1970 ¾ of 1 percent
0.0035% (0044) 01323 645342 - It’s on the 7th floor

7. What questions could be asked to obtain the numbers you have just dictated? In
pairs, write one question down for each number.
E.g.: How many people work in your company/ live in your village?
8. What's the country's currency? Match the country with the name of its currency.

a. Japan 1. Peso
b. Thailand 2. Rupee
c. Mexico 3. Mark
d. Mainland China 4. Yen
e. Germany 5. Baht
f. Italy 6. Pound
g. Canada 7. Franc
h. France 8. Lira
i. India 9. Dollar
j. United Kingdom 10. Yuan

9. Dictate these phrases to your partner, and write down the phrases they dictate to you.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student A</th>
<th>Student B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1250 people</td>
<td>3 people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Since 1990</td>
<td>by 2.53%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When I’m 62 or 63</td>
<td>120 kph</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>About 15,000 miles</td>
<td>3-0 against Manchester United</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>About 1 ½ hours</td>
<td>on the 6th floor, in room 209</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-5 degrees C</td>
<td>a year</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

10. Form the correct version of the word using the word root to the right of the phrase. Click on the arrow to see if you have answered correctly.

a. I've just bought a new ………. policy.
   - insure
b. He's just spent all his ………. on a brand new car.
   - save
c. The old violin proved to be ………. ______________.
   - worth
d. The bank ………. asked to see my passport.
   - cash
e. My friend inherited $1,000,000 from a ………. relative.
   - wealth
f. This is not his ………. on the check.
   - sign
g. Thank you for your ………. ______________.
   - generous
h. We had to take out a ………. from the bank to purchase the house.
   - lend
i. Unfortunately, my business is not very ______________.
   - profit
j. I've always wanted to stay in a ………. hotel.
   - luxury
11. How many syllables?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>One</th>
<th>Two</th>
<th>Three</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Open</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Account</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kind</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Savings</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>check</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>write</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>apply</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>money</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>minimum</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>opening</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>balance</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pay</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>free</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

12. Write the appropriate definition of each word:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A.T.M.</td>
<td>A person dealing with cash transactions in a bank, shop, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Banknote</td>
<td>Written order to a bank to pay the stated amount from one's account</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Budget</td>
<td>Give money especially to charity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cash</td>
<td>Coins or bank notes (not cheques); actual money paid, not credit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cashier</td>
<td>Piece of paper money</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cheque/check</td>
<td>Amount of money available or needed for a specific use</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coin</td>
<td>The money used in a country</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Currency</td>
<td>A piece of metal used as money</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Donate</td>
<td>Automated Teller Machine; cash dispenser</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fee</td>
<td>Give or allow the use of money which must be returned with interest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Invest</td>
<td>Pay back money received; reimburse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lend</td>
<td>To be in debt to somebody; to owe money to somebody</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Owe</td>
<td>Take money from a bank account</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Refund</td>
<td>Payment made to a professional person (doctor, lawyer, etc.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Withdraw</td>
<td>To put money into business, property, etc. in order to earn interest or profit</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

13. Find the words in the list below in the grid. Words can go horizontally, vertically and diagonally, backwards or forwards.
14. Collect the terms that fit each list:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GO UP</th>
<th>GO DOWN</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>increase</td>
<td>_____________</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fall</td>
<td>_____________</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>decrease</td>
<td>_____________</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>banknote</th>
<th>debit</th>
<th>loan</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>borrow</td>
<td>deposit</td>
<td>payment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>budget</td>
<td>donate</td>
<td>receipt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cash</td>
<td>fee</td>
<td>refund</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cheque</td>
<td>interest</td>
<td>save</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>coin</td>
<td>invest</td>
<td>spend</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>credit</td>
<td>lend</td>
<td>tip</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>currency</td>
<td>loan</td>
<td>withdraw</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
climb

drop

decline

lift

rise

15. Label the lines opposite with the words below:

remain steady
fluctuate
increase slightly
decrease dramatically
decrease slightly
increase rapidly
rise dramatically
plunge
drop suddenly
stay the same
go up a little
go down slightly

