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Needs-Analysis-Informed Teaching for English for Specific Purposes

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NEEDS-ANALYSIS-INFORMED TEACHING FOR ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES

A Project
Presented to the
Faculty of
California State University,
San Bernardino

In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Master of Arts
in
Education:
Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages

by
Israa Abdulaziz Albassri
March 2016
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Approved by:

Dr. Lynne T. Diaz-Rico, First Reader
Dr. Kathryn Howard, Second Reader
ABSTRACT

Reconceptualization is needed for English language teaching as a response to English-as-an-international language (EIL) contexts. Correspondingly this will lead to what is called “an ecological approach” that invites accommodation of language-learning instruction to the local needs within discourse communities. In this research, the researcher will investigate the English for specific purposes (ESP) needs of business students to explore how best to address their expressed needs through subsequent tutoring. The ecological approach along with vocabulary teaching approach may look deeply into students’ needs. To assess their needs, a questionnaire was developed and administrated to international students in the College of Business and Public Administration (CBPA) at California State University, San Bernardino to investigate what students feel are their strengths as well as needs, in order to succeed in their business studies.
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CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION

The Role of English in Saudi Arabia

In his article “Teaching English in Saudi Arabia; To Whom, When, and How It Should Be Taught” (1989), Al-Shammery stated, “The position of Saudi Arabia both Islamically and internationally, and its growing need for English in many sectors will reveal the importance of English for Saudi Arabia” (p. 171). Clearly, Al-Shammery is referring to the two holy Islamic cities, Makkah and Madinah, which are located in Saudi Arabia. Every year, millions of Muslims from all over the world travel to these two holy cities to perform Omrah and Hajj. As Islam spreads globally, the number of Muslims is increasing; along with this is Saudi Arabia’s need for proficient English speakers.

Muslims are aware of the fact that one of the highest purposes of Hajj as a religious practice is to offer a chance for all Muslims, regardless of their race, color, language or financial status, to communicate equally and effectively. And since English is the most widespread language, it also constitutes an important means of communication between Muslims of different ethnicities among one other and with their Saudi hosts.

Therefore, the Ministry of Hajj and Islamic Affairs in Saudi Arabia is keen on recruiting multilingual citizens in order to enable them to communicate with the multi-national Muslim visitors. Because English is an internationally dominant language, it is among the most needed languages to learn. Moreover, merchants who seek to boost their business in the season
of Hajj need to communicate with their diverse customers. In this case, English is their first choice because of its prevalence.

However, the major factor underlying Saudi Arabia’s economic boom is the pressing worldwide need for oil. Saudi Arabia maintains petroleum-based relationships with the world’s biggest and most dominant countries, and this highlights the need for a common language. Furthermore, as the economy has expanded in Saudi Arabia, the demand for English speakers has increased. Saudi investors who are seeking international business opportunities are aware of the importance of English because English is dominant in global business.

Business transactions between Saudi Arabia and most other nations in the world are conducted in English...Saudi Arabia is expanding its economic relationships with other countries, and an increasing number of joint ventures are being undertaken between Saudi Arabian and foreign companies, investors, and businessmen. (Al-Seghyer, 2012, para. 7-8)

Foreign labor in Saudi Arabia increased dramatically after oil was discovered in the late 1930s, not only because the country needed to drill for oil, but also for immigrants to fulfill diverse social roles in the processes associated with production. For this reason, the use of a universal language was needed in various fields to facilitate dealing with workers. It is worth mentioning that one of the national channels in Saudi Arabian TV (Channel 2) broadcasts in English, offering various cultural and social programs. This channel delivers information about Islamic rules and religious issues to
English-speaking Muslims, as well as to teach foreign workers English and Islam.

With regard to job opportunities and requirements in Saudi Arabia, most companies, hospitals, and organizations give priority to English-speaking applicants for the sake of hiring capable labors who have sufficient education and experience, as well as have communicative language proficiency. One example is the Saudi National Guard Hospital, one of the leading hospitals in Saudi Arabia, that conducts job interviews in English because it is a requirement for employment.

In sum, the reasons mentioned above explain how the use of English is mandatory in different fields in Saudi Arabia. In fact, it has religious, economical, political, and social commitments that have strengthened its position in the country.

**History of Teaching English and Methodologies in Saudi Arabia**

Article 50 of the Educational Policy in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia states that students should learn at least one foreign language so that they may interact with people of other cultures for the purpose of contributing to the message of Islam and serving humanity. (Al-Seghayer, 2012; as cited in Nouraldeen & Elyas, 2014, p.58)

This quote indicates the importance of English language skills in Saudi Arabia. It is the only foreign language that is officially taught in schools. The mandate for teaching English in the Saudi educational system has taken on significant importance; in the past, English used to be taught starting from
preschool level in private schools only, and from the intermediate level in public schools.

However, the English curriculum was basic and general. In other words, teaching English focused on learning simple vocabulary, grammar, reading short passages and answering direct questions, writing short paragraphs, and memorizing short dialogues with no emphasis on speaking skills. Moreover, passing an English exam was not a requirement.

Nonetheless, as a result of the growing need for English speakers in Saudi Arabia, the government and the people in charge encouraged English learning. Correspondingly, the Ministry of Education lowered the age at which children started studying English and proceeded to make successive changes in English textbooks. They became aware of the need to improve the curriculum so that “authentic English,” the required language used in daily life, would be the type of proficiency students needed to achieve not just in classroom English but for their future endeavors in education, employment, business, and other societal interaction. In addition, they highlighted teaching English-as-a-foreign-language methodology. According to Muhib-Ur-Rahamn (2011),

Since its arrival in the education system, the Kingdom has been spending multi-billion dollars every year on the educational institutions to impart the knowledge of English among its citizens. The policy makers, language experts and the curriculum designers have been trying time to time to bring out suitable curriculums for the different stages of educational programs. The students are also now aware of
the fact that the knowledge of English is crucial to find a white collar job in the public and private sectors. (p. 382)

In Saudi Arabia generally, it is believed that people who can speak proficient English will have an advantage in obtaining and sustaining satisfactory employment. Despite the widespread lack of English proficiency as a result of schooling, noticeable efforts in developing the textbooks has fostered a slight change in the effective delivery of English as a medium of communication. Consequently, the number of English-language institutions and international schools increased dramatically in response to the ever-growing demand for people to improve their English.

One might suggest that the five hours of English classes per week at schools are not enough to master English. Many high-income families have made extended effort to send their children to English dominant-speaking countries in order to acquire the language. Similarly, the Saudi government has made relentless efforts to expand English proficiency by offering scholarships to students in various fields of knowledge and around the globe to advance their level of education.

Additionally, a significant number of universities in Saudi Arabia have started to switch their curricula and classes into English. The use of English is highly desired in the Saudi Arabian higher educational system, which reinforces the need for having a rigorous English curriculum at the K-12 levels. Al-Murabit (2012) concludes in this regard,

Recently, there has been a trend among Saudi universities to introduce a ‘foundation’ or ‘preparatory’ year to improve the knowledge and skills
of high school graduates before they join their desired majors at universities. Therefore, and as the demand for communication in English is growing worldwide especially in business, there is a tendency in most Saudi universities to include studying English as a main component of the foundation year for university students. (p. 232)

To conclude, people became aware of the necessity of using English; therefore, the demand for the language has rapidly increased in Saudi Arabia. This realization of the importance of English has led the country to improve teaching and learning practices and motivated students to enroll in various English language institutions.

**Current State of Teaching at the Designated Target Level**

Upon coming to the United States, I was planning to attain a master’s degree in marketing. After studying at the Extended Learning institution of University of Florida, it became apparent that academic English speaking and writing contrasted with the English language I learned at my Saudi university; e.g. formal writing is different from composition, and academic presentation has various objectives (informative, persuasive, debatable, and so on). I decided to make a change to the field of TEFL (Teaching English as a Foreign Language) in Saudi Arabia (chiefly at the community college level) and learn more about the field. My target-teaching level is college-level intensive English.

The use of English in Saudi Arabia is still limited outside the classroom. For example, the English professors use English to communicate with the students inside classrooms only. The materials used are designed
for English as a foreign language and classes consist of a large number of undergraduate students. Basically, it is a teacher-centered approach. The teaching approach is more likely to be a “banking model” concept, whereby “students’ dignity is ignored, instead of using a problem-posing concept, as did Freire” (Diaz-Rico, 2013, p. 25).

As for the course materials, the introductory courses focus on four skills: reading, writing, speaking, and listening. The general introductory English courses are English 101 (Level 1) and English 102 (Level 2). There is a great focus on essential language functions. Assignments and exams include the following: extracting main ideas from short passages, guessing the meaning of vocabulary from selected texts, correcting underlined mistakes for grammar and producing short writings; yet critical thinking is not expected in those classes.

Although the policy makers, language experts, and curriculum designers are making efforts to develop the English curriculum and teaching practices, the focus should be driven toward developing critical thinking and communicative competence. Finally, English should be taught intensively in order for learners to be able to use it authentically.

**Background of the Project**

Due to the global growth of the economy, science, health, and technology in recent years, the field of education has grown correspondingly. The demand for English, in particular, as a language of science and technology has rapidly increased. In fact, English was reshaped and viewed as English as an International Language (EIL), a global lingua franca.
Globalization has had a great impact on forming the concept of EIL. In other words, the nativized view of English with native-speaker-like competence has been replaced because people needed a broader perspective of English that fits with the world of globalization. This has caused a burden on the field of English education. “The teaching of English as an international language (EIL) cannot remain insulated and isolated from globalization’s impact on the formation of individual identities of English language learners, teachers, and teacher educators around the world” (Kumaravadivelu, 2012, p. 9).

Language teaching instructors have responded to this call for change. The responsibility of bridging nations and cultures through English has led educators to realize the importance of showing respect to diverse cultures, identities, and needs in the field of English Language Teaching (ELT). There is no longer a one-size-fits-all form of English. The different purposes of learning English must consist of different language programs, where learners can choose the one that is most favorable according to their academic or occupational needs, “EIL courses naturally strive to incorporate such diversity and to represent English as a pluralistic and dynamic entity rather than a monolithic and static one” (Matsuda, 2012, p.169).

Similarly, teaching approaches in the field have been adapted to meet the needs of EIL. Language theories such as English for specific purposes and needs analysis have emerged in order to address and meet each individuals’ goals. In sum, questions such as “What are those needs? Or “Why would a person need/want to learn English?” were closely examined in
order to help learners to function successfully in their future “imagined”
communities, where they plan to practice or use English.

Purpose of the Project

Previous studies have shown that motivation and attitudes toward
acquiring a second or a foreign language has had a positive impact in
facilitating the learning process (Ellis, 1997; McDonough, 1983). “The relation
between motivation and attitudes has been considered a prime concern in
language learning research” (Altamimi & Suhaib, 2009, p. 30). Unlike
emergent learners, it is more likely that adult language learners are advanced
learners who are already motivated because they have set their needs ahead of
time based on the language they will be using.

The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia is offering international scholarships that
provide students “the opportunity to attend foreign universities using federal
funding” (Shanmugham, 2015, para. 1). Most of these universities are located
in countries where English is the first language: “In 2012, more than half of the
KASP scholars chose to attend universities in the U.S., while others chose
schools in the U.K., Australia, Canada and New Zealand” (Shanmugham,
2015, para. 5). Those universities require a certain level of English
proficiency from non-native students; therefore, government funds cover
enrolling at English language institutions. Additionally, “the scholarship
typically covers full academic tuition, medical coverage, and a monthly stipend
and round-trip airfare for both scholars and dependents” (Shanmugham,
2015, para. 5).
The English language programs primarily provide English for academic purposes (EAP). The government requires that students complete the language program in one year and would provide a six-month extension if scholars needed extra time to master English. After that, students should enroll in one of the specific universities approved by the Saudi Arabian Cultural Mission (SACM). Although international students, in general, achieve high scores on English proficiency tests such as IELTS and TOFEL, many fail to succeed at the university level. The reason for this is the kind of academic English they have learned varies from the type of English needed at the university. For example, writing reports at the business school is different from writing generic essays. Therefore, ESP needs to be addressed prior students planning to attend any academic institutions in order for them to succeed and save time, money, and effort.

Given the importance of identifying learners’ motivation and needs towards learning the English language, this study reviews the importance of understanding the diversity of needs and purposes that motivates their desire for English acquisition and how these needs shape language instruction. It shows how and why English should be taught in a meaningful way, considering how students will end up using it in order for language acquisition to be authentic and efficacious, rather than teaching English as a required subject without having a clear reason or target behind learning and teaching English (McKay, 2012).

Moreover, this study aims at presenting a needs analysis and ESP as learner-centered approaches, and proposes data-collection procedures in
order to diagnose students’ needs. Additionally, a teaching methodology will be presented known as Personalized Vocabulary as a recommendation to be applied to future projects and teaching classes. It promotes teaching vocabulary as a separate learning skill. Finally, the project highlights business English, in particular, and studies specific needs of international students in the College of Business and Public Administration of California State University, San Bernardino (CSUSB).

Content of the Project

This paper will start with a review of literature that includes an ecological approach in teaching English as a second language; needs analysis in second/foreign language acquisition; English for specific, academic, and business purposes; and lastly, personalized vocabulary. Study methodology and the results of the study follow in subsequent chapters. The study results based on analysis of CSUSB business student responses to a questionnaire developed for this study.

Limitations of the Project

Although this project specifically mentions personalized vocabulary, designing a needs-analysis-based tutorial intervention is beyond the scope of the study. However, analyzing the results will offer future scholars a basis for applying a needs assessment to curricular design for business students.
CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

An Ecological Approach in Teaching English as a Foreign Language

Introduction

English has become an international language with the number of English speakers increasing rapidly around the globe. Despite this, English language educators have begun to accommodate English language teaching instruction to suit the new World Englishes. “International English is indeed generally interpreted as the distribution of native-speaker Standard English rather than the way English has changed to meet international needs” (Seidlhofer, 2009, p. 237).

However, native-speaker proficiency is no longer considered the one and only target for non-native English speakers and educators. Kumaravadivelu (2012) suggests that educators need to take a break from the current epistemic dependency on native-English-speaker proficiency as target in order to meet the challenges of globalism and English as an international language (EIL).

Assumptions such as native-speaker-like competence and ownership of English no longer hold true. Because non-native speakers of English now outnumber native speakers, a need for change and adaptation is called for in the Outer-Circle context, “where English is acquired as an additional language and performs specific functions in domestic communication while co-existing
with local languages” (Matsuda, 2012, p. 183), and in the Expanding Circle, where English is used and learned as a foreign language and for international communication purposes (Matsuda, 2012). The Outer and the Expanding Circles, which comprise the majority of English speakers, have the right to learn English that is consistent with their local discourse contexts and needs.

Second-language-acquisition (SLA) has shifted from a broad focus on linguistic pedagogy to a sharper emphasis on learner identity in order to facilitate the second-language-acquisition process. In other words, it has shifted from a cognitive to a sociocultural paradigm that pays more attention to the values of the speakers of the language. Understanding the learners’ dual identities helps educators to facilitate second-language acquisition by understanding the way learners participate in the learning process:

Unlike the cognitivist whose preoccupation with language learning revolved around understanding the physiological process associated with language learning, socioculturally-oriented SLA researches saw language learning as essentially a social process that involves the identity of learners. (Alsagoff, 2012, p. 106)

As a result of the rapid expansion of English speakers who use English as an additional language, English is no longer considered to be learned as a one standard language, modeled on the language used in the United States (US) and the United Kingdom (UK). Instead of the cognitive approach, which incorporates brain-based perspectives, sociocultural researchers perceive research on language learners as a whole-person approach (Lei, 2008). This
has shifted the research on identity to ways that language is conceptualized and acquired for specific discourses and contexts (Alsagoff, 2012).

