

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A review of literature will be considered under two subheadings according to the major areas of interest in the research: (1) theoretical background on ESP curriculum: needs analysis, course design, teaching methodologies, teaching materials and course assessments and (2) related research in ESP.

2.1 Theoretical Background on development in ESP curriculum

In the globalized world, the English language has been the substantial language for communication between people around the world. Learners of all different levels want to learn English for many different purposes so learning and teaching the English language should be provided to suit each specific target group of learners as much as possible. English for Specific Purposes (ESP) has become a vital and innovative activity within the Teaching of English as a Foreign or Second Language movement (TEFL/TESL) since the 1960s (Howatt 1984 cited in Dudley-Evans & St. John 1998:2).

ESP course design is the product of a dynamic interaction between a number of elements: the results of the needs analysis, the course designers' approach to syllabus and methodology, and existing materials (if any). All of these are modified by the contextual constraints. (Robinson 1991 cited in Jordan 1997:65).

The teaching of Languages for Specific Purposes (LSP) has been criticized for being all practice and no theory because there has been limited concern in the literature with fundamental ideas (Basturkmen, 2002). The strengths of present literature on LSP are that it provides:

1. An account of the various approaches to language description that can best inform LSP,
2. A theory of language use in specific academic, professional, and workplace communities (genre theory), and
3. The reports on course and materials designs, and methodologies used in practice.

The key stages in setting ESP curriculum (needs analysis, course (and syllabus) design, materials selection (and production), teaching and learning and evaluation) are not separate, rather they represent phases, which overlap and are interdependent (Dudley-Evans & St. John 1998:121). In addition, designing a syllabus involves examining needs analyses and establishing goals. It then entails the selection, grading and sequencing of the language and other content, and the division of the

content into units of manageable material (Jordan 1997:56). These stages were explained as follows.

In general terms, needs analysis refers to the activities involved in gathering information that will serve as the basis for developing a curriculum that will meet the learning needs of a particular group of students (Brown 1995:35). In addition, Brown also discussed about the important of needs analysis in the case of language program that will be language related. Needs can be stated in terms of goals and objectives that, in turn, can serve as the basic for developing tests, materials, teaching activities and evaluation strategies. From Brown (1995:45) there are many different kinds of instruments for analyzing the learners' needs:

- existing information
- tests
- observations
- interviews
- meetings
- questionnaires

These differences in the needs analysts' roles can have important consequences with regard to the way different categories of instrument are viewed by the target group, audience, resource group and needs analysts alike.

Next, the steps and approaches to course design will be discussed. According to Hutchinson & Waters (1987:65), course design is the process by which the raw data about a learning need is interpreted in order to produce an integrated series of teaching-learning experiences, whose ultimate aim is to lead to the learners to a particular state of knowledge. Some basic premises in curriculum development mentioned in Finocchiaro (1989:71) showed the important issues in each step for designing the course as follows:

1. An analysis of its aims and goals (the behavior and skills the students will be expected to acquire)
2. A list of the language items to be taught (phonology, structure, vocabulary and communicative expressions)
3. A list of the cultural concepts to be discussed
4. An analysis of the language abilities and enabling subskills to be developed (listening with understanding, speaking, reading and writing)
5. A description of the activities and realistic situations through which the language items will be introduced and practiced
6. Suggestions for evaluation (testing) of the learners' language growth in linguistic competence and performance
7. Sources for teacher reference and pupils' text

The course design used in this research is a learning-centred approach presented by Hutchinson and Waters (1987:74). The learning-

centred approach not only looks beyond the competence that enables someone to perform but also focuses on how someone acquires that competence. The learning-centred course design process is shown in the diagram below:

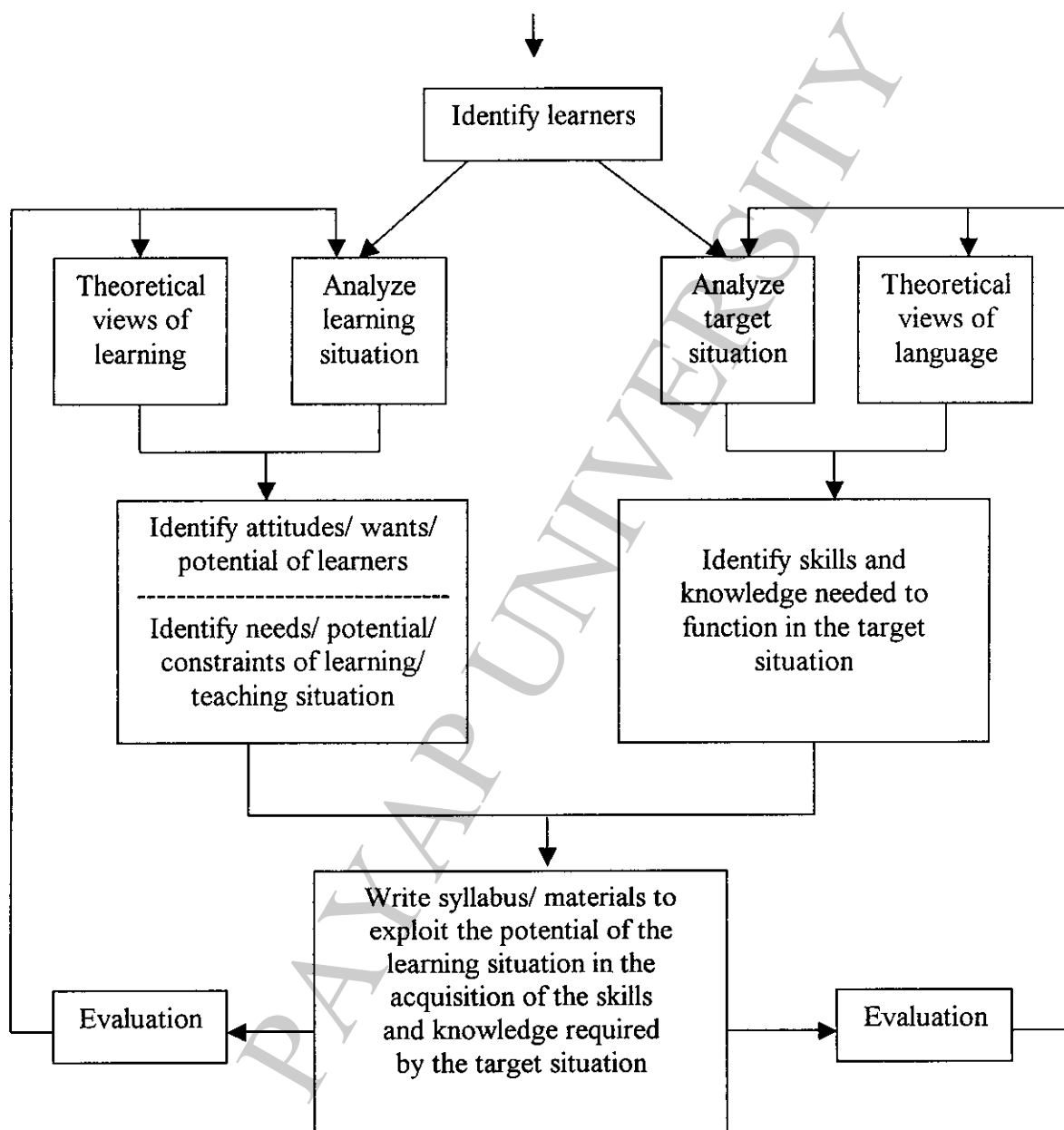


Figure I: A learning-centred approach to course design

In the methodology part of this literature review, communicative language teaching was mainly used in almost every activity all through the course since it provides whole-task practice and also makes it easy to create a context, which supports learning. The instructor has no direct role in the communicative activities. There will also be activities, of course, in which the teacher can take part as a 'co-communicator' (Littlewood, 1981:19).

Two main categories of communicative activities types were used in the course, which were functional communicative activities and social interaction activities. One important aspect of communicative skill is the ability to find language, which will convey an intended meaning effectively in a specific situation. There may be a problem, which learners must solve, or information, which they must exchange; with whatever language they have at their disposal. That is, they are not required to attempt to choose language, which is appropriate to any particular situation. The main purpose of the activity is that learners should use the language they know in order to get meanings across as effectively as possible (Littlewood, 1981:20).

Another important aspect of communicative skill is the ability to take account of the social meaning as well as the function meaning of different language forms. Learners must still aim to convey meanings effectively, but must also pay greater attention to the social context in

which the interaction take place such as language for presentation (Littlewood, 1981:20).