16. Rewrite these sentences, then match them to the diagram.

1. Then / will / pick up / for / rest of the
year / the / profits / rapidly

2. In / slightly / costs / decrease / next
few years / will / the

3. Costs / the / been / rapidly / for /
rising / last year / has

4. I / profits / will / for / next two
months / think / the / drop

5. Profits / have / for / remained / last / six months / the / steady
4. Pedagogical Recommendations

According to the learners and teachers, the inadequacy of the learning/teaching conditions may be summarized in the following:

- Unqualified teachers
- Over-crowdedness of classes
- Insufficient course density
- Inadequacy of tasks with learners’ needs
- Teaching methodology
- Lack of textbooks

These are the most flagrant difficulties that both teachers and students face in the pedagogical environment in question. The implications we have suggested are further preparations for the teaching of Business English. Wong-Fillmore and Snow (2002) argue for the "teacher knowledge about language"; in other words, instructors have to manage quite well the language they are teaching. This means that trained instructors will be the best placed to deal with the field than untrained ones. They won’t be doctors nor accountants, but they will have knowledge related to medicine and accountancy.

One important matter that has to be seriously considered is the change in status for the English course, more precisely: the exam scheduling. During my experience in the department, I have noticed students’ indifference towards the importance of their achievements in the examinations because they were not included within the time table of all the other subject matters’ tests. This “separation” of the module makes it seem less important; otherwise, why not “merge” its test within the others?

Students have also expressed their need for a helping tool: a textbook. The textbook is a kind of landmark that students could consult in the case they find difficulties reviewing what has been presented in the classroom. It should be published, and it has to cover some areas of
the field of general English in addition to specialized knowledge. It would be of an extreme
usefulness as it remains their main reference when the teacher is not there to re-explain some
problematic spots already presented in the lesson. Ideally, publishing a specialized and
simplified one would solve so many revision problems. If it is the case, the textbook should
contain material that is interesting to the students by incorporating variety and integrating the
four skills, tasks and activities in the form of illustrations. The change being made, it should
contribute to the improvement of learners’ language proficiency by focusing on the
development of their communicative ability and their present level of English proficiency.
General Conclusion

General (language for no purpose) courses at any proficiency level almost always teach too much, e.g., vocabulary, skills, registers or styles some learners do not need, and too little, e.g., omitting lexis and genres that they do. Instead of a one-size-fits-all approach, it is more defensible to view every course as involving specific purposes. (Long, 2005:19)

This modest research has changed my perspective on the importance of ESP and made me mull over my very short experience in teaching Commerce students and reconsider the question “Why ESP?” I underestimated all the significance, ideas, concepts and duties behind the acronym in question, and as I was conducting this study, I realized that it is a deal bigger than I expected. There is still a lot to learn about it. Needs of students, their interests, their goals, motivation, why they chose such or such field, what they expect their career to be, what knowledge they would need in a real life situation, what vocabulary they should have in mind, etc. - all these are words and expressions that carry a lot of meaning in the domain of ESP, and the specialized instructor should certainly review them before starting the course.

There is a huge focus on the learners and what they can be taught and then achieve, and in the second place comes the instructor and what they can give. Although the teachers’ views have been very useful, there is an important focus on students. As noticed in this study, many students felt uninterested in the course, and the one way to make them motivated is to present to them a relevant content; as Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 8) said: “Tell me what you need English for and I will tell you the English that you need”. Our targeted population, with the importance of economy worldwide, is the most in need for acquiring sufficient knowledge about EBP/BE and EIL; that is why we attempted at exploring their needs and determining their objectives. To achieve the sought objectives, practioners have to be knowledgeable about those needs and the specialist-area discourse because gaining control of the latter helps
them address the former. This knowledge needs not be a deep one, as viewed by Ferguson (1997) and by Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) in saying, “Business people do not expect a Business English teacher to know how to run a business; they expect knowledge of how language is used in business” (p. 188). It is a specialist knowledge that instructors have to develop, in which case they start playing the role of ‘researcher’ (op. cit.). One of the main sources of that knowledge, in my case, has been students. In fact, they may know much more than their instructor, but they lack the linguistic literacy. Dudley-Evans (1997) observed this and concluded that instructors best grasp that knowledge from and with their students.