Considering this, one must keep in mind the goal for which English is being learned. A sociocultural approach calls for a change in teaching instruction to be adapted to the learner’s social needs. A traditional approach interprets English as a language owned by native-English speakers, although the number of non-native English speakers who use English for limited purposes exceeds those whose English is their mother tongue. “The phenomenal spread of English as an international language, however, clearly challenges such a perspective because those who speak English as a non-native language are clearly the majority” (Alsagoff, 2012, p. 109). There needs to be awareness of the importance of an ecological approach that supports English as an international language. The ecological approach is one where students are viewed as a part of their learning environment and in which learners’ expectations of learning the target language are considered (Sebestian, 2013).

This paper will discuss how reconceptualization is needed for English language teaching as a response to English-as-an-international-language context. Correspondingly, this will lead to what is called “an ecological approach” that invites accommodation of language-learning instruction to the local needs within discourse communities, followed be addressing ecological writing in particular that meets students’ needs. Finally, the paper will present accommodations to Saudi discourse and curricula and explore the argument about how best to address localized Saudi English.
World Englishes and the Ecological Approach

The notion that English belongs to certain native-English dominant countries is no longer as prominent, as previously discussed here. There are nearly 2 billion English speakers around the world (Hu, 2012) and non-native speakers are the majority. Language ownership is no longer linguistically inherited. However, questions then arise: Who has the ownership of English? And does English belong to its native speakers or to the majority of its speakers?

Many researchers have explored the use of English and provided models to clarify in use (Alsagoff, 2012). Perhaps one of the famous models in this field is Kachru’s (1992), “three circles” model. These circles are the Inner Circle, which includes the native countries of English (UK, US, Canada, Australia, New Zealand); the Outer Circle, which includes the countries from postcolonial regions (colonized by the Inner Circle), where English is spoken officially in addition to the native language usually as a second language; and the Expanding Circle, which includes regions of speakers who use English as a foreign language, usually for global communication.

The Expanding Circle empowered the term English as an international language (Kachru, 2006) where English is commonly used for communication purposes. Seidlhofer (2009) argues that there is a gap between the widespread use of English and the research and efforts made to describe English as a lingua franca, and that there is difficulty in accepting the notion of the ownerlessness of English. It is worth mentioning that the speakers of English in the Outer and Expanding Circles are from diverse nations, cultures,
religions and politics that differ from the Inner Circle (Kachru, 2006). In
addition, English is not only used internationally in the Outer and Expanding
Circles but is used locally between non-native interlocutors (Alsagoff, 2012).
These reasons call for a change in, and reconceptualization of English
language learning adapted to the local needs of non-native context (Alsagoff,
2012; Swain & Deters, 2007).

English as an international language invites the SLA field to investigate
learners’ identities and their imagined communities, which are the target
language communities of learners they wish to participate in (Alsagoff, 2012).
Standardized English of the US and the UK cannot be the only target when
learning English; however, the communities of practice define the purpose of
learning the language, which might not interact directly with the use of
language in the Inner Circle. In India, for example, the nativized version of
English is used, which contributes to empowering the concept of the World
Englishes (Alsagoff, 2012) and provides vital evidence that English cannot be
owned or labeled.

English as a lingua franca (ELF), “the use of English in the Expanding
Circle” (Alsagoff, 2012, p. 111), is a major contributor to the widespread
usage of English globally. It broadened the focus on language from local
speech communities to international communities (Seidlhofer, 2009). ELF
has affected the way the language is used to cope with interlocutor contextual
needs. The speakers reflect their own identity and use the language creatively
to achieve their purposes of communication rather than imitating native
speakers (Seidlhofer, 2009). ELF speakers adapt strategies and principles to
make the conversation normal such as “let-it-pass” procedure and “make-it-normal” procedures (see House, 2012, p. 189).

“When people use ELF, they find ways of exploiting and exploring the potential meaning of the language as a communicative resource and realize (in both senses of the word) the significance of the forms they use and their relative functional usefulness” (Seidlhofer, 2009, p. 241). ELF speakers do not rely only on recourses for English as native language resources only, but they invest their own resources and adapt language for their own benefit (Seidlhofer, 2009) because they share the right of English.

Along with this, an epistemic break is required in accordance with English as an international language. The epistemic break takes the attention of English away from the traditional “west-oriented, center-based knowledge system” (Kumaravadivelu, 2012, p. 15) to a “meaningful break” that meets English speakers’ local needs. In other words, the epistemic break encourages English to escape from the dependence on native-speaker competence with regards to accent, teachers, curriculum, researches, methodology, and so on. Kumaravadivelu (2012) argues that learning English has been for long time unwisely devoted to a native-speaker episteme. He states,

To start with we must recognize, and act on the recognition that we have for long been unnecessarily and unwisely entangling ourselves in terminological knots that have mainly contributed to the preservation of the native-speaker episteme. The field of English language learning, teaching, and research seems to have developed a fascination for
labels which appear on the scene with some clock-work regularity.

And, they all come neatly abbreviated—ESL, EFL, EAL, WE, ELF, EIL.

(p. 16)

In order to respond to the need for a change in a meaningful way regarding the profession of English language teaching, a reconceptualization is needed. Furthermore, an ecological pedagogy, which will be discussed, could be the solution that aligns with English as an international language.

An Ecological Approach

van Lier (2000) argues that the learner’s behavior and social activities are fundamental in the learning process.

An ecological approach asserts that the perceptual and social activity of the learner, and particularly the verbal and nonverbal interaction in which the learner engages, are central to an understanding of learning. In other words they do not just facilitate learning, they are learning in a fundamental way. (p. 246)

According to van Lier (2000), the ecological perspective assumes that the learner is involved in a meaningful environment based on the student’s interactions within this environment. The learning process does not happen merely in the learner’s head; it is a developmental process of the learner’s behavior in the surrounding world and its values. In order to understand the learning process we need to examine the learner in certain environments, not in his/her head. Nevertheless, the ecological approach does not underestimate the cognitive process, but rather perceives language learning as representational (background knowledge) and ecological (action-based).
Accordingly, Firth and Wagner (1997) call for reconceptualization in language research, which aims for a balanced theory of cognitive and contextual orientation to SLA. They aim to shift the focus from a traditional perspective of the SLA target of being native-like competence to a reemphasis on social and contextual orientation. Additionally, they call for a holistic approach where a language user is no longer discriminated against while learning a language, whether it be in a cognitive or a social context.

We call for work within SLA that endeavours to adopt what we have referred to as a holistic approach to and outlook on language and acquisition, an approach that problematizes and explores the conventional binary distinction between ‘social’ and ‘individual’ (or cognitive) approaches to language use and language learning, that attends to the dynamics as well as the summation of language acquisition, that is more emically and interactionally attuned, and that is critically sensitive towards the theoretical status of fundamental concepts (particularly ‘learner,’ “native,” ‘nonnative,” and ‘interlanguage’). (Firth & Wagner, 1997, p. 768)

Firth and Wagner (1997) invite researchers to work on SLA by exploring how language is being used and acquired in a social context through interaction. They suggest to consider language as what they call a “social phenomenon” instead of dealing with it as a “cognitive phenomenon” (1997, p. 763).

van Lier (2000) emphasized the role of interaction in SLA. He argued that interaction is dominant in ecological theory, especially the idea of negotiating meaning within contexts. The assumption that the learning
process of language occurs sufficiently in meaningful contexts of interaction between the learner and a native speaker is prominent to van Lier because the knowledge comes from the person who knows more. van Lier explains,

Learning occurs when the learner receives and processes information that comes from an interlocutor who has knowledge and skills at a higher level than the learner does... from this perspective, tasks that require a great deal of negotiation in the sense of international work aimed at resolving communicational problems provide more learning opportunities than general conversation. (pp. 248-249)

Moreover, from an ecological perspective, the recipient or the learner of the language is not a passive organism, who only receives linguistic input, but that he/she is an interlocutor and a participant to the environment, who engages in meaning-making activities. The environment provides a “semiotic budget,” as van Lier (2000), presents it, which is not only referred to the amount of the available input but to the meaningful opportunities provided by the contextual situation (p. 252).

Two major factors that should be considered in an ecological approach are perception and action, and how they relate to each other. The perception happens within a social context or ecology through perceiving information from the mutual interaction between the organism and the environment. The ecological approach rejects the notion that language acquisition is processed only in the brain or the head of the learner. Also, it refuses to deal with language solely as an operation of word processing (written, spoken or read) that is transferred from one person to another (van Lier, 2000).
However, an ecological approach sees language acquisition as a development stage that happens between learners and the environment and between the learners themselves, who are engaged within a meaningful context. Language learning is considered a social practice that involves variable sources of meaning. “Language is also connected with kinesic, prosodic, and other visual and auditory sources of meaning, and as a result of this contextualized and process-oriented thinking new ways of practicing and theorizing language education will emerge” (van Lier, 2000, pp. 258-259).

Therefore, a reconceptualization approach in SLA is needed because learners’ identities consist of multiple factors that need to be taken into consideration. The cognitive process in learning and language acquisition cannot be seen as the only approach. An ecological approach sees the learner as a whole person and respects psychological and social needs, which makes second-language acquisition more meaningful.

**Ecological Writing**

The traditional cognitive framework of writing aims to teach writing skills and strategies that prepare writers for an academic context. The cognitive framework focuses on perfecting the final product and on writing skills, such as the process-writing movement. This movement studied how novice and expert writers solve problems and represent ideas through a think-aloud procedure in order to allow researchers to know what is going on in the writers’ heads. It is based on the assumption that novice writers need to mimic expert writers through the writing task. Unlike novice writers, expert writers tend to plan, brainstorm, organize, draft, reread, revise, and go
through different processes of writing (Casanave, 2012).

However, this movement has received many criticisms; first of all, not all of the expert writers follow the same procedure (Reid, 1984). (I myself tend not to go through the writing strategies and steps, such as brainstorming and outlining, because I find it time consuming). This reason leads to the second criticism of this theory: focusing on the writer’s processes does not help the most important genre in the academic context, which is the timed essay exam (Horowitz, 1986).

A further concern of emphasizing rules of writing is that this does not promote creativity. Zamel (1987) argues that learners might lose motivation and find themselves frustrated and overwhelmed by the rules of writing. Nonetheless, teaching writing should seek the learner’s desire and motivation to interact within the social context. In fact, “it is necessary to take a whole-person approach in studies of cognition in context, instead of an exclusively brain-based perspective predicated on the Cartesian dualism between body and mind” (Lei, 2008, p. 218). Teachers should provide a comfortable classroom environment where learners feel free to interact with their colleagues and teachers and be able to reflect on their own identity and beliefs about writing. Also, they need to shift the focus from bare linguistic instruction to meaningful and creative problem solving skills (Zamel, 1987).

Writing as a major component of English learning skills needs to be reconceptualized and reconsidered to meet the standard of English as an international language. Casanave (2012) argues that writing should be considered a practice, not a linguistic skill and this practice needs to be
considered in a socio-political context to meet local and social needs.

As Casanave explains, social actors are writers who aim to write for specific discourse communities and for certain needs and purposes. This does not exclude writing and evaluating exams; she claims that writing can include any type of papers and publication regardless of the type of discourse. An example might be writing a job letter or a high-stake essay exam.

“An ecological approach is therefore not about learning recipes for writing, but about identifying particular contexts and needs within local, multilingual contexts” (Casanave, 2012, p. 293). It is worth pointing out that learners have different purposes for learning how to write; in order to make the learning sufficient and fruitful, educators should bear in mind the learner’s needs and adapt instruction to target the learner’s discourse communities.

For instance, one learner attends an English language program (ELP) in pursuit of being more marketable to the job market and acquiring a decent position; however, as does any ELP, it provides academic writing that has no relation to the person’s specific needs. In such case, academic writing could be worthless; in contrast, an ecological writing approach requires that the learners’ goals are achieved, which allows them to participate successfully in their imagined communities.

The learning process is empowered when the learner is motivated and involved in meaningful practices; “Novice writers benefit only from practices that they find meaningful and relevant to their particular needs or desires” (Casanave, 2012, p. 293). In like manner, the assumption that academic writing should be the dominant genre when teaching writing should be
resisted and not be treated as the only goal. In reality, learners will not be able to practice this type of writing outside of educational institutions and it does not prepare students to participate in the ecological context; “from an EIL perspective, it makes sense to ask why we continue to teach this genre unless students need it for specific purposes” (Casanave, 2012, p. 285).

Therefore, SLA researchers and educators need to give consideration ecological writing. By doing so, English language learners will be able to sufficiently incorporate its use in their target communities. Moreover, an ecological writing approach is also preferable for participation in the global community of English as an international language and English as lingua franca.

**Accommodations to Saudi Discourse**

As illustrated above, an ecological approach and a sociocultural pedagogy in the field of English as a foreign language aim at studying second-language acquisition by seeing the learner in the context of mind and body, as a whole person who is interacting in a social cultural history with attention to his/her activities within the local discourse communities or environment (Lei, 2008; Swain & Deters, 2007). Accordingly, also under consideration is instruction that meets learners’ needs, one that addresses the pressure of globalization and English as an international language and English as a foreign language in order for them to be involved in a global community and to resist the overemphasis on native-speaker competence in English.

English as an international language and the ecological approach
overlap through the notion of shifting away the focus away from the native-like target competency (Kumaravadivelu, 2012) to the “diverse local needs of EIL speakers and learners” (Alsagoff, 2012, p. 112). However, the question arises, “How do we accommodate language teaching to meet these approaches on the assumption that the students’ needs contradict the students’ local discourse?”

The English curriculum in Saudi Arabia corresponds to the ecological approach in the matter of localization. In other words, the contents and materials are developed to meet the local culture, local context, and local religion (Mahboob & Elyas, 2014). According to my learning experience as a Saudi student, the English curriculum to which I was exposed aimed at teaching English from a Saudi perspective, including topics as Islamic and social practices (Mahboob & Elyas, 2014). For example, the textbook provided reading passages about Islamic rules and dialogues, and included illustrations of Saudi-like figures wearing Saudi garb. Mahboob and Elyas (2014) state, “The sixth unit of the first year secondary textbook is called ‘Before Al-Hajj.’ This unit, as the title indicates, focuses on the Hajj. Performing a Hajj, pilgrimage, is one of the ‘five pillars’ of Islam” (p. 138). They claim that the localized Saudi English does not underestimate the “Western culture practices,” but rather helps students to experience “diverse practices and believes in relation to the local practices” (2014, p. 138).

On the other hand, many Saudi researchers are in favor of adding target-culture competence to the English curriculum in Saudi Arabia. They claim that language cannot be isolated from its native culture, and ignoring the
native cultures of English does not represent the authenticity of the language. Veritably, the school curriculum in Saudi Arabia is always criticized for ignoring the native culture(s) of English. Alsamani (2014) argues, “Education programs offered to Saudi English language majors do not contain real-life cultural data about English-speaking people” (p. 144). He relates this to the issues of cultural sensitivity. The fear that cultural values in the conservative Islamic society of Saudi Arabia, which conflicts with those of Western cultures, will be compromised if teachers and educators expose learners to other cultures.