In addition, Morrow (1981:59-65) is also 'interested in ideas that might help us to see that our students can use the language they learn in order to communicate: To this end he espouses five principles of communicative methodology:

1. *Know what you are doing.* "Every lesson should end with the learner being able to see clearly that he can do something which he could not do at the beginning and what the "something" is communicatively useful;
2. *The whole is more than the sum of the parts.* '...a crucial feature of a communicative method will be that it operates with stretches of language above the sentence level, and operates with real language in real situations';
3. *The processes are as important as the forms.* The aim is to replicate as much as possible the processes of communication.
4. *To learn it, do it.* Although the teacher can help, advise and teach, only the learners can learn: they must, therefore, become involved in the activities and learn by doing.

5. *Mistakes are not always a mistake.* With the aim of developing the communicative ability of the students, it may be necessary to be flexible enough to treat difficult things as mistakes at different stages in the learning process; in other words, not every error should be corrected.

One of the language teachers' tasks is to prepare the activities that motivate the learners to use the language as much as possible. And the students should be encouraged to use the language for communication both inside and outside classroom. So the ideal activities in the language classroom are the activities that persuade the learners to use the language by interacting.

Choosing grouping arrangements that are appropriate for specific learning tasks is an important decision. Learners may have individual preferences for the kind of interaction style they favor in the classroom while the interactional dynamics of a classroom are largely a product of choices the teacher makes about the learning arrangements s/he sets up within a lesson (Richards, 1994:146). Some grouping arrangements are shown as follows:

- *Whole-class teaching.* The teacher leads the whole class through a learning task.

- *Individual work.* Each student in the class works individually on a task without interacting with peers or without public interaction with the teacher.
- *Pair work.* Students work in pairs to complete a task.
- *Group work.* Students work in groups on learning tasks.

Successful group work activities involve decisions about the following factors in Richards, 1994:154;

1. Group size – an optimum size for group work needs to be determined based on the kind of task students are carrying out. If the group is too large, student interaction is affected; only a few students may participate, the others remaining silent or passive.
2. Purpose – group activities need a goal, procedures, and a time frame to accomplish them, if they are to be focused and productive.
3. Role – decisions need to be made concerning the different roles of group members.

Hutchinson (1996 cited in Jordan 1997:110) also had added that the good teacher will try to minimize the negative effects of the learner's emotional reactions to learning or decrease the stress of speaking in front of the whole class and will instead try to boost the positive emotions by

using pairs and group works. In the foreign language classroom where neither instructor nor learners are native English speakers, it is easy to create anxiety. The instructor should provide opportunity for learners to express their own identity and to relate with the people around them. Therefore it requires a learning atmosphere, which gives them a sense of security and value as individuals (Littlewood, 1984:93).

In order to identify the language skills using for the classroom learning, it is necessary to examine the role that each language skill plays in teaching and learning. First, we will talk about the speaking skill, which is very needed for communicating with others. When attempting to speak, learners must gather their thoughts and encode those ideas in the vocabulary and syntactic structures of the target language. Bailey and Savage (1994) discussed speaking skill in a second or foreign language that has often been viewed as the most demanding of the four skills. Typically, situations or activities covered in speaking for academic purposes are:

- asking questions in lectures;
- participating in seminars/discussions;
- making oral presentations; answering ensuing questions/points;
- verbalizing data, and giving oral instructions, in seminars/workshops/ laboratories. (Jordan, 1997:193)

Besides speaking, the reading skill also plays important role in learning the English language. Jordan (1997:143) summarized some of the main strategies, skills and sub-skills utilized in reading as follows:

- prediction
- skimming
- scanning
- distinguishing between
 - factual and non-factual information
 - important and less important items
 - relevant and irrelevant information
 - explicit and implicit information
- deducing unknown words
- drawing inferences and conclusions

The listening skill is the receptive skill that all speakers need when they communicate. Richards (1983:180) summarized the taxonomy of macro skills needed for academic listening, some of them present in the list below:

- identify purpose and scope of lecture
- identify relationships among units within discourse
- infer relationships (e.g. cause, effect, conclusion)
- recognize key lexical items related to subject/topic
- recognize function of non-verbal cues

Finally, the writing skill is significant for students of all kinds. Through the processes of writing, the students can express their thinking more as individuals. Jordan (1997:165) shows the macro skills for the writing activities as follows:

- Comparison and contrast
- Narrative
- Cause and effect
- Expressing
- Explanation
- Discussion and argumentation
- Drawing conclusions

Not only the teaching method is important but also the materials are also very crucial in learning the language. According to the need analysis, the Architecture students mentioned that field trips and problem solving games were very attractive activities to them. Hutchinson & Waters (1987:107) discussed that good materials do not teach: they encourage learners to learn, therefore, contain:

- interesting texts;
- enjoyable activities which engage the learners' thinking capacities;
- opportunities for learners to use their existing knowledge and skills;

- content which both learners and teacher can cope with.