Pointing back to the hypothesis stated at the beginning of this study, it is now possible to say that the objectives of the English course at the Department of Commerce are not being fulfilled. The findings confirm that students are not satisfied with their performances and those of their instructors, and they are already at their second year of graduate studies. This implies that even at their first year, they did not gain much from the content presented to them. Thus, further investigation needs to take place in order to answer questions like: Do students need English for university courses or for their jobs after they graduate? What kind of knowledge do they need to acquire? With what characteristics? For what situation and what purposes? To what extent will they use that knowledge? Which skills would they need? Are they in need of a textbook? Who proposes the texts to be studied: Economists or language teachers? Bringing answers to these questions and many others would lead not only to the understanding of learners’ needs but also how the ESP community is progressing.


Kaur, S. [undated]. ESP course design: matching learner needs to aims. Universiti Sains Malaysia. [http://esp-world.info/Articles_14/DESIGNING%20ESP%20COURSES.htm]


Appendix List

Appendix 1 – Teachers’ Questionnaire
Appendix 2 – Students’ Questionnaire
Appendix 3 – English Programme for First Year Students of the Department of Commerce
Appendix 4 – English programme for Second Year Students of the Department of Commerce
Appendix 1
Teachers’ Questionnaire

This questionnaire’s aim is to collect data for the writing of a Magistère dissertation by N.KRARZIA, under the supervision of Doctor Hacene Hamada, et the Department of English, University of Constantine.

We would be grateful if you could answer all he questions, which will provide us with information concerning English teaching/learning in the Department of Commerce.

Section one: Teachers’ information

1. Would you, please, specify your degree:
   a. Licence
   b. Magistère
   c. Ph.D
   d. Other (specify, please)

2. Have you benefited from any training before starting to teach?
   Yes ○ No ○

3. If « Yes »:
   a. For how long? .................................................................
   b. Where was that? .............................................................

4. How long have you been teaching English for non-native speakers?
   ...........................................................................................

5. In which department?
   ...........................................................................................
6. How long have you been teaching English in the Department of Commerce?

Section two: ESP data

7. What do you think are the learners’ needs?

8. What do you think are the short-term objectives of English language teaching for students of Commerce?

9. What do you think are the long-term ones?

10. What are the capacities or language skills they need most to achieve their short-term objectives?
    (classify by order of importance: 1, 2, 3, …)
    a. Reading skills
    b. Writing skills
    c. Listening skills
    d. Speaking/Communicative skills
    e. Other (please specify)
11. What are the capacities or language skills they need most to achieve their long-term objectives?

(classify by order of importance: 1, 2, 3, …)

- a. Reading skills  
- b. Writing skills  
- c. Listening skills  
- d. Speaking/communicative skills  
- e. Other (please specify) …………………………………………………………………………………

Section three: Teaching data

12. Is there a programme provided by the department?

Yes ○ No ○

13. If «Yes», does it cover learners’ needs?

Yes ○ No ○

14. If it doesn’t cover their needs, what does it lack?

……………………………………………………………………………………………………
……………………………………………………………………………………………………
……………………………………………………………………………………………………

15. Do you bring modifications to the established programme (adding or deleting sections)?

Yes ○ No ○

16. If «Yes», please specify:

……………………………………………………………………………………………………
……………………………………………………………………………………………………
……………………………………………………………………………………………………
Do you use any specialized textbooks?

Yes ☐  No ☐

17. What are the references you use?

…………………………………………………………………………………………
…………………………………………………………………………………………
…………………………………………………………………………………………

18. what kind of activities do you involve your learners in?

a. Reading ☐

b. Speaking ☐

c. Writing ☐

d. Grammar ☐

e. Others (please, specify) ……………………………………………………………

19. If you deal with Reading, what kind of tasks do your learners perform?

a. Reading for gist ☐

b. Summarizing ☐

c. Paraphrasing ☐

d. Guessing from context ☐

e. Intensive reading for details ☐

f. Others: …………………………………………………………………………………

20. If you deal with Speaking, what kind of tasks do your learners perform?

a. Repeating ☐

b. Role-plays ☐

c. Oral presentation ☐
d. Answering verbal cues 

e. Interactive conversation 

f. Others: ..............................................................

21. If you deal with Writing, what kind of tasks do your learners perform?

a. Dictation 

b. Word order 

c. Sentence combination 

d. Copying texts word for word 

e. Making lists of items, ideas, reasons, etc. 

f. Others: ..............................................................

22. If you deal with Grammar, what kind of tasks do your learners perform?

a. Punctuation 

b. Spotting the parts of speech 

c. Verb-subject agreement 

d. Filling in the blanks 

e. Describing people, places and things 

f. Others: ..............................................................