Motivations and needs for learning English in the Saudi ecology could contradict with the Saudi English acquired at schools. Many Saudis want to learn English to communicate globally, and thus gain access to various professions (UrRahman & Alhaisouni, 2013) that require English for international communication, and to achieve academic competence in the native-English-dominant contexts.

Although this localized Saudi English helped me to develop linguistic competence, it did not prepare me for the real world of English-native speakers, or for global communication. Saudis need to be exposed to the diverse cultures of English-dominant countries because ignoring the target culture(s) does not develop English learning, nor does it help learners to participate in their imagined communities. Having cultural awareness promotes communicative competence and enhances English fluency (Alsamani, 2014).

Furthermore, in order to meet students’ needs, Saudi educators need
to pay more attention to teaching academic English such as academic writing (e.g. the generic essay) and academic presentations. Academic competence is required for Saudis as a result of the increasing number of students who desire a degree from universities in native-English-dominant countries. Saudis cannot count on the “one-size fits all” localized curriculum, unless one considers students’ personal needs to learn the language. Equivalently, Saudi Arabia needs a curriculum that corresponds with the learning needs of the students and then adjusts the focus of the course accordingly.

Conclusion

This paper has illustrated how the expanding number of English speakers internationally changes the global perspective about English teaching and learning. It discussed the significance of English as an international language and how this was embraced by World Englishes, shifting the focus from native-English-speaker standards to a more localized concept that fits local contexts and meets learners’ needs. Then it introduced the ecological approach that aims to adapt SLA instruction to cope with World Englishes with a focus on ecological writing. Finally, it argued for the adoption of the ecological approach in the Saudi Arabian context.

Moreover, students achieve better when they are motivated to learn; therefore, it is necessary to examine their needs and their imagined communities in order to facilitate the learning process. Researchers in the SLA profession are required to bring more emphasis on the sociocultural approach that integrates learners with their surrounding social contexts. Further investigation of the ecological approach would help learners and
educators to fill in the gap between theory and practice.

In other words, research about learning strategies and skills or the cognitive approach in SLA in general, is not enough. Researchers need to examine other factors besides the brain because second-language acquisition is not a process that occurs merely in the head of the learner; instead it occurs when the learner acts and interacts with other individuals in a social community. Likewise, an ecological approach is one way to prepare learners to meet the demands of the outer world and to participate effectively in their target communities. To sum up, it is crucial to consider these questions when teaching English or designing curriculum: Why do students want to learn English? And in what types of social contexts are they expected to participate?

It is clear, then, that Saudi content matter is the defining aspect that governs the choice of what English is appropriate for students’ needs? And how can these needs be determined?

Needs Analysis in English for Specific Purposes

Introduction

In the late twentieth century, language researchers shifted the emphasis from linguistic competence to an emphasis on communicative-competence performance in English-language teaching. Subsequently, this resulted to “a switch from ‘content,’ which normally meant grammar and lexis, to ‘objectives’ which refers to many variables other than linguistic content” (Shahriari & Behjat, 2014, p. 321). The authors add that as a result of the
growth of interest in occupational and vocational purposes, language programs have had to provide adequate curricula to meet these purposes. Hence, syllabus design has received increased attention in the field of language teaching.

The concept of English as an International Language (EIL) has played a vital role in accelerating emphasis on the field of English for Specific Purposes (ESP). According to Shahriari and Behjat (2014), when the number of English speakers increased rapidly around the world, the needs and purposes for learning English changed and varied correspondingly. Some may learn English to communicate when traveling; others may learn the language for academic purposes, or to meet the demand of specific professions and jobs.

It is vital to be aware of learners’ needs when designing courses and lesson objectives, especially in the field of second-language acquisition (SLA) (Long, 2005). Group members’ needs vary greatly when learning a second or a foreign language; for example, immigrants, international students, and those who require learning a language for occupational or vocational motivation have distinct purposes for learning English. Each group acquires English for different registers, skills, genres and lexicons.

From the point of view of ESP practitioners, the problems in education are “unique to specific learners in specific contexts” (Belcher, 2006, p. 135). Course design, therefore, must vary with respect to the groups’ needs; otherwise, a generic materials program for all language learners will be
inadequate and ineffective. In fact, a one-size-fits-all approach has been attacked by many language researchers. As Long (2005) explains,

Just as no medical intervention would be prescribed before a thorough diagnosis of what ails the patient, so no language teaching program should be designed without a thorough needs analysis. Every language course should be considered a course for specific purposes, varying only (and considerably, to be sure) in the precision with which learner needs can be specified – from little or none in the case of programs for most young children to minute detailed in the case of occupationally-, academically- or vocationally-oriented programs for most adults. (p. 5)

Pioneers such as Jordan (1997) and Hutchinson and Waters (1987) have laid the foundation for needs analysis in ESP. However, researchers in the field of applied linguistics and TESOL professionals must shed light on detailed methodologies and give serious attention to needs analysis. The effort now should be made to investigate needs analysis generalizations that vary from one population to another (Ananyeva, 2014; Long, 2005).

“Like many other countries, the syllabus designers and the higher authorities of various schools and universities of Saudi Arabia are also unable to choose an appropriate textbook for their students” (Ur Rahman & Alhaisoni, 2013, p. 115). In fact, in Saudi Arabia, needs analysis is a challenge for curriculum development and design. Especially, at the level of higher education, needs analysis is of great importance. This researcher’s target-teaching level is teaching English at the university level in Saudi Arabia,
where English is taught and used as a foreign language (EFL). However, in this paper the use of needs analysis in ESL context will be equivalent to EFL because the ideology of ESP and needs analysis can be applied in any English program regardless of its uses (as a second or foreign language).

This paper provides various definitions of needs analysis and its role and importance in adult ESL programs. Also, it sheds light on data collection procedures when examining students' needs. Finally, it provides a comparison between a learning-centered approach and the traditional approach in syllabus design.

Definition of Needs Analysis

Needs analysis (NA)(also known as needs assessment) is the groundwork for ESP or any general English program (Belcher, 2006; Songhori, 2007); and the ESP program itself is driven by learners’ needs (Benesch, 1996). It plays an essential and important role in any course design, which mainly aims at obtaining “learning needs of a particular group of learners” (Shahriari & Behjat, 2014, p. 322).

According to Iwai, Kondo, Lim, Ray, Shimizu & Brown (1999), needs analysis is defined as collecting information from a selective group of students with the intent of developing a curriculum that meets their learning needs. They clarify:

In the case of language programs, those needs will be language related. Once identified, needs can be stated in terms of goals and objectives which, in turn, can serve as the basis for developing tests, materials, teaching activities, and evaluation strategies, as well as for
reevaluating the precision and accuracy of the original needs assessment. (p. 6)

Shahriari and Behjat (2014) present a similar thought on the relation between a group's needs and curriculum objectives: “The goals of the needs-analysis phase of curriculum design are to determine what a particular group of learners expects from use of English or what their present level of competence is” (p. 322).

As a result, those needs will be the guidelines in launching any curriculum. “It is the first step in course design, which provides relevancy for all course design activities and places the learners' purposes in the central position within its framework” (Shahriari & Behjat, 2014, p. 322). Needs assessment, according to Iwai et al. (1999), should be either the basis for any new language program, or the reference for “a well-established foreign language program” (p. 10), to be re-examined frequently and modified in terms of its goals and objectives.

After examining a variety of definitions of needs analysis, Iwai et al. suggested Brown's definition (1995) to be the best, yet not perfect. Brown defines needs assessment as analyzing essential data that is collected to assist the design of constant curriculum objectives in order to fulfill students’ requirements of language learning within the setting of a specific language program that will, in return, develop the learning process.

On the other hand, Benesch (1996) emphasized some elements must be investigated in needs analysis as the basis for ESP and EAP. She inspected a collection of needs analysis rationales and concluded that it is the
process of studying “the students’ English target situation.” “Students’ background and goals,” observing their “naturalistic settings,” and noting their “behavioral demands” are additional elements that must be considered (p. 723).

However, for Shahriari and Behjat (2014), needs analysis includes a combination of “Target Situation Analysis (TSA),” students’ needs at the end of the language program, and “Present Situation Analysis (PSA)” (p. 322). Needs analysis covers three basic periods of the course timeline, which are the beginning, current, and the future, “in order to design an English course to suit their levels of ability” (p. 322).

A needs assessment approach should be considered when designing any language programs or curricula. Needs analysis helps students to be engaged in classroom activities because they will be motivated to learn the type of language they aim to master. Also, it is one way to bridge the gap between the teachers’ and the students' expectations toward learning a language. Needs analysis allows instructors to understand student’s local needs; in other words, when teachers are aware of the needs of a particular group of students, they will make decisions that lead to better assessment and pedagogy (Tarone & Yule, 1989).

To conclude, all needs analysis definitions involve an emphasis on investigating learners’ needs through gathering information that relates to the target-language community, which supports the process of syllabus and language program design. They also emphasize that a needs analysis must constantly and frequently be carried out throughout the program.
A Learner-Centered Curriculum in Adult ESL Programs

As stated in Belcher (2006), ESP specialists insist on avoiding *a priori* decisions of “what language features to teach” (p. 136). Initially, adult ESL programs are influenced by the “learner-centered movement,” “focusing not just on what people do with language but how they learn it and encouraging learner investment and participation” (p. 136). The question of who must be involved in curriculum design and in making decisions is not easy to answer. Yet, ESP professionals remind us that syllabus design should not be an individual decision made by an independent authority or institution, for instance, because learners’ wants might conflict with course designers’ views (Jordan, 1997).

Needs analysis is a cooperative process that involves different parties of the community such as government, educators, parents, and learners. The conflict, hence, arises because any community is a combination of “members holding multiple race, class, and gender subject position” (Belcher, 2006, p. 137). If this is the case, then the dilemma arises of whose needs should be investigated when collecting data. In other words, in the needs analysis process, a curriculum cannot serve authorities’ needs only, because they are no more important than are other members of the community. Learning a language is a communicative and a sociocultural process that occurs within a social context between members within and outside the community, so many community members should give input.

Integrating administrators and students’ needs is critical in curriculum design, as reported by Watanabe (2006). Moreover, allowing learners to
contribute to making major decisions of what they want to learn and acquire in language is “a democratic decision making process” (p. 84). She also claims that in a learning-centered approach the learners’ needs must be the center of attention instead of authorities because setting prior goals and objectives is a traditional top-down process.

If students’ needs and voices are not heard, a gap will occur between learners’ goals of acquiring a language and the government’s objectives of what it wants students to achieve. Orienting the ESL programs toward the learners’ convenience instead of the institution’s convenience is a key feature of a recent ESL program development within an adult ESL context. It is called Learning College and Active Curriculum, according to Ananyeva. She describes the program as a successful ESL program, which “explores the full potential of learners and provides them with support to meet their goals” (Ananyeva, 2014, p. 9).

According to Ananyeva (2014), adult ESL learners are mostly “self-motivated” and “well aware of their needs and goals” (p. 9). They have an image of their target professional or academic community; however, they might not be fully aware of the expectations and requirements of these target communities. “As a result these students struggle with directing their learning toward successfully functioning in those communities” (Ananyeva, 2014, p. 9). Consequently, adult ESL program administrators must keep in mind students’ “cultural, personal, professional, and academic needs” (p. 9) besides the expectations of their target communities. They have to direct and guide the
students properly toward achieving their goals and demands. As Lambert states,

Surveys show that English for specific purposes (ESP) and workplace English learners, including immigrants in community ESL programs, view a successful curriculum as the one that gives them access to the desired jobs, whereas EAP students feel a successful curriculum provides access to the desired academic communities. (2008) (as cited in Ananyeva, p. 10).

Ananyeva (2014) argues that ESL curricula should be student oriented. Students should be involved from the prior stages of planning the curriculum all the way through to the application of it, with regard to an emphasis on students' local, cultural and personal needs. As mentioned above, all efforts should be made to function parallel with students' target communities. Ananyeva states,

A learning curriculum demands the merging of boundaries between ESL instructors, instructional designers, and materials developers—as well as teacher–student and ESL–mainstream teacher boundaries—in order to encourage ESL educators to go beyond their disciplines for the sake of their students and their success in today's dynamic world. (p. 11)

Watanabe (2005), on the other hand, claims that students' voices should not be the only resource for curriculum design. Students' voices should be collected to become one of the stakeholder groups and yet their needs have to be considered along with other stakeholders' needs such as
teachers and policy makers. “There must be more NAs done in EFL contexts to uncover the different stakeholders’ needs as well as to generate awareness that such needs exist” (p. 87). Often it is impossible for learners to participate extensively in curriculum planning because they lack knowledge and experience. Students can work as contributors guided by their teachers, but the decision about the curriculum’s “tasks” and “products” should be made primarily by teachers (Nunan, 1988).

In pursuit of designing a successful curriculum for adult ESL programs (ESP and EAP), a needs analysis should be the foundation. Needs assessment must also receive further attention in terms of ESP generalization because each ESL context is different from the other and should be studied distinctively (Ananyeva, 2014).

The three main stages of a course or program development include planning, implementation, and evaluation. Curriculum designers need to cycle through the stages constantly. Nunan (1988) used the Australian Adult Migrant Education Program (AMEP) model as an ideal model to be followed. He claims that the AMEP is a successful English language program because it follows a bottom-up methodology rather than top-down. Also, it involves the participation of several parties in setting the goals of the program. Curriculum development is based on negotiation and decision-making between teachers, authorities, and students. In a learner-centered approach, as Nunan (1988) explains,

It is impossible to teach learners everything they need to know in class … what little class time there is must therefore be used as effectively
as possible to teach those aspects of the language which the learners themselves deem to be most urgently required, this increasing surrender value and consequent student motivation. (p. 3)

Consultation and negotiation between teachers and students in a learner-centered curriculum design seeks to diminish the mismatch between teachers and students’ expectations as well as meet the needs of both parties. Needs assessment brings together various groups of stakeholders and considers their voices, with the goal of being the maximum benefit to everyone.

Data Collection as a Part of Needs Analysis

There are many suggestions for data collection procedures in needs analysis; for example, questionnaires, observations, interviews (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Jordan, 1997; Nunan, 1998). According to Jordan (1997), surveys, case studies, self-assessment, and different types of tests such as class progress tests are suggested.

In order to diagnose students’ needs, information collected should include biographical facts such as “current proficiency level, age, educational background, previous learning experiences, time in the target culture and previous and current occupation” (Nunan, 1988, p. 4). Further information, he adds, could be collected about favorite learning styles, learning goals, and preferred methodology.

There are five fundamental questions that should be considered when collecting data (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987): Why is the language needed? How will the language be used? What will the content areas be? Who will the
learner use the language with? Where will the language be used? When will the language be used? Furthermore, Jordan (1999) recommended considering particular purposes in ESP in order to differentiate between the categories of ESP. English for specific purposes includes two headings; English for occupational purpose and English for academic purposes. English for academic purposes has two subheadings, as illustrated in the graph in Figure 2.1.

The process of gathering information should take place at the beginning of the course. Collected data can be used for purposes such as class placement with regard to language proficiency or occupational purposes. Traditionally, the grouping of learners, for the most part, has been dependent on their level of language proficiency, but it should not be the only criterion when classifying learners. Grouping learners, then, should take place according to their needs-assessment results. Each group of learners shares common interests and motivation. The following step should address content selection, which includes selecting materials, learning activities, and assessment.