Materials helped to organize the teaching-learning process and provided a clear and coherent unit structure, which will guide teacher and learner through various activities in such a way as to maximize the chances of learning.

In addition, Larimer and Schleicher (1999:vi) say authentic materials should have a place in every classroom since the learners can easily assimilate them into their daily life. There are many advantages to using authentic texts and materials in the classroom. Swaffar (1985 cited in Larimer & Schleicher 1999:v) discusses several of these:

1. Learning is enhanced by the use of texts of particular interest to a class.
2. There will be an increase in variety and spontaneity in classes that introduce authentic materials.
3. Exposure to a variety of vocabulary and structures will occur.

In the course assessment part, the test contents mentioned by Rea-Dickins & Germaine (1992) showed that there are at least two ways of evaluating the role of testing during the course of teaching. First, when a test relates back to an immediately preceding lesson or unit of work, it is more likely to have a very specific focus and narrow coverage of course content. Second, when the purpose is to review a variety of material, taught over a longer time scale, test content will involve a wider coverage

of items and have a more general focus. Furthermore, a proficiency test aims to measure how well the students will perform in their target language tasks and so fits within ESP principles; it will assess the whole rather than the discrete items (Dudley-Evans & St. John 1998:213).

In this study, the researcher and the external observer use the observation form in order to assess the effectiveness of the lessons. In addition, the proficiency test is used to assess the learners' English abilities. Then, at the completion of the course, the experts and the peers use the presentation evaluation form in assessing the learners' performance in their projects' presentation. Based on Dudley-Evans & St. John 1998:210, peer-assessment can help to develop the independence that ESP learners require for their continued progress.

Heaton (1988:100) offers a rubric for listening and speaking assessment, which consists of three criteria: accuracy, fluency and comprehensibility as shown in Table 1 below:

Table 1: Criteria for Listening and Speaking Assessment by Heaton

1988:100.

Accuracy	Fluency	Comprehensibility
6 Pronunciation is only very slightly influenced by the mother tongue. Two or three minor grammatical and lexical errors.	Slightly influenced by the effort with a fairly wide range of expression. Searches for words occasionally but only one or two unnatural pauses.	Easy for the listener to understand the speaker's intention and general meaning. Very few interruptions or clarifications required.
5 Pronunciation is slightly influenced by the mother tongue. A few minor grammatical and lexical errors but most utterances are correct.	Has to make an effort at times to search for words. Nevertheless smooth delivery on the whole and only a few unnatural pauses.	The speaker's intention and general meaning are fairly clear. A few interruptions by the listener for the sake of clarification are necessary.
4 Pronunciation is still influenced by the mother tongue but no serious phonological errors. A few grammatical and lexical errors but only one or two major errors causing confusion. Fair range of expression.	Although he has to make an effort and search for words, there are not too many unnatural pauses. Fairly smooth delivery mostly. Occasionally fragmentary but succeeds in conveying the general meaning.	Most of what the speaker says is easy to follow. His intention is always clear but several interruptions are necessary to help him to convey the message or to seek clarification.
3 Pronunciation is seriously influenced by the mother tongue but only a few serious phonological errors. Several grammatical and lexical errors, some of which cause confusion.	Has to make an effort for much of the time. Often has to search for the desired meaning. Rather halting delivery and fragmentary. Range of expression often limited.	The listener can understand a lot of what is said, but he must constantly seek clarification. Cannot understand many of the speaker's more complex or longer sentences.
2 Pronunciation is seriously influenced by the mother tongue with errors causing a breakdown in communication. Many 'basic' grammatical and lexical errors.	Long pauses while he searches for the desired meaning. Frequently fragmentary and halting delivery. Almost gives up making the effort at times. Limited range of expression.	Only small bits (usually short sentences and phrases) can be understood and then with considerable effort by someone who is used to listening to the speakers.
1 Serious pronunciation errors as well as many 'basic' grammatical and lexical errors. No evidence of having mastered any of the language skills and areas practiced in the course.	Full of long and unnatural pauses. Very halting and fragmentary delivery. At times gives up making the effort. Very limited range of expression.	Hardly anything of what is said can be understood. Even when the listener makes a great effort of listening, the speaker is unable to clarify anything he seems to have said.