23. Do students solicit extra knowledge or practice? 

Yes ☐  No ☐

24. If «Yes», please specify:

.................................................................................................................................
25. Where do you get your teaching materials from?
   a. Internet
   b. Books
   c. Magazines
   d. Other (please, specify) …………………………………………………………………
   ………………………………………………………………………………………………

26. Do you use the materials/texts :
   a. as they are
   b. bring some changes (length, language complexity,…) ?

27. If you chose « b », what kind of changes do you make?
   ………………………………………………………………………………………………
   ………………………………………………………………………………………………
   ………………………………………………………………………………………………

Section four: Course specificities & students’ involvement

28. Do you think the time allotted (one hour & a half/week) or English language teaching/learning is enough to meet the students’ needs?
   Yes ○ No ○

29. If « No », what do you suggest?
   ………………………………………………………………………………………………
   ………………………………………………………………………………………………
   ………………………………………………………………………………………………

30. Do you find difficulties in managing the class with :
   a. Students’ number
b. Group work

c. Motivation

d. Consciousness & awareness

e. Other (please, specify) …………………………………………………………………………………
...........................................................................................................................................................
...........................................................................................................................................................

31. Do you use translation if your students don’t get to the point?

   Yes ☐  No ☐

32. If « No », what other means do you make use of to consolidate your explanation?

   a. Dictionary ☐
   b. Synonyms/antonyms ☐
   c. Words in context ☐
   d. Diagrams ☐
   e. Drawings ☐
   f. Other (please, specify) …………………………………………………………………………………
...........................................................................................................................................................
...........................................................................................................................................................

33. What are your suggestions to improve the situation of English teaching to students of Commerce?

   …...........................................................................................................................................................
...........................................................................................................................................................
...........................................................................................................................................................
Appendix 2

Students’ Questionnaire

Ce questionnaire est destiné aux étudiants de 2\textsuperscript{ème} année en Sciences Commerciales dans le but de collecter des informations pour la rédaction d’un mémoire de Magistère en Anglais, option didactique des langues, par Mlle N.Krarzia.

Nous vous prions de bien vouloir répondre aux questions à fin de nous aider à analyser la situation de l’enseignement de la langue anglaise en Sciences Commerciales.

--------------------

Première partie : Concernant l’étudiant :

1. Age : ………………… ans

2. Sexe :              F ☐              M ☐

3. Pendant combien d’années avez-vous étudié l’Anglais ?
   a. Primaire : ……………
   b. CEM : ……………
   c. Lycée : ……………

4. Aimez-vous l’Anglais ?
   Oui ☐              ☐ Non

5. Si vous avez répondu « Non », dites pourquoi :
   a. Vous ne la comprenez pas ☐
   b. Vous n’en avez pas besoin ☐
   c. Autres raisons (précisez SVP)……………………………………………………………………………….

6. Etes-vous intéressé (e) à l’apprentissage de l’Anglais ?
7. Pourquoi croyez-vous avoir besoin de l’Anglais ? (choisissez vos réponses par ordre d’importance : 1, 2, 3, …)
   
   a. Pour avoir du travail
   
   b. Pour voyager
   
   c. Pour habiter à l’étranger
   
   d. Pour étudier/approfondir vos connaissances
   
   e. Pour consulter des documents
   
   f. Pour le parler aisément
   
   g. Pour utiliser l’ordinateur / internet
   
   h. Pour regarder des programmes télévisés en Anglais
   
   i. Autres (précisez SVP) …………………………………………………………………
       …………………………………………………………………

8. Quel est votre point faible en Anglais ?
   
   a. Grammaire
   
   b. Oral
   
   c. Ecrit
   
   d. Vocabulaire
   
   e. Lecture
   
   f. Comprendre les cours / réussir aux examens

9. Comment définissez-vous votre niveau en Anglais ?
   
   a. Bon
   
   b. Moyen
   
   c. Faible
   
   d. Très faible
10. Parlez-vous l’Anglais :
   a. Très bien
   b. Bien
   c. Compréhensible
   d. Mal
   e. Pas du tout

11. Écrivez-vous l’Anglais :
   a. Très bien
   b. Bien
   c. Compréhensible
   d. Mal
   e. Pas du tout