Content selection should engage learners especially when determining learning objectives after guiding them to plan their objectives. Nunan (1988) states that training learners to set their own objectives is an effort that pays off. For instance, learners will have a clear expectation of what they will achieve from the curriculum and will understand that their learning outcomes are a response to the determined objectives. Furthermore, classroom activities will be more authentic because the objectives will relate to their life
goals and needs. All in all, self-assessment will be more effective and practical.

Figure 2.1. English for Specific Purposes: Subdivision of English for Specific Purposes  
(adapted from Jordan, 1997)

According to Nunan (1988), teachers at the beginning of each course should start by providing the students with learning experiences that enable them to participate in making considerable choices in what they want to obtain from a language. “Learners should be encouraged to reflect upon their learning experiences and articulate those they prefer, and those they feel suit them as learners” (p. 6). He suggests assisting the students in giving feedback about the learning activities by using their first language or by providing “translated activity evaluation sheets” (p. 6).
Even when the objectives are set and the content is selected, the decision should not be absolute and final. “It is the outcomes of the ongoing dialogue between teachers and learners which will determine content and learning objectives” (Nunan, 1988, p. 5). The needs-assessment process must be continuous, debatable, and adaptable during the course. “There is a need to occasionally re-evaluate its goals and objectives” (Iwai et al., 1999, p. 7) because “learners’ skills develop, their self awareness as learners grows and their perceived needs change” (Nunan, 1988, p.5). As a result, Nunan (1988) insists on avoiding a pre-determined curriculum because “the most valuable learner data can usually only be obtained in an informal way after relationships have been established between teachers and learners” (p. 5).

The final stage in curriculum design is evaluation. Nunan (1988) differentiates between traditional means of student assessment and course evaluation in a traditional way versus the modern perspective. Student assessment and course evaluation could be overlapped, but they are not identical. Course evaluation traditionally takes place at the end of the course, whereas in the modern learner-centered approach it should be “parallel with other curriculum activities” and happen in frequent phases during the course. Assessment and evaluation vary in their targets. Assessment aims at determining if the objectives of the course have been met; to the contrary, evaluation aims at determining the reasons behind the failure to achieve the objectives.

Again, data collection tools such as interviewing learners or surveys must not stop at the beginning of the course, but should be applied several
times during the course to ensure its validity. Needs-analysis objectives and curricula are flexible, adaptable, and varied from one context to the other because learners’ needs vary as well as do their use of English.

**Conclusion**

Needs analysis is the core of any ESP course. It investigates learners’ needs and assures adequate curricula for students. Needs analysis leads to respect for student groups’ diverse needs and provides each with a suitable language program. It bridges the gap between students’ needs and teacher’s expectations and also involves parents and learners as well as authorities in the decision-making process.

Needs assessment, according to Belcher (2006), is becoming an issue of accommodation and compromise between various stakeholders, educators, and learners. Needs assessment is not a simple procedure; and as mentioned earlier, there is no clear methodology to pursue. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) refute the idea of one particular ESP methodology. Belcher (2006) claims that ESP needs analysis should be materials oriented, not methods oriented.

Whether it is materials oriented or methods oriented, needs analysis should investigate learners’ needs on a continuous basis. It must connect any loose ends that may occur as a result of the mismatch between language curricula, objectives, and students’ expectations. It is an approach based on learner-centered ideology, which is the target of any successful learning program. Once needs are assessed, the ESP curriculum is designed to accommodate these assessed needs.
English for Specific, Academic, and Business Purposes

Introduction

The primary focus of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) is on language in context rather than on teaching syntax and language structures (Lorenzo, 2005). ESP has been considered distinct from English language teaching, according to Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998). They believe that ESP concentrates on the outcomes rather than language teaching: “ESP has always retained its emphasis on practical outcomes” (p. 1). According to Belcher (2006), “ESP now encompasses an ever-diversifying and expanding range of purposes” (p. 134). It covers a variety of subjects ranging from accounting, computer science, tourism, and business administration. The crucial point of ESP is that English is not taught as a subject alienated from the students' factual world, but is integrated into important subject matter for learners (Lorenzo, 2005).

Most importantly, ESP is closely associated with the specific needs of learners. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) refer to ESP as “an approach to language teaching in which all decisions as to content and method are based on the learner’s reason for learning” (p. 19). ESP students are often mature people who already have some association with the language and are now learning it in more depth to use it in professional communication and to achieve certain job-related functions (Lorenzo, 2005). ESP programs are meant to prepare “learners to communicate effectively in the tasks prescribed by their study or work situation” (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998, p. 1). An
ESP program is therefore built on an “assessment of purposes and needs and the functions for which English is required” (Hutchison & Waters, 1987, p. 56).

This paper aims to distinguish between ESP and General English taught in most universities, colleges, and other tertiary schools. It will investigate the development of ESP and take a special look at ESP programs in Saudi Arabia, with a focus at the university level. Moreover, it will also take a look at English for academic purposes and English for business purposes. English has become the most popular language for both academic and business purposes. Even though English is taught for both purposes, there is a noticeable difference in the methodology of teaching and the requirements of the students who enroll for these different courses. Therefore, it is also the objective of this paper to examine the differences between English for academic purposes and English for business purposes.

**English for Specific Purposes Versus General English**

ESP is a learner-centered approach compared to teaching English as a foreign/second language (Ahmad, 2012, p. 114). ESP programs are meant to equip learners with the required information and skills in their target subjects; they are designed for tertiary level students who aim to learn English for particular purposes (Ghanbari & Rasekh, 2012). It entails teaching and coaching particular skills and language desired by certain learners for a particular reason. “The phrase ‘specific’ in ESP, explains the precise objective of learning English” (Hutchison & Waters, 1987, p. 67). “The P in ESP is often a professional purpose — a given skill set that learners presently require in their task or will require in their careers” (Day & Krzanowski, 2011,
This open definition can be expanded to include entrepreneurial skills, such as English for job searching, presentation skills, and so on.

In fact, ESP combines subject matter and English language teaching. According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987), a combination like this is highly motivating because students can relate what they have learned in their English lessons to their major field of study, whether it is accounting, business administration, economics, computer science, tourism, and so on. Having to use the vocabulary and structures taught in meaningful situations that relate to the students’ discipline reinforces what is learned and raises their motivation. Students approach the study of English through a field that is already known and relevant to them. This means that they can utilize what they get in the ESP classroom directly in their work and study. The ESP approach promotes the importance of what students are learning and assists them in making use of the English they are aware of, in order to learn even more English—because their interest in their field will motivate them to interact with speakers and texts. “The assumption underlying this approach was that the clear relevance of the English course to their needs would improve the learners’ motivation and thereby make learning better and faster” (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p. 8).

ESP courses differ from General English because they broaden one’s knowledge about specific subject matter, by offering intensively specialized vocabulary that in turn prepares learners to use the language in their future professions (Varnosfadrani, 2009). On the other hand, the methodology of an ESP teacher is different from that of a General English teacher; as opposed to
methodologies employed for General English, “…the key question is getting materials and methodologies bound effectively for a given class. For example, a teacher in an ESP program may very well ask questions such as: ‘Is the approach or technique I’m using suitable for learners of this mature age, skill level, first language and culture?’ (Jordan, 1997, p. 32). Questions like these are pertinent to ESP, but another factor should also be considered: subject-explicit knowledge such as engineering methods, legal procedures, software programming, and so on. By definition, the learners in an ESP course will frequently know more about the technical aspects of the subject than the teacher. “This supplementary factor is frequently what makes ESP overwhelming, but also thrilling and confronting” (Alharby, 2005, p. 34).

Nevertheless, there are three main strategies open to ESP trainers whose comprehension of the specific subject is partial: openness and honesty, training and confidence, and integrity and frankness about organizational expectations (Day & Krzanowski, 2011). As Pădurean and Vizental (2015) point out, teachers should be confident that they have the fundamental skills to teach their students how to use the vocabulary in their future occupation and how to motivate their learners. Sometimes, methodology is more important than knowledge and that is what teachers should take into consideration.

It is worth mentioning that there are two well-known features of ESP instruction presented by Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) that can help distinguish between General English and ESP. They extended the definitions of ESP in terms of absolute characteristics (must be available in any ESP
program) and variable characteristics (can be met in ESP courses but not necessarily) as shown in Table 2.1.

General English helps learners with language use in their everyday situations. It focuses on developing general language skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing, syntax, and vocabulary). Despite the fact that ESP overlaps with General English, Hutchinson and Waters (1987) see the difference in practice, not in theory.

According to Ahmad (2012), instructors teaching General English concentrate more on the language in general. They aim at giving the learners a course that may satisfy their urge to know and understand a certain language. However, when it comes to ESP, teachers give more importance to needs analysis and the writers of the material think very carefully about the goals of the learner (p. 115).

ESP teachers are required to have the knowledge and teaching skills that will assist their learners, such as skills on how to make learning successful, how to make acquiring language powerful, and how to inspire students. In other words, an ESP teacher with good methodology but narrow subject-matter comprehension may be more efficient than a subject expert with no awareness of methodology—a subject expert with strong methodology would be the best.

To summarize, it is evident that the content, approach and methodology of teaching English for Specific Purposes (ESP) differs considerably from what is used to teach General English. Teaching General English in schools, colleges and universities has been done successfully
Table 2.1. Absolute and Variable Characteristics of English for Specific Purposes.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Absolute Characteristics</th>
<th>Variable Characteristics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ESP must meet the learners' specific needs and goals.</td>
<td>Most ESP learners are adults who seek entrance to a tertiary level institution or are in a professional work situation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ESP makes use of methodologies and activities in order to serve certain disciplines.</td>
<td>ESP is designed for advanced students or intermediates.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ESP is centered on language, study skills, lexis, and discourse.</td>
<td>Although ESP assumes basic knowledge of English, beginners can sometimes learn very well through ESP.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Developed methodology in general English may not be suitable for use in ESP.


for centuries in many countries across the world. These courses are often highly structured and even rigid, and specific outcomes are expected. The approach with most ESP courses however, is to meet the specific English language needs and requirements of the more mature student, in an effective manner which is often less structured or rigid. ESP is generally seen as applied General English where specific subject matter such as engineering or technology is taught in English to students who have qualifications in these
fields, but who feel they need to improve their English before enrolling in further studies or entering the workforce. In order for students to learn more English and promote their motivation, they need to practice English in a meaningful situation through a field of study that is familiar and relevant to them as in ESP. This means that they can utilize what they learn in the ESP classroom directly in their work and study.

The Development of English for Specific Purposes

The beginning of ESP dates back to the 1960s. It was modified by Ewer and Latorre (1969) after they noticed that school textbooks failed to meet the specific needs of the science student; they aimed at making ESP more relevant to science students. In other words, “the school textbooks neglected some of the language forms commonly found in science texts; for example, compound nouns” (Hutchison & Waters, 1987, p. 10). They explain that “the aim was to produce a syllabus which gave high priority to the language forms students would meet in their studies and in turn would give low priority to forms they would not meet” (p. 10). The fact that each field has a unique register when using English led to the need for register analyses, in order to identify “the grammatical and lexical features of these registers” (p. 10).

In the recent past, ESP has been integrated with language-teaching practice; ESP has increased within instructional practice due to market forces and improved awareness within the academic and business communities that the needs of learners and students should be met wherever possible (Hutchison & Waters, 1987). English is the language of technology; and
according to its powerful position in the world of science, economy and technology, “it has become well known in the ELT (English-Language-Teaching) circle. This is especially so because English has acquired the status of an international ‘lingua franca,’ and linguists have moved towards a situation-based notion of language” (Ahmad, 2012, p. 114). He adds that ESP was the solution for professionals who had to learn English to be able to enter the job market.

The special usefulness of ESP is revealed when “it is offered directly to learners in academic institutions and also to workers and professionals who have experience, in order to promote their understanding and communication with each other” (Jordan, 1997, p. 90). With this flexibility in curricula, ESP can be considered either in academic or workplace contexts. There are a number of factors that led to the development of ESP. One of the main factors was the ineffectiveness of traditional language instruction in providing instruction to the growing specialization in careers. Another reason was the increase in professionalism during the 1960s (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Jordan, 1997).

Traditional language instruction did not take learners’ aims and requirements into consideration and it became obvious that a different approach was needed. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) determined three main reasons that led to the growth of ESP: The first reason was the growth in many spheres of life in the second half of the twentieth century. Due to this growth, human activities became more specific and common communication criteria became necessary, hence the development of ESP. Secondly, it
became apparent that the use of the English language varies depending on context; this means that each context requires specific attention. The third reason that led to the growth of ESP is the growth of educational psychology that led to the emphasis on teaching practice rather than theory itself. A further reason that could have led to development of ESP is the challenges that EIL speakers might experience while communicating with each other. “Despite many critics of ESP, it developed rather quickly and became widely accepted, and is also considered as a bona fide division of ELT” (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p. 99).

ESP brought a big shift in approaches to teaching languages because it became centered exclusively on the learners. However, the “characteristic of learner-centeredness is not unique to ESP” (Jordan, 1997, p. 90). ESP is suitable for all people irrespective of their professions, especially those with some level of proficiency in the English language; however it is not a requirement for someone to have proficiency in the English language to benefit from ESP instruction. ESP is simply a unique, practical development in the study of English. The main objective of ESP is determined by being attentive to the requirements of learners. The development of ESP has necessitated the development of varying standards and procedures. These procedures include the following: Assessment of students’ needs, development of teaching materials, and implementation of teaching plans (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p. 79).

“ESP is essentially a training operation which seeks to provide learners with a restricted competence to enable them to cope with certain clearly
defined tasks. These tasks constitute the specific purposes which the ESP course is designed to meet” (Widdowson, 1992, p. 6). However, one must differentiate between the categories of ESP. According to Jordan (1997), ESP covers two main categories: English for academic purposes (EAP) and English for occupational/vocational/professional purposes (EOP). The students’ needs are what determine the type of materials employed as well as the curriculum. It is counter-productive to offer exactly the same material to learners who have different purposes in learning English. Students who specifically choose English as their foreign language have precise purposes in mind that must be met through efficient ESP programs.

 Unlike general courses that tend to teach conversational and social English, EAP courses consider teaching more formal and academic English (Ahmad, 2012). On the other hand, EOP equips learners with the English necessary in occupational contexts. Ahmad (2012) explains:

 … English for Occupational Purposes includes the acquisition of English to get on far better with professional life, such as English used by doctors to communicate with patients, researchers and scientists who want to publish their scientific achievements in reputed journals or present their papers in international seminars and engineers who want to accomplish their tasks in English. (p. 117)

 EAP further provides study skills such as critical reading and writing, test-taking and note-taking skills, understanding academic lectures, academic vocabulary usage, formal composition forms, research and library skills.
To sum up, the beginning of ESP was an attempt to meet the needs of science students so textbooks would become more relevant to their goals and make the scientific terms more understandable by applying English directly to a specific field of study and not just teach English in general. Consequently, ESP increased in language teaching and practice as a result of the market forcing its necessity to meet the needs of business communities. In other words, ESP played an important role in teaching language instruction because it shifted teaching approaches to be learner-centered. Again, English learners can benefit from ESP regardless of their level of proficiency.