Moreover, the rubric in Table 2 had been adapted from criteria for listening and speaking assessment by Heaton in order to use for assessing speaking ability of the learners in their project presentations.

Table 2: Criteria of Assessing Speaking Abilities in Presenting Projects in A Course of Basic English for Undergraduate Architecture Students.

Level of points	Accuracy
5	Very few grammatical and lexical errors. Most pronunciation is correct.
4	Some grammatical and lexical errors exist. Very few pronunciation errors appear.
3	Moderate grammatical and lexical errors. A few pronunciations errors.
2	Many grammatical, lexical and pronunciation errors.
1	Serious grammatical and lexical errors. Pronunciation is hardly correct.

Level of points	Fluency
5	Generally, speaks smoothly. A few pauses in searching for appropriate words.
4	Speaks rather smooth at the most, although s/he has some pauses in searching for appropriate words and expressions.
3	Sometimes speaks rather haltingly. Frequently hesitate and long pauses while s/he searches for the appropriate words and expressions.
2	Frequently speaks haltingly. Very long pauses while s/he searches for the appropriate words and expressions.
1	Very halting and fragmentary delivery and can hardly communicate since cannot find appropriate words or expressions.

Level of points	Comprehensibility
5	General meaning is clear and understandable. The listener does not ask for clarifications.
4	General meaning is mostly understandable, although sometimes the listener asks for clarifications.
3	Meaning is fairly clear. But sometimes the listener still asks for clarifications.
2	Meaning is understandable a little. Frequently the listener has to ask for clarifications.
1	It cannot be understood. The listener has to ask for clarifications nearly every time.

In summary, based on the literature review and the needs survey, language learning and teaching can be exciting and refreshing activities for both students and teachers. There are many possible options for teachers to choose in order to stimulate communicative interaction between teachers and students and to try to make the lessons enjoyable and appropriate in the classroom context. In the case of needs survey, a course of basic English for undergraduate Architecture students, the syllabus should be designed to improve the overall performances in the English language of the learners with an emphasis on speaking, reading, listening and writing skills. Although reading, listening and writing are not a major focus; they are always presented in the course and in the follow-up activities.

2.2 Related Research and References/Review of Literature

There are a number of studies worldwide on needs analysis and course design in ESP. Some of the major studies are summarized and presented as follows.

Ongslul (1984) conducted a needs analysis in order to study and compare the needs and problems in studying and teaching Technical English at King Mongkut's Institute of Technology of engineering students and teachers. Two sets of questionnaires were conducted and given to teachers and students in the third year. The result was that

teachers preferred teaching by explaining the texts and motivating the students to participate. The students, however, wanted the teachers to teach by explaining and discussing the texts, i.e., the students wanted a lower level of participation.

Wright (1999) conducted a needs analysis of the students at the Languages Department of the Hong Kong Academy for Performing Arts in order to construct a pilot study on newly developed English language courses. Based on the needs analysis, the researcher designed course techniques and materials for teaching English to the Arts students. Show and tell (acting), practical demonstrations and dance, role-play and instrumental performances were the techniques that the students used in the English classes. English was the foremost medium of instruction and the researcher tried to make the English language interesting and more relevant to the learners' needs.

Sethasatian (1995) developed of Technical English Lessons based on problem-based learning to increase speaking-listening ability and critical thinking of diploma level students. The purposes of this research were to develop Technical English lessons based on Problem-Based Learning (PBL) and to study the speaking-listening ability and critical thinking of the students learning through Technical English lessons based on PBL. The devices of the research and data collection yielded the following findings. Firstly, the four lessons had been developed to suit

the electricity Diploma students. Secondly, the subjects' speaking-listening ability and critical thinking had been increased significantly at the level of 0.01. This meant that the four developed Technical English lessons based on PBL process encouraged the subjects to solve their own communication problems as well as interact with others through discussion method on the discourse level.

In Bangkok, Raimaturapong (2001) conducted a needs analysis in order to examine the possible implications for curriculum review and course development of the English curriculum for Thai Engineers focusing on workplace needs and institutional commitment. The study highlighted the use of English by engineers in the workplace. The methods used in this study were questionnaires, interviews, workplace visits, and collections of documents. She is now in process of assimilating the data so the results are not yet available.

Sricharoen (2001) developed Agricultural Technology English Lesson I through task-based learning approach for first-year diploma in vocational education students. The results not only showed that all six lessons were very effective and suitable for the students' knowledge and abilities but also the students' opinions toward the classroom atmosphere were positive.