12. Lisez-vous des documents en Anglais ?
   - Oui ☐
   - Non ☐

13. Si vous avez répondu « Oui », précisez :
   a. Pour le plaisir
   b. Pour les études

14. Quand on vous parle en Anglais, vous comprenez :
   a. Très bien
   b. Bien
   c. Un peu
   d. Rien du tout

Deuxième partie : Concernant le cours :

15. Etes-vous en cours d’Anglais parce que :
   a. Vous y êtes obligé(e)
b. Vous voulez réussir vos études

c. Vous en aurez besoin après les études

d. Aimez cette langue

16. Participez-vous en classe :

   a. Toujours

   b. Souvent

   c. Parfois

   d. Rarement

   e. Jamais

17. Parlez-vous en classe parce que :

   a. Vous le voulez

   b. L’enseignant vous le demande

18. Vous ne parlez pas en classe parce que :

   a. Vous ne connaissez pas la langue

   b. Vous avez peur de faire des fautes

   c. Vous n’aimez pas parler

19. Qu’attendez-vous du cours d’Anglais ?

   a. Améliorez vos connaissances générales de cette langue

   b. Apprendre le vocabulaire commercial

   c. Apprendre la grammaire

   d. Apprendre à écrire en Anglais

   e. Comprendre quand on vous parle en Anglais

   f. Lire et comprendre des documents relatifs à votre formation

   g. Avoir de bonnes notes aux examens

   h. Autres (précisez SVP)…………………………………………………………………………………
20. Quel est votre méthode d’apprentissage ?
   a. Seul (en classe) ☐
   b. Seul (en dehors de la classe) ☐
   c. À deux ☐
   d. En groupe ☐
   e. Avec le prof ☐

21. Etes-vous satisfait de l’apprentissage actuel au département de Commerce ?
   Oui ☐
   Non ☐

22. si ‘Non’, pourquoi ?
   a. Effectif ☐
   b. Volume horaire ☐
   c. Méthode d’enseignement ☐
   d. Types d’activités/exercices ☐
   e. Absence de livres ou manuels à consulter pendant le cours ☐
   f. Autres: ........................................................................................................

23. Pour combien d’heures par semaine et pendant combien d’années souhaitez-vous encore étudier l’Anglais ?

   ..............................................heures/semaine
   ..............................................années
Appendix 3

Le programme d’anglais en première année comporte les notions de base de la langue, il donne aux étudiants des outils linguistiques adaptés à leur domaine de recherche, par l’étude de textes commerciaux et économiques, l’anglais devient plus rapidement assimilé par les étudiants, grâce à un système de communication permanent qui leurs enlève toute timidité de parler en anglais.

CHAPITRE 1 : Les Bases de la langue :
1° La Phrase selon sa substance ;
• la phrase interrogative,
• la phrase affirmative,
• la phrase exclamative,
• la phrase négative,
• Autres phrases,
2° les parties du parlé ;
• le nom ;
  a) le nom commun,
  b) le nom qualitatif,
  c) le nom quantitatif,
  d) le nom d’addition,
  e) le masculin et le féminin,
• les pronoms ;
  a) les pronoms personnels,
  b) les pronoms de propriété,
  c) les pronoms réflexifs,
  d) les pronoms de démonstration,
  e) les pronoms d’interrogation,
  f) les pronoms relatifs,
  g) joindre deux phrases avec un pronom relatif,
• l’adjectif ;
  a) formation des adjectifs,
  b) degré de comparaison,
  c) degré superlatifs,
  d) les adjectifs irréguliers,
  e) type d’adjectifs,
• le verbe ;
  a) les verbes transitifs et intransitifs,
  b) les temps : présent simple, présent continu, présent parfait continu, le passé simple, le passé continu, le plus que parfait, le passé parfait continu, le futur simple, le futur continu,
  c) les verbes auxiliaires,
  d) autres verbes : shall & will, can, may, must,
• les adverbes;
  a) types d’adverbes,
  b) adverbs et adjectives avec le même sens,
  c) adverbes et prépositions avec le même sens,
  d) la proposition de l’adverbe,
  e) la comparaison des adverbes,
• les prépositions ;
  a) utilisation des prépositions,
  b) types: about, above, across, after, against, among, at, before, behind, beneath, below, by, for, during, near,
• W.H questions;