**English for Academic Purposes**

English for academic purposes (EAP) encompasses teaching students, typically in advanced levels of education, to utilize language properly for learning. It is “one of the most familiar forms of English for specific purposes (ESP)” (Benesch, 2001, p. 54). English for Academic Purposes emphasizes training in skills required for an English-speaking academic situation in specific subject areas that are usually encountered in a university program. This may, however, also include a more narrow focus on the rather specific linguistic demands of a particular area of study; for instance on business subjects. Programs may be categorized into prior-sessional courses and those which are taken alongside students’ other subjects (Al-Ramahi & University of Leicester, 2006). In the previous case, occasionally EAP courses may be anticipated to equip students with a certain level of English competency so that they can gain access to universities. In the United States, this can help students to achieve a score of 80 or better on the TOEFL (Cox &
Hill, 2004). Beyond Anglophone countries, English-medium universities may have an introductory school where students can study for a year or two, concentrating on their English and academic skills before starting degree courses.

EAP courses alongside other degree courses may utilize content-based instruction, by use of either material from the learners' degree subjects or as a separate but similar course. These side-by-side courses may be advantageous more to “assist students to gain study skills and necessary academic practice, rather than for language advance” (Cox & Hill, 2004, p. 167). In common with majority-language instruction and programs, EAP lessons include teaching grammar, and vocabulary, as well as the four language skills—speaking, reading, listening and writing. However, the ESP approach typically tries to bind these to the explicit disciplinary requirements of students; for instance, a writing lesson could focus on script essays instead of business correspondence. Likewise, “the vocabulary selected for study tend to be based on academic text” (Mount, 2014, p. 69). Therefore, EAP practitioners frequently find that they are teaching study skills directly or indirectly, and that they have to constantly keep the differences in instructive culture in mind.

Ahmad (2012) argues that “EAP courses tend to teach formal, academic genres rather than the conversational and social genres taught in general English courses” (p. 117). According to him, EAP includes a variety of academic communicative practices, such as the following: “pre-university, undergraduate and post-graduate teaching (from material design to lectures
and classroom activities), classroom interactions (tutorials, feedback, seminar
discussions, etc.), research genres (journal articles, conference papers, grant
proposals, etc.), and student’s writing (assignments, exams, dissertations,
etc.)” (pp. 116-117). EAP tends to teach study skills that meet learners’ needs
in an academic situation. It focuses mainly on preparing learners to study or
conduct research in English. It involves academic competence and
communicative practices by addressing the discourse of the academic
community (Canagarajah, 2002).

All in all, English for academic purposes (EAP) instruction deals with
advanced levels of education that helps learners master English within
academic settings. It focuses on teaching academic skills needed for subject
areas practiced in a university. In short, EAP is concerned with teaching study
skills that meet learners’ needs in academic situations that prepares learners
to study and conduct research.

**English for Business Purposes**

English for business purposes (EBP) is language related
to international trade. It is a specialist field within English language learning
and teaching (Jones & Alexander, 2000). Many non-native speakers of
English study the subject with an aim of doing business with people in
countries where English is a first language, or with companies situated
outside the Anglo sphere but use English as a joint language. A great deal of
the English communication that occurs within business sectors throughout the
world occurs among non-native English speakers. In situations such as
these, the aim of the exercise is competent and effective communication
The stern regulations of grammar are sometimes overlooked in such cases, when for example, an anxious negotiator's only target is to reach an agreement as quickly as possible.

EBP means different things to different people (Jones & Alexander, 1989). To some, it focuses on vocabulary and themes used in the worlds of business, international relations, trade, and finance. To others it means the communication skills utilized in the workplace, and hones in on the language and skills required for typical business conversation such as meetings, presentations, small talk, report writing, negotiations, and correspondence. EBP is more often than not an option for international students. It can be studied at a university, college, or any institution around the world that offers courses or modules in EBP.

**Business English Teaching in Saudi Arabia**

The main focus of this section is to address some issues related to Business English Teaching (BET) in Saudi Arabia. BET is one of the major branches of ESP (English for Specific Purposes), which was primarily developed to prepare learners for their business careers. In the current era of globalization, English is becoming a universal language in both education and business. In this type of scenario, Saudi Arabia is not an exception; in fact, the rest of the world has played a significant role in preferring English over other languages (Ahmad, 2012).

The research and teaching of business English is the development stage in Saudi Arabia. Not long ago, business English was introduced in colleges and universities in Saudi Arabia because ELT practitioners “think that
a one-year preparatory course in English is not enough to improve the proficiency of most learners of English” (Ahmad, 2012, p. 116). Many students demanded professional and occupational courses be provided in ESP at a higher educational level for the sake of better performance in the job market. This would equip such students with communication skills that are on par of the workplace market (Ahmad, 2012).

Saudi universities have started to adopt English in a significant way to gain more recognition globally; this can be clearly seen in the increasing number of programs taught in English at these universities. Demands for learning English for business have also increased, because job seekers have started to learn English that help them be better equipped for higher-ranked positions in the labor market. Such actions clearly indicate that a significant number of Saudi citizens view speaking English as a major advantage. The domination of English has already been accepted and supported by many business schools, multinational corporations, and by most of the rest of the world.

Some linguists claim that English has certain advantages among all the languages across the globe, which has helped the use of English to grow faster than any other language. This implies there will be a strong demand for learning English for business purposes because English will become increasingly more dominant in business. Most of business English courses taught in Saudi Arabia are offered by private ESL schools in the major cities. Teachers of BET programs are required to have English language teaching credentials such as TESOL. Currently, both students and employers in
Saudi Arabia are also demanding courses designed to prepare individuals for English exams including the Cambridge Test, IELTS, and TOEFL.

In summary, BET in Saudi Arabia is one of the major branches of ESP, which was primarily developed to prepare learners for their business careers. In the current era of globalization, English is becoming a universal language for both education and business. Courses and whole programs being taught in English at Saudi universities and colleges is something fairly new, and Saudi universities have started to adopt English in a significant way to gain more recognition globally. Demands in Saudi Arabia for learning English for business has also increased, because job seekers have started to learn English to be better equipped for higher-ranked positions in the labor market.

**Conclusion**

English for Academic, Business and Specific Purposes has become essential in almost all spheres of life. As English has gained ground as the most-used international language, the demand for training and education in English has similarly increased. As the world becomes a smaller and more dynamic place in terms of technology, these different categories of teaching English will become a necessity for successful interaction among people. Most people are faced with various situations in life, some of which require knowledge of more than one of the English-language-training models presented here.

Some countries where English is not considered a main language have not yet implemented these programs—Saudi Arabia being one of these countries. This has created some problems for students graduating from
universities and colleges in those countries. Some of the students/graduates are unable to communicate well in English, hence the majority of employers are not ready to hire newly minted graduates from those universities. With time, the educational authorities in those countries have realized the importance of English, and have begun to introduce English as a compulsory subject at preliminary levels in most universities and colleges. “There should be continuation of English language teaching in the form of ESP in Saudi Arabian colleges and universities” (Ahmad, 2012, p. 116).

After all, ESP should receive further attention in Saudi educational institutions in order to prepare learners for communication within their professional and international communities. “Courses must be specifically developed, and teachers must be trained to aim at providing an applicable language that can be learnt for immediate use” (Ahmad, 2012, p. 119). Saudi students need relevant ESP courses in health science, engineering, and business management. To achieve these goals, ELT practitioners must set objectives to distinguish between general English and ESP courses. In addition, they need to provide unique curricula and guidelines to meet the needs of most individuals in their target communities.

In this brief literature review, it has become clear that much has been written about the different methodologies in presenting the English language in a practical manner. The demand for introductory English, practical workplace English, as well as English for technology, the business world, and academic institutions, has been distinguished from the demand for General English commonly taught in schools across the globe. We may therefore
draw the conclusion with confidence that the development of programs and courses for teaching English to diverse student populations of the world will continue at an increasing pace in order to meet the growing demand for ESP. As these causes develop and the demand grows, one area will continually increase in importance—specialized vocabulary knowledge to keep a pace with technical fields.

Personalized Vocabulary

Introduction

Most educators agree that students learn better when they are motivated rather than forced to learn. Educators must keep in mind students’ needs and desires in learning English in order to best motivate second/foreign language acquisition. “In fact, the reason why different approaches were born and then replaced by others is that teachers have intended to meet the needs of their students during their learning” (Songhori, 2007, p. 3).

Teaching philosophies have gradually shifted from traditional teacher-centered to learner-centered approaches. Learning-centered approaches replace passive methods in English with more active classroom environments that feature autonomy in learning. Learners assume more responsibility in contributing to the learning process by making choices in what they want to learn and by deciding what strategies are best for their learning. This is called a “constructivist approach” as defined by Stage, Muller, Kinzie, and Simmons (1998):
Constructivist approaches emphasize learners’ actively constructing their own knowledge rather than passively receiving information transmitted to them from teachers and textbooks. From a constructivist perspective, knowledge cannot simply be given to students: Students must construct their own meanings. (p. 35)

When students dedicate themselves to learn English fluently, especially if learning English has not been mandatory, they know exactly why they want to learn, so they can apply English to areas that pique their interest. For instance, do students need to learn English for academic or occupational purposes? As Hutchinson and Waters (1987) explain,

As English became the accepted international language of technology and commerce, it created a new generation of learners who knew specifically why they were learning a language--businessmen and women who wanted to sell their products, mechanics who had to read instruction manuals, doctors who needed to keep up with developments in their field and a whole range of students whose course of study included textbook and journals only available in English. (p. 6)

Engaging learners in making choices is a fundamental factor in the learning-centered approach. A personalized vocabulary learning strategy will be discussed in this paper to assist learners in making these choices when learning English, giving them the opportunity to choose the English vocabulary they encounter for special consideration. This strategy will help students focus on acquiring what they think is going to be useful to them.
This paper discusses the role that personalized vocabulary plays in English for Specific Purposes (ESP). It will illustrate the importance of teaching vocabulary as a separate skill, rather than one buried within the confines of other skills. Finally, two models will be given as examples of a personalized vocabulary strategy.

**English for Specific Purposes and Personalized Vocabulary**

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) support the idea that learners’ needs and interests have a powerful relationship in regard to motivation in learning English. In other words, to make learning faster and more efficacious, the English course should be relevant to the students’ demands and goals. They also suggest a needs-analysis approach, where the target situation of learners is examined to help them function successfully when they encounter their imagined or target situations, underlining the aim of the ESP course.

“There must be a close correspondence between what learners wish to get out of the ESP experience and what the textbook has to offer” (Salas, Mercado, Ouedrago, & Musetti, 2013, p. 15). Language teaching instruction and objectives should be designed after identifying the target situation. As Hutchinson and Waters (1986) claim, “the ESP course design process should proceed by first identifying the target situation and then carrying out rigorous analysis of the linguistic feature of that situation” (p. 12). Similarly, in personalized vocabulary, learners’ needs are investigated by means of a questionnaire that determines the type of text that is handed out to each student.
Students, on one hand, might lose motivation and be overwhelmed with the amount of vocabulary they are required to learn, especially if they believe that it is irrelevant to their imagined communities. This slows the learning process. On the other hand, when students learn something for a specific purpose, this helps the learning process become more valuable and long lasting (Hutchinson & Waters, 1986).

Lexical terms provided in personalized vocabulary vary from one learner to another because people learn English for various purposes. For instance, the English terms used in the medical field are different from the ones used in a mechanical engineering context. This supports the idea of adjusting English teaching instruction to meet the needs of specific group of learners: “If language varies from one situation of use to another, it should be possible to determine the features of specific situations and then make these features the basis of the learners’ course” (Hutchinson & Waters, 1986, p. 7).

The reason why vocabulary should be personalized is that learners’ wants or needs might conflict with course designers’ views, according to Jordan (1997). For instance, if the curriculum supports academic English when learners have other expectations for their language needs such as communicative competence and learning conversational skills, then a gap will occur between that course and the learners’ actual needs. In order for educators to avoid exacerbating students’ expectations, a needs analysis must be studied closely and be taken into consideration; otherwise, students may not function actively in their imagined communities because they might
not have learned the English they need to be able to communicate in their
target communities.

ESP is a direct response to the question, "Why does a specific learner
want to learn the language?" A learning-centered approach prioritizes the
learner’s needs. This requires designing an appropriate curriculum that fits
various groups of learners. That being the case, language use has many
variations, and these variations are strongly connected to the contexts where
and how language is going to be used--formal or informal. Therefore, it is
crucial to identify the type of language to be used in specific context. For
example, in an area of knowledge such as social or medical context, or an
area of use such as reading an academic text or attending a business
meeting (Hutchinson & Waters, 1986). This process is called “register
analysis,” according to Hutchinson and Waters, in which language is viewed
as a communicative process that takes place in a particular context.

ESP aims at bridging the gap between the materials employed in
teaching and English learners’ needs and expectations, as does personalized
vocabulary. One-size-fits-all English courses are not considered authentic
workshops because students must distinguish among the various purposes
behind learning English, mentally adjusting materials and classroom
instruction accordingly. Instead of trying to meet a variety of needs with one
sole class, the categories of ESP such as learning English for general,
academic, or occupational purposes should be directly addressed. Only when
educators understand learners’ needs and consider their expectations, will
designing curriculum and materials be appropriate and effective.
“Understanding the needs and expectations of our learners will play a vital role in determining the appropriateness of the materials under consideration and arriving the best possible choice for the course at hand” (Salas et al., 2013, p. 15).

Another facet of ESP is the “skills-centered approach,” which helps learners to develop learning strategies in order for them to cope with study situations. For the best outcomes, language educators should provide learners with a “broad repertoire of instructional strategies and practices” (Salas et al., 2013, p. 15) that correspond with learners’ needs and desires. This approach involves deeper thinking processes, seeking both generally useful and specific learning strategies. “The principal idea behind the skills-centered approach is that underlying all language use there are common reasoning and interpreting processes, which regardless to the surface forms, enable us to extract meaning from discourse” (Hutchinson & Waters, 1986, p. 13). When learners are equipped with study skills and strategies, learning English will be more meaningful. For example, reading and listening strategies help learners to “reflect on and analyze how meaning is produced in and retrieved from written or spoken discourse” (Hutchinson & Waters, 1986, p. 14).

“The first requirement of students will be the development of study skills to an appropriate level for the subject(s) to be studied in conjunction with development of language proficiency” (Jordan, 1997, pp. 5-6). Once students learn study techniques or strategies, they become more independent in studying and learning the language, resulting in a powerful impact on their
vocabulary and content retention. The strategies or “study skills,” are outside the scope of this paper but should also be addressed when curriculum is created. However, learning strategies as a broader concept subsumes personalized vocabulary.

Hence, specialized vocabulary is one bedrock for ESP; or in other words, it is part of what distinguishes ESP from a non-ESP program. In ESP and personalized vocabulary, the word list is manipulated intensively to suit a particular group of learners’ needs. The vocabulary list should be designed according to the target context where learners will practice their English.

Such lists might be enhanced by input in the form of authentic materials in which ESP-specific vocabulary is presented in context, or closed communicative activities whereby learners put new words into practice within the context of their professional activities. (Salas et al., 2013, p. 13)

Salas et al. argue that teaching instruction and the activities in the courses covering various professions could be the same; however, the choice of vocabulary is what characterizes each course. For example, the type of vocabulary and its use that is provided in an agricultural engineering English course is different from the vocabulary and its use provided in business management, whereas the general course activities are the same for both or any other course. “Precise professional activities such as accounting or agricultural engineering are certainly characterized by specific lexis and key words” (Sales et al., 2013, p. 13).
Not only do Salas et al. (2013) insist that lexis and how it is put to use distinguishes professional course activities, but they also encourage curriculum designers of ESP to think at both macro and micro levels. The macro level is “the professional communicative tasks, the genre or formats of those communicative tasks, and the modalities through which they are enacted” (p. 13); in contrast, the micro level is the use of specific details such as vocabulary choice. To synchronize these levels, the types of words in personalized vocabulary are chosen according to learners’ target professions, genres, formats, and modalities.