CHAPITRE 2: Introduction à l’Anglais Commercial:
1° Techniques d’études d’un texte commercial ;
2° les mots clés d’un texte commercial ;
3° le résumé d’un texte ;
4° l’analyse des mots techniques ;
5° exemplaires de textes et articles commerciaux :
• Articles de journaux,
• Le commerce international,
• Les sciences commerciales dans la vie courante,
• Anglais, la langue du plus,

CONCLUSION
N.B: le programme de ce module est donné en français mais l’étude est faite en Anglais.
Appendix 4

Le programme d’anglais comporte des études de texte dans le matière, qui donne à l’étudiant les termes techniques en anglais, ainsi qu’un apport en terme d’expression orale et écrite surtout que a séance se déroule dans le cadre d’un travail dirigé, ou l’étudiant est appelé à analyser par lui même et en anglais tous les textes qui lui seront remis, par la suite il contribue à l’élaboration d’un résumé pour chaque texte, comme ça, il élargit ses capacités d’expression, surtout que le parlé est très demandé dans la vie professionnelle.

TEXT № 1: FUNCTIONS OF COMMERCE :
1° Reading comprehension;
2° Mastery of language;
   a) – Lexis,
   b) - Syntax,
3° Oral expression;
4° Questions & answers;

TEXT № 2: ADVERTISING AND TRANSPORT:
1° Definition;
2° What’s advertising?
3° Advertising in the promotion mix;
4° Promotion in the marketing mix:
5° Transport;
6° Examples of good advertising;
7° Oral expression;

TEXT № 3: THE WHOLESALER:
1° Reading comprehension;
2° Oral expression;

CHAPTER 4: TYPES OF BUSINESS:
1° Sole trader;
2° Partnership;
3° Public limited company;
4° Private limited company;
5°Conditions of holding meetings;

CHAPTER 5: MARKETS & MARKETING:
1° Market;
2° Marketing;
3° Market research;
4° Motivational research;
5° Channels of distribution;
6° Middlemen;
7° Direct Marketing;

CHAPTER 6: USA HISTORY:
1° 34000-3000 B.C.
2° From 985 to 1500;
3° From 1501 to 1900;
4° From 1901 to our days;

CHAPTER 7: THE INVOICE:
1° What is an invoice?
2° Types of invoices;
   • Ordinary invoice ;
   • Proforma invoice ;

** CONCLUSION
RÉSUMÉ

De nos jours, l’usage de l’anglais ne se limite pas aux secteurs du tourisme et communication entre les peuples. Il a aussi intégré toutes les sciences et plusieurs autres domaines d’étude et de recherche. Au niveau d’études supérieures, les étudiants l’apprennent pour de divers buts dont les plus importants sont la recherche (études des trouvailles les plus récentes) et les vocations futures. De nombreuses entreprises nationales et toutes les multinationales exigent de leurs futures employées des connaissances dans cette langue et des compétences linguistiques appropriées pour faire face aux changements économiques incessants. Cette communication vise à examiner la situation de l’enseignement et de l’apprentissage de la langue anglaise dans le Département de Sciences Commerciales à l’Université Mentouri, Constantine, ainsi que les besoins cognitifs, les objectifs (souvent négligés) et les perspectives des étudiants dans ses cours - des cours plus spécifiques que ceux des niveaux précédant parce qu’ils visent un contenu lié à leur domaine d’intérêt (Commerce, Économie, Gestion, etc.). Pour explorer les différents problèmes rencontrés par les étudiants et les instructeurs et vérifier si le contenu actuel des programmes d’enseignement correspond aux attentes des apprenants et est en état de les préparer à la situation ciblée, nous avons eu recours à un sondage au moyen d’un questionnaire pour les étudiants et les enseignants d’anglais dans le même département. Notre échantillon de population comprend 120 étudiants de deuxième année et 5 enseignants. En analysant les données, les résultats de l’étude montrent que les apprenants ont des attentes différentes et sont à de différents niveaux de performances et de connaissances, et ce pour des raisons liées à des classes ou à des enseignants précédents, un manque de motivation, un manque de références (par exemple: les manuels scolaires), etc. Les résultats montrent également que les apprenants estiment avoir besoin d’améliorer toutes leurs compétences linguistiques (la compréhension à la lecture, la compréhension à l’audition, l’expression orale et l’expression écrite). Il nous semble, donc, être nécessaire d’adopter une approche plus éclectique et des stratégies plus appropriée pour répondre à ces attentes. En se basant sur les résultats de notre analyse, nous avons essayé de présenter un modèle d’unités pédagogiques qui pourraient être intégrés au programme, des listes non exhaustives de quelques-uns des sujets/thèmes liés au domaine de spécialisation des étudiants, des activités et des structures de linguistiques. Nous avons aussi abordé quelques lacunes observées au cours de cette recherche, et présenté des suggestions et des recommandations à fin d’y remédier dans de futures études.