So far, a parallel has been drawn between ESP courses or programs and personalized vocabulary. This demonstrates that personalized vocabulary can be adequately applied and used in ESP classrooms because it serves the learners’ needs and prepares them for their target communities’ language needs.

**Vocabulary as a Separate Learning Skill**

Although vocabulary plays a vital role in second--and foreign--language acquisition, it has long been undervalued in that field (Coady & Huckin, 1997). English dictionaries contain 54,000 word families with the exclusion of entries such as proper names, noting that each word family contains several words (Goulden, Nations, & Read, 1990; Schmitt, 2000). According to Schmitt and Carter (2000), “a reader must know a very high percentage of words in any text in order to either obtain the gist of the passage or to guess the meaning of any unknown words” (p. 4).
Many studies have shown a strong relationship between vocabulary and reading comprehension, (see for example, Nagy, 1988). The initial stage of reading a text in a foreign language requires knowledge of nearly 5,000 words (Hirsh & Nation, 1992 as cited in Schmitt and Carter, 2000). “Adult learners of English need to quickly acquire a vast amount of vocabulary knowledge in order to be able to effectively and fluidly communicate with native speakers in professional, educational, and social settings” (Nisbet & Austin, 2013, p. 2).

Despite the assertion of many that phonology and syntax should be prioritized in language learning, vocabulary acquisition needs careful attention in accordance with its importance. Browne (2003) states that vocabulary has always been taught indirectly through the four language skills: reading, writing, listening, and speaking. However, educators have not considered vocabulary as a major component of the curriculum. “Even when vocabulary is taught more directly in the classroom, it tends to be via supplementary workbooks containing word manipulation exercises, rather than as a main element of the curriculum” (Browne, 2003, p. 2). Therefore, learners must be exposed directly and intensively to vocabulary as a major language skill because “intensive vocabulary instruction is needed to produce word knowledge of any depth” (Nagy, 1988, p. 41).

In order for vocabulary teaching to be effective, it should be accompanied by learning strategies, because learning strategies empower learners to be self-regulated and allow them to function better in acquiring the language. As Tseng, Dornyei, and Schmitt (2006) claim,
In general, strategy specialists believe that learners with strategic knowledge of language learning, compared with those without, become more efficient, resourceful, and flexible, thus acquiring a language more easily. The suggestion is that if learners can develop, personalize, and use a repertoire of learning strategies, they will be able to achieve language proficiency in a much facilitated manner. (p. 78)

“A major motivation for vocabulary instruction is to help students understand material they are about to read” (Nagy, 1988, p.9). To achieve the goal of strategic vocabulary learning and to boost the growth of vocabulary acquisition as a possibility, a learning strategy called “Personalized Vocabulary” suggested by Hayes (2015) will be discussed in the following section.

**Personalized Vocabulary**

“One cannot understand text without knowing what most of the words mean” (Nagy, 1988, p. 9). Personalized vocabulary is a learning strategy in which lexical items or the word list is personalized to suit the learner’s targeted field. This strategy by Hayes (2015) prepares learners to comprehend reading passages because personalized vocabulary exposes learners to an intensive amount of words. Also personalized vocabulary prepares learners for their goals and purposes of learning English because the provided vocabulary will be related to students' needs, which assures achieving the objectives of ESP.

Nagy (1988) argues that in order for any vocabulary-teaching
instruction to be valid and efficient, three main features must be considered; integration (relating new information to background knowledge), repetition, and meaningful use. This paper explores two different models that contain those three elements. This paper will provide the two models for personalized vocabulary in an attempt to endorse valuable and sufficient vocabulary instruction. The first model developed from Hayes (2015) is as follows.

First, each student is provided with a questionnaire that investigates their needs for learning English. The instructor then provides each learner with reading passages according to his/her needs; for example, a prospective business student is handed a number of reading passages that are business related. The reading passages should be authentic; therefore, the cases will be collected from newspapers and magazines such as success magazines because a classroom that does not have access to authentic materials is far from achieving learners’ goal of being prepared to enter the outer local, regional, national, and international communities.

Learners are then guided to underline words that they think are essential, that are allied to their targeted fields, and that will be used often. A minimum of ten words should be collected from each reading passage daily; each student uses one flash card for each word. Students must then write the main word on the front of the flash card, with the word’s definition, part of speech, list of other parts of speech such as verbs and adjectives, and a sentence or two as an example detailed on the back of the card. Finally, students study the flash cards and are tested each week by their peers. Thus, they will have a total of 30 vocabulary words per week. Of course there
should be room for flexibility; for example, students can pick their own reading passages.

The second model chosen was the vocabulary activities from Nam’s (2010) article, which could be used as an example of personalized vocabulary, if used with sorting the selected reading passages to align with learners’ interests. Nam (2010) provided an article that aims to link research with practice through applying research findings of vocabulary teaching strategies to authentic texts, including five target vocabulary words in English as second language (ESL) classrooms. The article claims that students who are involved in vocabulary activities that require inferring meaning and who are asked to practice new vocabulary in writing tasks along with reading passages will attain better comprehension, especially if vocabulary was combined with interaction tasks, because they will learn the lexical features of words. Nam has developed variable tasks for teaching vocabulary to apply the strategies from the research findings.

As an example, Nam chose the five new vocabulary words pre-underlined in a text from the NASA website. Secondly, she provided pictures of these words so second-language (L2) learners could tap into the conceptual, semantic, and lexical systems of their native languages. Moreover, she provided annotations in English to accompany the pictures. Thirdly, Nam introduced activities that require highly productive processing skills as a result of her various research findings; for example, a fill-in-the-blank test that relates to the reading text.

For a fourth task, Nam recommended students retell the text using the
target vocabulary. Lastly, Nam gave an example of vocabulary exercises, using a crossword puzzle that also involves the target vocabulary. Nam’s article effectively linked the gap between research and practice by applying strategies from research findings to authentic classroom activities, which improved linguistic competence for L2 learners. The tasks Nam recommended offer intensive vocabulary practice that is useful in ESP classrooms.

Personalized vocabulary is a helpful learning strategy in classrooms. Applying this approach will guarantee access to meaningful vocabulary because learners will acquire vocabulary words that allow them to communicate effectively in their imagined communities, where they plan to participate (using English). Personalized vocabulary can be taught as an additional language-learning skill along with listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Personalized vocabulary is a learner-centered approach where students can monitor their learning metacognitively. Learners will be motivated to memorize and study their daily list in depth because they played a role in making some of the decisions in choosing the certain vocabulary for the assessment. Indeed, personalized vocabulary aims at building strategic learners and encourages authenticity in learning.

**Conclusion**

Vocabulary should be taught directly in ESL/EFL classrooms because “vocabulary knowledge is fundamental in reading comprehension” (Nagy, 1988, p. 9). Mostly importantly, personalized vocabulary fits in ESP programs, serving the learners’ needs, which are the main focus of this research.
However, unlike traditional vocabulary teaching instruction, such as memorizing word definitions, personalized vocabulary provides in-depth word knowledge and a higher level of word recognition, use, and application. Nagy (1988) claims,

A number of studies indicate that reading comprehension requires a high level of word knowledge--higher than the level achieved by many types of vocabulary instruction. Only those methods that go beyond providing partial knowledge, producing in-depth knowledge of the words taught, will reliably increase readers' comprehension of texts containing those words. (p. 11)

It is worth mentioning that the two models of personalized vocabulary described in this research incorporate the three features for effective vocabulary instruction recommended by Nagy (1988) integration, repetition, and meaningful use.

Personalized vocabulary is convenient for any ESP program because it is based on the student’s objectives and visions. Both personalized vocabulary and ESP seek the learners' needs and provide materials that serve the learner's future goals. English is then personalized to fit the instruction that prepares learners for their professions. Most importantly, personalized vocabulary is learner-centered and seeks better achievement and deeper knowledge of English in the targeted field. Just like any ESP program, personalized vocabulary aims at authenticity because authentic materials prepare learners for the real world.

In sum, this chapter has explored an ecological approach in teaching
English as a foreign language, which aims at a reconceptualization in language teaching and adapting language instruction to meet learners' local and social needs because from an ecological perspective, the learning process does not only occur in the brain, but in a social context through the learners' interaction with the environment. Moreover, the chapter presented needs analysis in English for specific purposes, which aims at studying learners' needs by collecting information that relates to their target communities in order to be used as basis for designing appropriate language programs or curricula.

Also, English for specific, academic, and business purposes was explored in this chapter. ESP is concerned with providing various language programs that meet learners' needs and their target communities, whether occupational or academic. Finally, personalized vocabulary was presented, a learning strategy that aims to provide learners with specific vocabulary according to their targeted domain of study or occupation.
CHAPTER THREE
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Theoretical Framework

The aim of this chapter is to connect the major concepts that were expounded in the previous chapters, in an attempt to provide an ecologically adapted curriculum to meet business students’ needs in learning English as a foreign language. After student participants complete the questionnaire and their needs are identified, learners will be provided with tutoring sessions upon their request to help them overcome difficulties in business courses related to English, using a personalized learning strategy that will increase their English skills in the targeted field. A theoretical framework that ties together the major areas of concern in Chapter two is presented in the Figure 3.1. Each section of the model will be discussed in turn.

![Diagram](image)

Figure 3.1. A Model for Needs-Analysis-Informed Teaching for English for Specific Purposes
Learning Philosophy: An Ecological Approach in Teaching English

As a context for the entire model, an ecological approach in teaching English as foreign or second language is based on the assumption that the learning process must occur in a social and contextual environment in order to be meaningful (Firth & Wagner; 1997; van Lier, 2000). Students’ interaction within the environment causes a developmental process in their behavior; that is why educators should investigate learners in certain environments and understand the target context, wherein English can be practiced. Thus, the ecological approach is concerned with personalizing teaching English methodologies to meet learners’ local and personal needs.

Approach: Needs Analysis Questionnaire

Aligned with the ecological approach, a needs analysis questionnaire was proposed to investigate students’ needs in business English. Needs analysis is an approach that aims at bridging the gap between the learner’s needs and their future goals. Consequently, the research will apply one of the well-known data collection procedures in needs analysis, a questionnaire, to survey business students’ needs in learning English.

Discipline: English for Specific Purposes

Needs analysis, therefore, leads to the discipline of English for specific purposes, which aims at a meaningful learning experience. Basically, needs analysis is the core of ESP and one can conclude that ESP serves needs analysis because it concentrates on specific needs for learners in order to prepare them to communicate successfully in their target communities. Moreover, it serves the ecological approach because it integrates learners
with their target environment and engages them in a meaningful learning context. In fact, ESP combines subjects to language and current experiences to future ones.

**Learning Strategy: Personalized Vocabulary**

Whereas needs analysis is considered the core of ESP (Belcher, 2006; Songhori, 2007), vocabulary teaching and learning is the bedrock of ESP. Each ESP program has its own specific terms; for example, the type of vocabulary used in a business context varies from the ones used in the medical context. Therefore, Chapter Two presented the learning strategy (personalized vocabulary), which aims at intensive vocabulary teaching and learning driven by the student’s ESP program.

It is worth mentioning that the topics of the literature review in this project have a common vision: a learner-centered approach where students’ decisions and goals are highly encouraged. This is a matter of respecting learners’ diversity, understanding their motivation, engaging them in making choices, studying their needs, and finally adapting teaching instruction to meet those needs.

**Methodology of the Study**

**Research Questions**

The primary research questions, which are the central aim of this study, are the following: “What business English do students need help with?” and “What are their strategies in learning English as a foreign language that lead them to success in business?” The secondary research question is, “Do
students need help with vocabulary or consider it more important than the other language skills?” In sum, this investigation addresses how needs analysis helps to define learners’ goals in acquiring business studies.

Building a Questionnaire Based on a Needs Analysis Approach

A needs analysis approach is what best describes the process for this study. Iwai, et al. (1999) define needs analysis as the process of gathering information in relation to language that, in return, is the basis for adapting a curriculum to meet the learning needs of a specific group of students. These authors also claim that needs analysis is a crucial aspect of curriculum building. Data from questionnaires, tests, interviews, and observation are the fundamental tools for collecting information. Iwai et al. (1999) state the following:

Information sources for such informal needs assessments might include scores on an overall language proficiency test, facts gathered from a background questionnaire that asks where and for how long students have had previous language training, or impressions gleaned from teacher and student interviews about the students' cognitive and linguistic abilities. (p. 7)

For this study, data collection will be based on a questionnaire that has been developed from a variety of research sources that address needs analysis in English for specific purposes. The questionnaire will consider specific kinds of information that will be used to provide personalized skills classes during subsequent tutoring.
The questionnaire “Needs Analysis in English for Specific Purposes” will be provided online. It consists of twelve questions in five categories. The questions are multiple choice, consisting of a biographical and a self-evaluative nature.

First Category: Major and Level of Study. Question 1: Students are to select their major in business choosing from the following: Accounting and Finance, Information Decision Services, Management, Marketing, Public Administration, or Other; and their level of study (graduate student, major, or pre-major).

Second Category: Language Skills. Questions 2-5: Students are to evaluate what skills they deem important in reading, speaking, writing, and listening, rating them from the most important to the least important. These questions give students a list of specific skills that they might not be aware of; for example, reading texts, magazines, newspaper, or articles.

Third Category: Learning Strategies and Study Skills. Questions 6-8: Students are to choose the learning strategies and study skills they already use, need help with now, or expect to need in the future in order to achieve their academic objectives.

Fourth Category: Personal Background. Questions 9-11: Students to provide biographical information such as gender, age, and first language.

Fifth Category: Interests and Importance. Students are to rate or evaluate their language skills in business English and to show their interests.
in advanced English tutoring to further their success in business. They may 
leave their contact information if they are interested in tutoring.

Once data is collected and the questionnaires are examined, if possible, students will be provided with tutoring sessions. The tutoring 
sessions are meant to strengthen students’ weaknesses in English. They will 
be provided with intensive reading passages collected from business 
magazines, newspapers, or online articles. Tutors will apply the strategies for personalized skill-building.

If the questionnaire identifies areas of difficulty for the international 
students in the College of Business and Public Administration (CPBA) 
regarding their lack of adequate language skills, they will need assistance to acquire the English needed in order to succeed in various business settings.

International students are required to achieve high scores in English 
proficiency; tests such as IELTS or TOEFL are required to enter universities in the U.S. The language programs offered in the learner’s universities focus on academic English that prepares students to pass the English proficiency tests. However, in the domain of business, “teachers had sensed for some time that many of the real needs of the students were not being met” (Ostler, 1980, p. 489).

The materials offered in the domain of business such as the reading texts require an advanced knowledge of business vocabulary or terms. Additionally, the written papers required in business differ from those of academic English papers in other disciplines. For example, “…there were frequent requests for help on writing résumés, research proposals, and
critique” (Ostler, 1980, p. 490). For this particular reason, the researcher will look into students’ English-language needs by providing a questionnaire; and, upon their request, tutoring classes will be offered to help them succeed in their studies.

Participants

A number of international students in CBPA will be asked to complete a questionnaire to identify what they need help with in business English. Those who indicate a need for help will be asked if they want to join business English tutoring sessions. The student pool will be a representative sample of the CBPA international student population. Those students might be qualified for the business major; however, their English proficiency level may challenge them and hold them back. In order for them to be capable of reading business books, they may need to be better prepared.

In order to determine whether needs analysis plays an important role in the processes of acquiring English for specific purposes, a number of participants will be asked to participate in the conduction of the study. To achieve an appropriate practical pool, certain inclusion criteria were imposed. This study consists of the instructor (researcher) and a group of participants from various nationalities. The first participant recruited is the instructor, a master’s student in the Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) program. Moreover, the participants recruited for Group 2, as learners, are student volunteers from the CSUSB’s CBPA program.
Materials

A questionnaire has been developed in accordance with the needs-analysis approach. The questionnaire includes multiple-choice questions in five main categories: (a) major and level of study, (b) language skills, (c) learning strategies and study skills, (d) personal background, and (e) interests and importance.

As stated above, the questionnaire is designed to collect data that will help to determine what business English students need help with and what students’ needs are in learning English as a foreign language to further their success in business. Information collected will be the basis for identifying goals and objectives of a possible program of tutoring.
CHAPTER FOUR
ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

The Process of Analysis

In order to study CSUSB international business students' needs in learning English as a foreign language, a questionnaire was provided online through Surveymonkey.com. The data collected identified the specific needs of students in English for business purposes. Moreover, the questionnaire identified areas of difficulty for international students in the College of Business and Public Administration (CPBA).

Data from the online survey submitted by the international students in CPBA were analyzed; in particular, regarding the four language skills related to areas of business and the learning strategies or the study skills they use. The next section offers a brief introduction to the applied website for collecting data Surveymonkey.com.

A Brief Introduction to Surveymonkey.com

As mentioned above, the survey Needs Analysis in English for Specific Purposes was conducted online using the Surveymonkey.com website to plan and design the survey and to collect participant responses. After designing the survey, a web link was provided to participants via email. The website has many merits; first, it does not require extensive computer skills to plan a survey or to take it. Secondly, the cost of the subscription is reasonable, $23 per month. Thirdly, a great advantage of Surveymonkey is that it contains question banks that help with designing the survey questions. Lastly, the main
reason behind choosing this website in particular was the option of using the
survey data analysis, which summarizes the data into graphs such as charts
and tables; moreover, it provides detailed individual responses, which can be
useful as reference for future tutoring sessions. To conclude, the website was
a successful choice in conducting the survey that helped to provide accurate
analysis of the results.

Analysis of Participants’ Collected Responses

The survey begins asking participants/students their current or future
major and level of study (see Figure 4.1). Most of the international graduate
students, 52.94 percent, are majoring in Accounting and Finance, whereas
only 2.94 percent are majoring in Information Decision Services (IDS). An
equal number of graduate students are majoring in Management and
Marketing, 11.76 percent. Another set of students, 20.59 percent, is majoring
in Public Administration.

Similarly to graduates, the largest major for undergraduate students, 50
percent, is Accounting and Finance. IDS and Management fall equally in
second place, for a total of 15.91 percent. On the other hand, only 9.09
percent of the students are specializing in Marketing or Public Administration.

The highest percentage of the pre-major students name Accounting
and Finance as their desired major, 50 percent. On the contrary, Public
Administration has the lowest percentage, only 5 percent. IDS, Management,
and Marketing were equally chosen by 15 percent of the pre-major students.
Data for all levels are displayed in Figure 4.1 and Table 4.1.
Q1 Which one of the following is your current or future major, and level of study?

Answered: 91  Skipped: 0

Figure 4.1. Current Major and Level of Study
The second survey question of the survey aimed at investigating the comparative importance of specific areas of reading (see Figure 4.2). Reading textbooks and articles are priorities for the international business students at 58.62 percent and 19.23 percent respectively. Reading newspapers and magazines were priorities for only 11.11 percent and 3.85 percent respectively.

Reading textbooks and articles were more important than reading newspapers or magazines. Around 41.30 percent considered reading textbooks “important” and 57.69 percent considered reading articles also “important.” Reading newspaper and magazines were important to 37.04 percent and 23.08 percent respectively.
Q2 How important are each of these areas of reading to you?

Answered: 38  Skipped: 31

Figure 4.2. Comparative Importance of Areas of Reading
On the other hand, only 23.08 percent selected “not important” to reading articles and none of the participants selected “not important” for reading texts. However, 73.08 percent considered reading magazines “not important” at all, and 51.85 percent also selected “not important” for reading newspaper (see Table 4.2).

Table 4.2. Percentage of Importance of Areas of Reading

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Priority</th>
<th>Important</th>
<th>Not Important</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Text</td>
<td>55.62%</td>
<td>41.33%</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Newspaper</td>
<td>11.11%</td>
<td>37.04%</td>
<td>51.85%</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Magazines</td>
<td>3.85%</td>
<td>23.00%</td>
<td>73.00%</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Article</td>
<td>19.23%</td>
<td>57.69%</td>
<td>23.00%</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The intent of the third question was to investigate the comparative importance of various areas of speaking to the students. The percentage of students who selected “priority” was as following: speaking to colleagues, 50 percent; speaking on the phone, 33.33 percent; taking part in meetings, 25 percent; taking parts in conferences, 19.23 percent; and small talk, 22.22 percent.

Participants who selected that taking part in meetings and conferences were “important” were 67.86 percent and 65.38 percent respectively, which compared to all other skills had the highest percentage of importance. This was followed by speaking on the phone and small talk, which were both
selected as “important” equally, at 55.56 percent.

On the contrary, few participants selected “not important” for speaking to colleagues, taking part in meetings, and speaking on the phone, 3.33 percent, 7.14 percent, and 11.11 percent respectively. Around 22 percent selected “not important” to small talk and 15.38 percent to “taking part in conference.” In general, the majority of students considered all of the five provided speaking areas relatively important (see Table 4.3 and Figure 4.3).

Table 4.3. Percentage of Importance of Areas of Speaking

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Priority</th>
<th>Important</th>
<th>Not Important</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Speaking to colleagues</td>
<td>56.00% 15</td>
<td>46.67% 14</td>
<td>3.33% 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speaking on the phone</td>
<td>33.33% 9</td>
<td>55.56% 15</td>
<td>11.11% 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taking part in meetings</td>
<td>25.00% 7</td>
<td>67.86% 19</td>
<td>7.14% 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taking part in conferences</td>
<td>19.23% 5</td>
<td>65.38% 17</td>
<td>15.38% 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Small talk</td>
<td>22.22% 6</td>
<td>55.56% 15</td>
<td>22.22% 6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 4.3. Comparative Importance of Areas of Speaking
The intent of the fourth question was to determine the comparative importance of areas of writing to students (see Figure 4.4). Writing e-mails was a “priority” for 62.07 percent, closely followed by business letters and academic papers, 42.31 percent. Students considered writing reports, 34.62 percent, and summary of articles, 25 percent, their priorities.

Writing reports was selected “important” for 57.69 percent, followed by business letters and summaries of articles, 46.15 percent and 42.86 percent respectively. Writing academic papers was “important” for 34.62 percent, and emails were selected “important” for 31.03 percent. Generally, writing in all the five genres was deemed almost equally important.

However, some students considered writing summaries of articles and academic papers “not important,” 32.14 percent and 23.08 percent respectively. Fewer considered writing business letters, reports, and emails “not important,” 11.54 percent, 7.69 percent, and 6.90 percent respectively (see Table 4.4).

The fifth question examined the comparative importance for areas of listening. Listening to lectures was a priority to 64.71 percent of the students, closely followed by 52.94 percent who chose explanations given by the teacher to be their priority. Listening to peers was a priority to 37.50 percent; and lastly, listening to presentation, 25 percent.
Q4 How important are each of these areas of writing to you?

Answered: 38  Skipped: 34

Business letters

E-mails

Reports

Summaries of articles

Academic papers

0% 10% 20% 30% 40% 50% 60% 70% 80% 90% 100%

Priority  Important  Not important

Figure 4.4. The Importance of Areas of Writing
Table 4.4. Percentage of Importance of Areas of Writing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Priority</th>
<th>Important</th>
<th>Not important</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Business letters</strong></td>
<td>42.31%</td>
<td>46.15%</td>
<td>11.54%</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>E-mails</strong></td>
<td>62.07%</td>
<td>31.03%</td>
<td>6.90%</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>18</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Reports</strong></td>
<td>34.62%</td>
<td>57.69%</td>
<td>7.69%</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Summaries of articles</strong></td>
<td>25.00%</td>
<td>42.86%</td>
<td>32.14%</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Academic papers</strong></td>
<td>42.31%</td>
<td>34.62%</td>
<td>23.08%</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Listening to peers was selected “important” to 50 percent of the students, followed by listening to presentations and explanation given by the teacher, 43.75 percent and 41.18 percent respectively. Listening to lectures was considered “important” for only 29.41 percent.

On the other hand, listening to presentations and peers were selected “not important” for 31.25 percent and 12.50 percent of the students respectively. Only few, 5.88 percent, selected “not important” equally to listening to lectures and explanation given by the teacher (see Table 4.5 and Figure 4.5).
Table 4.5. Percentage of Importance of Areas of Listening

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Priority</th>
<th>Important</th>
<th>Not important</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lectures</td>
<td>64.71%</td>
<td>29.41%</td>
<td>5.88%</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Presentation</td>
<td>25.00%</td>
<td>43.75%</td>
<td>31.25%</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explanations given by the teacher</td>
<td>52.94%</td>
<td>41.18%</td>
<td>5.88%</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listening to peers</td>
<td>37.50%</td>
<td>50.00%</td>
<td>12.50%</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The aim of the sixth question was to determine the most successful learning strategies used by students. The majority of students, 55.32 percent, chose “Prepare for lectures—find out what is in the books on the subject so that you are aware of what you do not need to take notes about the lectures” to be the most used successful the learning strategy. An equal percentage of the participants, 44.68 percent, selected both learning strategies “Make brief notes of essential points” and “Listen for the sense of ‘making sense’ rather than just taking notes” to be successful, followed by “Discuss the lecture with other people,” 31.91 percent.
Figure 4.5. The Importance of Areas of Listening
After that comes “Listen for ‘signposts’ about what is coming next or for summaries of key points” at 29.79 percent. Next, the two strategies “Set yourself questions and leave spaces to have these answered during the lecture” and “Use mind maps or visual organizers to organize information” were equally selected by 23.40 percent. Lastly, “Consider how the lecture changed or developed your opinions of the subject” was selected as successful for only 19.15 percent of the participants (see Table 4.6).

Table 4.6. Most Used and Successful Learning Strategies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answer Choices</th>
<th>Responses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>☐ Prepare for lectures—find out what is in the books on the subject so that you are aware of what you do not need to take notes about the lecture.</td>
<td>55.32% 29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>☐ Set yourself questions and leave spaces to have these answered during the lecture.</td>
<td>23.40% 11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>☐ Make brief notes of essential points.</td>
<td>44.68% 21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>☐ Listen for the sense of “making sense” rather than just taking notes.</td>
<td>44.68% 21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>☐ Listen for “signposts” about what is coming next or for summaries of key points.</td>
<td>29.79% 14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>☐ Discuss the lecture with other people.</td>
<td>31.91% 15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>☐ Consider how the lecture changed or developed your opinions of the subject.</td>
<td>19.15% 9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>☐ Use mind maps or visual organizers to organize information.</td>
<td>23.40% 11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total Respondents: 47

The seventh question examined the study skills that students deemed important to acquire in order to improve their success in business (see Figure 4.6 and Table 4.7). The highest proportion selected “Time management,” 58.70 percent, followed by “Note taking and the Preview/Question/
Read/Summary/Test (PQRST) method," 54.35 percent of both. "Using flash cards" was deemed the least favorable to acquire (15.22 percent).

**Figure 4.6. Study Skills Needed to Improve Success**

**Table 4.7. Study Skills Needed Deemed Necessary to Improve Success**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answer Choices</th>
<th>Responses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Note taking</td>
<td>54.35%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using flash cards</td>
<td>15.22%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time management</td>
<td>58.70%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PQRST method (Preview/Question/Read/Summary/Test)</td>
<td>54.35%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total Respondents: 46
The eighth question asked students to decide at what point during their study period they need help (see Table 4.8). Around 56.52 percent need help to prepare for tests, and 43.48 percent, 45.65 percent, and 47.83 percent need help before, during and after lectures respectively.

Table 4.8. At What Point Students Need Help

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answer Choices</th>
<th>Responses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>How I prepare for lectures</td>
<td>43.48%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What I do during lectures</td>
<td>45.65%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What I do after listening to lectures</td>
<td>47.83%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How I prepare for tests</td>
<td>56.52%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other (please specify)</td>
<td>Responses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6.52%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total Respondents: 46

The ninth, tenth, and eleventh questions were demographic questions about the participant’s personal background; they were asked to give their gender, age, and first language (see Figures 4.7, 4.8, and 4.9). The majority of participants were males, 68 percent. The participants age range was from 18 to 34 years old; however, the majority of participants were between the ages of 18 and 24—only about 2 percent were between 35 to 45 years old. The participants’ first languages were Arabic, Chinese, Vietnamese, and Korean, with the largest population being Arabic.
Q9 What is your gender?

Answered: 46  Skipped: 15

Female

Male

0% 10% 20% 30% 40% 50% 60% 70% 80% 90% 100%

Figure 4.7. Gender

Q10 What is your age?

Answered: 46  Skipped: 15

18 to 24

25 to 34

35 to 44

45 to 54

55 to 64

65 or older

0% 10% 20% 30% 40% 50% 60% 70% 80% 90% 100%

Figure 4.8. Age
Question Twelve asked participants to evaluate their language skills in business English. Reading skill was rated “almost perfect” for 23.81 percent of the students and “adequate” for 26.19 percent of them. Another 21.43 percent selected “need some help,” and 28.57 percent of them found themselves struggling with reading. Similar to the reading skill question, the writing skill was rated “almost perfect” for 23.81 percent of the students and “adequate” for 26.19 percent of the students; however, another 23.81 percent need some help with writing and 26.19 percent were really struggling.

On the other hand, 16.67 percent were “about perfect” with vocabulary and about 23.81 percent were “adequate.” The number of the students who needed some help with business vocabulary was 42.86 percent, and about
16.67 percent said they were really struggling. The listening and speaking skills were “almost perfect” for 29.73 percent of the students and “adequate” for another 45.95 percent. Only 16.22 percent needed help with business vocabulary and few number, 8.11 percent, selected “really struggling” (see Table 4.9).