Mots-clés: Anglais pour des buts spécifiques; Sciences Commerciales; compétences linguistiques; situation de l'enseignement; besoins et objectifs des étudiants; programmes d’enseignement; niveaux de performance; unités pédagogiques
ملخص

تم إعداد هذه الدراسة للبحث في وضعية تعليم اللغة الإنجليزية في قسم العلوم التجارية بجامعة الإخوة منتوري، قسنطينة، واحتياجات المعرفية للطلاب في هذه المادة. إن اللغة الإنجليزية ذات استعمال عالمي ولم يقتصر هذا الاستعمال على مجالات السياحة والإعلام والاتصال بين الشعوب فقط، بل تعدًا أنها تدمج في كافة العلوم وتشتهر مبادئ الدراسة و الباحثة. فالطلاب في يومي هذا يتعلمونها لأسباب مختلفة وأهمها الإطلاع على أحدث المراجع وآخر ما توصل إليه الباحثون الأجانب، وكذلك سعياً للحصول على مناصب شغل جيدة أين بات استعمال هذه اللغة ضرورياً في المؤسسات الوطنية والأجنبية. إذن فالهدف من هذا البحث هو الاستفادة عن مدى احتياج هؤلاء الطلبة إلى برنامج تدريس اللغة الإنجليزية لأهداف خصوصية (في هذه الحالة: أهداف ترتبط ب مجال التجارة و الإقتصاد).

تتمثل عيّنتنا في طلبة السنة الثانية ومدرّسي الإنجليزية من نفس القسم و قد بلغ عدد أفرادها 120 طالباً وطالبة و 5 مدرسين. تم إعداد استبيان لكل مجموعة لاستكشاف البيئة التعليمية والتعليمية ومختلف الإشكالات التي يواجهها الطلاب والأساتذة. تعتبر اللغة التي يسعون إلى تعلمها مميزة لأن محتواها ذات صلة بمجال التجارة والاقتصاد، وقد أصدرت في هذا الصدد أبحاث متعددة تناقش أسس ومفاهيم هذا الفرع من اللغة الإنجليزية، أوجه الشبه بينه وبين الفرع الأساسي الذي يتم تدريسه في المستويات الإبتدائية، ماهية محتواه وكيفية تدريسه، من يحتاج إلى تعلمه و من يجدر به تدريسه، إلى غيرها من النقاط.

تتمثل أهمية هذه الدراسة في تسليط الضوء على خصوصية هذا الفرع ودراسة مدى ملاءمة محتواه مع متطلبات العينة وما إذا كان يطابق توقعاتهم من هذه المادة أم لا. عند تحليل المعطيات، كشفت نتائج الدراسة أن الطلاب في مراحل معرفية مختلفة ومتطلباتهم أيضًا وهم يحتاجون إلى تحسين مهاراتهم اللغوية. لهذا نرى أن الوجه إلى منهجية إقنتانية يسيّل على المدرسين تغطية الجانب اللغوي والجانب التقني من الدروس.

أخيرًا، بعد مناقشة النتائج حاولنا تقديم نموذج لوحدات تعليمية يمكن دمجها في البرنامج، قادمة غير حصرية لبعض المواضيع التي تتعلق بمجال تخصص الطلاب وناتجة وترابط لغوي. كما تعرض بعض النقاط التي لاحظناها خلال هذا البحث واقتراحات وتوصيات لدراسات مستقبلية لمعالجةها.

كلمات رئيسية: تعليم اللغة الإنجليزية؛ الإنجليزية للأعمال؛ العلوم التجارية؛ إشكالات وآفاق اللغة الإنجليزية؛ الاحتياجات المعرفية؛ أهداف خصوصية اللغة التعليمية؛ وحدات تعليمية؛ برنامج تعليم الإنجليزية؛ مهارات الطلبة؛ منهجية إقنتانية.