Table 4.9. Skills Self-Rating in Areas of Business English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Skills</th>
<th>Almost perfect</th>
<th>Adequate</th>
<th>Need some help</th>
<th>I am really struggling</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reading</td>
<td>23.81% (10)</td>
<td>26.19% (11)</td>
<td>21.43% (9)</td>
<td>28.57% (12)</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writing</td>
<td>23.81% (10)</td>
<td>26.19% (11)</td>
<td>23.81% (10)</td>
<td>26.19% (11)</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocabulary</td>
<td>16.67% (7)</td>
<td>23.81% (10)</td>
<td>42.86% (18)</td>
<td>16.67% (7)</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listening/Speaking</td>
<td>29.73% (11)</td>
<td>45.95% (17)</td>
<td>16.22% (6)</td>
<td>8.11% (3)</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Lastly, students were asked to leave their contact information if they were interested in receiving tutoring in business English (see Figure 4.10). In this area, 35 percent of the participants showed some interest and an approximate number, about 30 percent, were very interested in tutoring.
Figure 4.10. Participants Interested in Business English Tutoring

Data Highlights

To summarize the data highlights, the majority of students were as follows: majored in Accounting and Finance; selected texts as a reading priority; selected all areas of speaking important; selected writing business emails priority; selected listening to lectures a priority; needed help with lectures (before, during, and after); needed help with vocabulary or all the other skills.
In sum, the survey scrutinized participants’ needs in learning English for business purposes. The data collected will be used to help international business students overcome their weaknesses in English and be successful in their studies and careers. Apparently, the survey indicated that the students felt they did not have a high level of English skills in areas of business. This is discussed in more detail in the following chapter.
CHAPTER FIVE
CONCLUSION

Analysis of the Results

“It is very easy to run an academic program on what seem to be reliable and useful criteria” (Ostler, 1980, p. 489). Nevertheless, the dilemma appears when English as a foreign language learners fail to achieve success in their targeted academic fields despite meeting the language requirements or passing an English language program. These learners may lack certain language skills, which has caused them to fall behind. Therefore, in order to determine the learners’ particular needs in a business setting, a survey was developed from the theory of Needs Analysis (NA) in English for Specific Purposes (ESP).

The survey was sent to 570 international students in the business discipline to learn about the language skills they need to acquire for use in business settings to successfully complete their studies. The study aimed at bridging the gap between the materials provided to English learners and their targeted goals in business. The aim of this survey was to benefit those who are working toward completing such programs.

This chapter analyzes results of the survey and addresses the primary research question: With what kind of business English do students need help? Furthermore, it discusses the limitations and obstacles encountered by the researcher during the study. Lastly, the chapter indicates recommendations for future study that could benefit colleagues in similar fields.
Analysis of Questionnaire Responses

The second question inquired about the areas of reading in business settings that students considered important. Research indicated that reading textbooks and articles received more attention; the reason could be related to their current occupation as students. They need to read textbooks because this is what their grading is partially based on, because they must be aware of the content in order to pass the class. In addition, reading articles could provide useful information that would benefit them in their studies.

On the other hand, research suggested that reading magazines and newspapers was not as important. The reason could be that because students are not required to read those materials. Another reason could be that the content of a magazine is not as important as that of a text. Also, the content presented in magazines and newspapers is either for entertainment or general knowledge, and not usually for academic purposes.

When students were asked to determine the most important areas of speaking, they consistently chose all of the five provided areas (speaking to colleagues, speaking on the phone, taking part in meetings, taking part in conferences, and small talk). The value of communication skills, for the most part, in the business field explains the participants’ logic of equally highlighting all of the areas of speaking skills. In the business setting, business arguments, conversations, sales, and deals greatly depend on the appropriate speaking skills needed in given situations in order to be persuasive.

The third survey question about the most important areas of writing revealed that writing academic papers and summaries of articles are less
important than writing emails, reports, and business letters. The last three areas are technically the most commonly used types of writing in a business environment, which reflects the participants’ inclination. If participants were to work in business settings, they would most likely be required to write many emails, send business letters, and provide a number of reports.

The next question asked students to rate the importance of different areas of listening. Listening to lectures and explanations given by the instructor were more important than listening to presentations or peers. This reveals that listening to academic content is important to their success in the CBPA. Students are at a level where they need to benefit as much as possible from their instructors. In the academic context, they are recipients, and for this reason they must pay attention and listen to lectures given by their teacher. However, practicing their listening skills through peer discussions of certain topics can help them see where mistakes are made in speaking, which can sharpen their listening and speaking skills.

Taking notes, making sense of lecture content, and preparing for lectures were the most important strategies that participants used and considered very successful. On the other hand, the majority chose note taking, time management, and the PQRST method when asked about what study skills they needed to acquire. Accordingly, participants showed that they needed help, before, during, and after the lecture along with preparing for tests. The results determined that participants have difficulty comprehending all of the information given in lectures; therefore, they need help preparing for lectures. On the other hand, note taking is one of the most popular strategies
used by students because it helps them obtain information and prepare for tests.

Finally, participants rated their skills in reading, writing, listening, speaking, and vocabulary. Although about half of the students considered their language skills “perfect” or “adequate,” a large number considered themselves to be struggling or in need some help with business English. However, most of the struggling students needed help with vocabulary more than the other language skills. Based on this, it is logical to conclude that vocabulary teaching is as important as the four language skills. Vocabulary is the main component of all language skills and sufficient knowledge of vocabulary enables learners to develop a high level of comprehension. On the contrary, insufficient knowledge of vocabulary will lead students to lose coherence in context.

Last, but not least, 50 percent of the participants showed an interest in tutoring to achieve their success in business, but only 30 percent provided their contact information. As a result, those who are interested in tutoring will be contacted to attend the tutoring sessions designed particularly for business English and which are built on the student’s language needs.

In sum, language could be an obstacle to international students in the CBPA. Passing English language tests or completing language programs does not necessarily provide proper language skills required for a student’s targeted field. In fact, students’ needs must be taken into consideration to assure their success in the future.
Limitations of the Study

The current study has its limitations. The first one is related to the number of responses. Despite the fact that the survey web link was emailed to 570 international students in CPBA, only 61 participants responded to the survey, not to mention that some of them skipped a large part of the questions, which made the survey data very limited. A large number of students would make the study more valid in terms of generalization of the findings.

Secondly, the period of the study was limited. Due to time limitation, data were collected for the investigation with the questionnaire only. Other data collective sources such interviews and observations would have provided more reliable results. Finally, the emphasis was on investigating the students’ needs, so it was not possible to provide tutoring at the same time. On the other hand, the survey results will be used by the researcher and other colleagues in order to provide students with tutoring in business English based on the students’ needs in the future.

Recommendations for Future Study

There are certain aspects that should be taken into consideration for future research on needs analysis. Although this study examined students’ needs in business English, the survey can be modified to suit English learners in various fields. Moreover, it is beneficial to apply the survey to tutees who aim at pursuing the field of business. Most importantly, the study revealed that the majority of students need help with vocabulary; therefore, it should be a
significant area to address and taught intensively.

Due to limited time, personalized vocabulary did not take place in this research yet the research proved the necessity of vocabulary learning/building. For this reason, the researcher suggests using this personalized learning as a strategy. Adding to that, vocabulary terms vary from one field to the other and that is why vocabulary has to be personalized to meet business English needs.

Future research may include extensive details on the specific areas of language skills that learners need master in business English. In conclusion, future research must consider the following: first, an extended time is needed to conduct various data collection procedures; and second, we should consider teaching vocabulary intensively.

Conclusion

This research examined learners’ needs in English for specific purposes. The results have demonstrated the fact that international students in CBPA need help with their business English skills, particularly in vocabulary. Therefore, English language instruction must be adapted, first of all, to prepare learners to enter their targeted field, which will save time and effort and enhance success in their future occupation or academic field. On the other hand, underestimating students’ needs will result in an insufficient communications competency in their target communities. The research paper is an attempt to honor a learner-centered ideology and solve the discontinuity of learner’ expectations and irrelevant language instruction.

Likewise, the research paper highlighted the importance of the concept
of English as an international language that led to English for specific purposes along with needs analysis; in other words, it aimed at adjusting language instruction to suit various learners with distinct goals. Unlike the one-size-fits-all programs, ESP and NA are able to provide learners with efficacious language instruction and programs because they identify learners’ needs and work from that point. To sum up, teaching English must be a matter of achieving communicative competence in specific content rather than merely attaining general linguistic competence.
APPENDIX A

NEEDS ANALYSIS IN ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES QUESTIONNAIRE
Needs Analysis in English for Specific Purposes

Welcome to My Survey

Thank you for participating in our survey. Your feedback is important.

Needs Analysis in English for Specific Purposes

Consent Cover Letter

The purpose of this research study is to investigate the types of business courses that students need help with, and what are students’ needs in learning English as a foreign language for success in business.

We would like to ask you to complete an online survey. There are no foreseeable risks to participating in this research. You may benefit personally for participating in the research by taking advantage of possible tutoring. Moreover, the results of this research have the potential to improve your success in using business English.

Your privacy will be protected. Only the research investigators will have access to raw data. Your answers will not be identifiable with you personally; all data will be aggregated. Data will be on a password-protected site that can only be accessed by the principal investigator.
It should take between 15-30 minutes to complete the questionnaire, depending on how much information do you wish to give us. Participation in this study is voluntary. You can choose not to take part. You can choose not to finish the survey. You can omit any question you prefer not to answer.

By continuing to the online survey, you are giving your consent to participate.

We thank you for your time and thank you in advance if you decide to participate in this research.

If you have any questions, complaints, or if you feel you have been harmed by this research please contact Dr. Lynne Diaz-Rico, coordinator, MA-TESOL program, California State University, San Bernardino (diazrico@csusb.edu) or by phone (909) 537-5658.

At California State University, San Bernardino, you can contact the Institutional Review Board (IRB) if you have questions regarding your rights as a research participant. Also, contact the IRB if you have questions, complaints or concerns that you do not feel you can discuss with the investigators. The California State University, San Bernardino IRB can be reached by phone at (909-537-7588) or by email at (mgillesp@csusb.edu).

The ethical aspects of this study have also been approved by the CSUSB Human Subject Ethics Committee. If you have any complaints or reservations about any ethical aspects of your participation in this research, you may contact the Committee through the Director, Research Ethics (909-537-7588 – mgillesp@csusb.edu). Any complaint you make will be treated in confidence and investigated, and you will be informed of the outcome.

Needs Analysis in English for Specific Purposes

This survey is about the factors that may influence the international students in the College of Business and Public Administration at California State University, San Bernardino; what is their sense of success in business or pre-business courses, and what strategies they use for success.
**Needs Analysis in English for Specific Purposes**

**Major and Level of Study**

* 1. Which one of the following is your current or future major, and level of study?*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Accounting and Finance</th>
<th>Information Decision Services (IDS)</th>
<th>Management</th>
<th>Marketing</th>
<th>Public Administration</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Graduate student</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Major</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-major</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other (please specify)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Needs Analysis in English for Specific Purposes**

**Language Skills**

**Reading/Speaking/Writing/Listening**

* 2. How important are each of these areas of reading to you?*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Priority</th>
<th>Important</th>
<th>Not important</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Text</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Newspaper</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Magazines</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Article</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other (please specify)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3. How important are each of these areas of **speaking** to you?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Priority</th>
<th>Important</th>
<th>Not important</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Speaking to colleagues</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speaking on the phone</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taking part in meetings</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taking part in conferences</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Small talk</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Other (please specify)*

4. How important are each of these areas of **writing** to you?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Priority</th>
<th>Important</th>
<th>Not important</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Business letters</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E-mails</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reports</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Summaries of articles</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic papers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Other (please specify)*

5. How important are each of these areas of **listening** to you?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Priority</th>
<th>Important</th>
<th>Not important</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lectures</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Presentation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explanations given by the teacher</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listening to peers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Other (please specify)*
6. What strategies have you used that were the most successful of you?

- Prepare for lectures—find out what is in the books on the subject so that you are aware of what you do not need to take notes about the lecture.
- Set yourself questions and leave spaces to have these answered during the lecture.
- Make brief notes of essential points.
- Listen for the sense of “making sense” rather than just taking notes.
- Listen for “signposts” about what is coming next or for summaries of key points.
- Discuss the lecture with other people.
- Consider how the lecture changed or developed your opinions of the subject.
- Use mind maps or visual organizers to organize information.

Other (please specify)

7. What study skills do you want to acquire to improve your success?

- Note taking
- Using flash cards
- Time management
- PQRST method (Preview/Question/Read/Summary/Test)

Other (please specify)
8. Which of the following do you need help with?

☐ How I prepare for lectures
☐ What I do during lectures
☐ What I do after listening to lectures
☐ How I prepare for tests
☐ Other (please specify)

Needs Analysis in English for Specific Purposes

Personal Background

9. What is your gender?

☐ Female
☐ Male

10. What is your age?

☐ 18 to 24
☐ 25 to 34
☐ 35 to 44
☐ 45 to 54
☐ 55 to 64
☐ 65 or older

11. What is your first language?
**Needs Analysis in English for Specific Purposes**

**Interest and Importance**

* 12. Rate your skills in the following areas of business English:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Almost perfect</th>
<th>Adequate</th>
<th>Need some help</th>
<th>I am really struggling</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reading</td>
<td>○</td>
<td></td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writing</td>
<td>○</td>
<td></td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocabulary</td>
<td>○</td>
<td></td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listening/Speaking</td>
<td>○</td>
<td></td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* 13. Are you interested in tutoring in advanced English to enhance your success in business?

- ○ Yes, very much
- ○ Yes
- ○ Not much
- ○ Not interested at all

14. If you are interested in tutoring, please leave your contact information below.

- Name: [ ]
- Email Address: [ ]
- Phone Number: [ ]

Developed by: Israa Albassri
APPENDIX B

INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD APPROVAL FORM
December 10, 2015

Ms. Israa abdalaziz Albassri and Prof. Lynn Diaz-Rico
Department of Teacher Education and Foundations
California State University, San Bernardino
5500 University Parkway
San Bernardino, California 92407

Dear Ms. Albassri and Prof. Diaz-Rico:

Your application to use human subjects, titled, “AN Ecological Approach in Teaching English as a Foreign Language” has been reviewed and approved by the Chair of the Institutional Review Board (IRB) of California State University, San Bernardino has determined that your application meets the requirements for exemption from IRB review Federal requirements under 45 CFR 46. As the researcher under the exempt category you do not have to follow the requirements under 45 CFR 46 which requires annual renewal and documentation of written informed consent which are not required for the exempt category. However, exempt status still requires you to attain consent from participants before conducting your research.

The CSUSB IRB has not evaluated your proposal for scientific merit, except to weigh the risk to the human participants and the aspects of the proposal related to potential risk and benefit. This approval notice does not replace any departmental or additional approvals which may be required.

Your responsibilities as the researcher/investigator reporting to the IRB Committee include the following 4 requirements as mandated by the Code of Federal Regulations 45 CFR 46 listed below. Please note that the protocol change form and renewal form are located on the IRB website under the forms menu. Failure to notify the IRB of the above may result in disciplinary action. You are required to keep copies of the informed consent forms and data for at least three years. Please notify the IRB Research Compliance Officer for any of the following:

- Submit a protocol change form if any changes (no matter how minor) are proposed in your research prospectus/protocol for review and approval of the IRB before implemented in your research,
- If any unanticipated/ adverse events are experienced by subjects during your research, and
- When your project has ended by emailing the IRB Research Compliance Officer.

If you have any questions regarding the IRB decision, please contact Michael Gillespie, the IRB Research Compliance Officer. Mr. Michael Gillespie can be reached by phone at (909) 537-7588, by fax at (909) 537-7028, or by email at mgillesp@csusb.edu. Please include your application approval identification number (listed at the top) in all correspondence.

Best of luck with your research.

Sincerely,

Judy Sylva
Judy Sylvan, Ph.D., Chair
CSUSB Institutional Review Board
JS/MG

909.537.7588 • fax: 909.537.7028 • http://irb.csusb.edu/
5500 UNIVERSITY PARKWAY, SAN BERNARDINO, CA 92407-2392
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